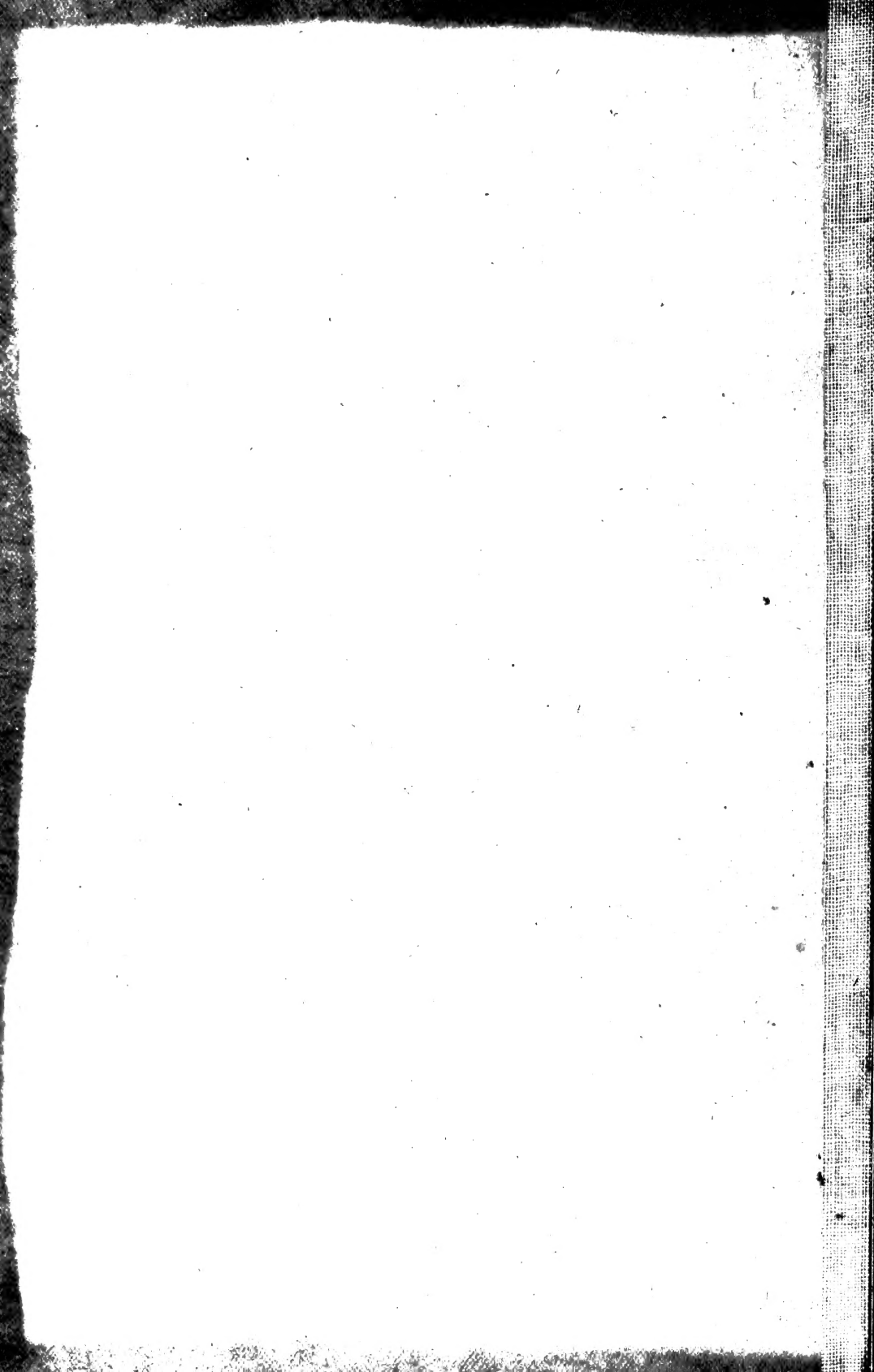
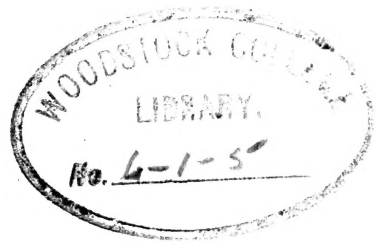


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APPLETONS'
ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA

AND

REGISTER OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

OF THE YEAR

1880.

EMBRACING POLITICAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS; PUBLIC DOCUMENTS; BIOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, FINANCE, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AGRICULTURE, AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRY.

NEW SERIES, VOL. V.

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P R E F A C E .

THE ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA has always met with an appreciative reception among the American public. Its still extending use and demand approve the fitness of its plan. Few annual publications in the world have as successfully stood the ordeal of time. First started in 1861, the volume for 1880 is the twentieth of the series. The largest and most comprehensive general year-book printed in any country, no pains or research are spared to make it complete and trustworthy.

The "Annual Cyclopædia" aims to give a record of political events, of legislative action, of the judicial interpretation of the laws, and of the condition and workings of the public administration of the General Government and of each of the State governments, with an impartial review of political questions as they arise, and of the aims and sentiments of party organizations. It thus places before the citizen all the information which is necessary for the understanding of the public affairs of the nation, and the intelligent exercise of the rights and duties of citizenship.

Coördinated with the political knowledge given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" is as large a body of authentic and systematized information as can be collected relating to the development of the agricultural, industrial, and commercial interests of the country; and every important subject of public comment and concern is treated in its appropriate connection. The religious statistics and denominational records are presented as an important part of the social history of a Christian people. The political and social history of each nation in the world is given with equal comprehensiveness as, though less detail than, that of our own country. The "Annual Cyclopædia" is also a record of science, literature, and art.

In 1880 the quadrennial election occupied the attention of the American people more than all other considerations. In the articles on the UNITED STATES and the several States the developments and questions of the campaign are fully presented. In Europe the Irish land question is the most important subject of the year. The conditions of the problem are clearly explained in a special article on IRELAND, by the late Professor A. J. Schem. The developments of the Nihilistic conspiracies are recounted in RUSSIA. In Afghanistan and South Africa troubles excited by the British imperial policy are still fermenting. The developments are recounted under their proper headings. In MONTENEGRO, GREECE, TURKEY, BULGARIA, RUSSIA, and the AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN MONARCHY, the

sequels of the Eastern Question are detailed. A lucid analysis of the policy and operations of the United States Treasury and of the financial condition of the country is presented in FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES, by Assistant Secretary J. K. Upton. Biographical accounts of the prominent candidates for the Presidential nomination, of the members of the new British Cabinet, and of many other persons of note, have been prepared, and the obituary sketches of such as have achieved celebrity in America or abroad are given extensively. The scientific record is fuller than usual. The ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS of the year are described by Professor Daniel Kirkwood, of Indiana University. Recent advances in CHEMISTRY and in its industrial applications are explained in an extended article by Dr. W. J. Youmans, of New York. Darwin's discoveries of the laws of plant-movement are explained in CIRCUMNUTATION, and other new theories and discoveries in various special articles. The important subject of domestic sanitation and hygiene is ably discussed by John B. Hamilton, Surgeon-General United States Marine Hospital Service, in HOME HYGIENE. Another interesting illustrated article, containing an historical and descriptive account of the Government LIGHTHOUSE ESTABLISHMENT, was written by A. B. Johnson, Chief Clerk of the Lighthouse Board. The approved system of the MISSISSIPPI RIVER IMPROVEMENT is described by a citizen of New Orleans. In CALIFORNIA the proposed plans for rescuing agricultural lands from destruction by mining *débris* are explained. The latest achievements in ENGINEERING, and the results of GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATION are given with the customary detail.

The historical and statistical features of the "Annual Cyclopædia" have never received greater attention. The digest of the proceedings of CONGRESS, the annual review of the affairs of the individual States, of the ARMY and the NAVY, the reprints of diplomatic and other public documents, the review of the nation's COMMERCE, are as complete and as intrinsically important as ever before. The statistics of commerce, industry, and agriculture, in the different States, are being collected with greater fullness and by more thorough official methods every year. The political history and statistical account of all the different countries of the globe are as careful, complete, and well up to date as it has been possible to make them. Illustrations have been prepared wherever they were thought to be useful.

The "Annual Cyclopædia" chronicles the history of all nations and the annual stages of civilization, giving special prominence to the events and developments of the United States; it records progress in every field of research and endeavor, and with special amplitude that which has a bearing on practical life and social development. It aims to give all information which is needed by the student of current history and actual institutions, and much which is of practical importance to the active and enterprising in all walks of life.

Engraved portraits are given of President Garfield, of Czar Alexander III of Russia, and General Hancock.

THE ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA.

A

ABDURRAHMAN* KHAN, the new Ameer of Cabool, is a son of the Ameer Afzool Khan, who died in 1867, and a grandson of Dost Mohammed, or, as the Afghans still call him, the "Great Ameer," who died in 1863. Even before he was elevated to his present position, he was regarded as one of the most prominent among the numerous descendants of his distinguished grandfather. Of his early life little or nothing is known. He is said to have been born about 1830, and to have taken part in the second campaign in the Punjab, when Akbar Khan crossed the Indus to aid the Sikhs. He did not come prominently forward, however, until a much later period. In 1863, the death of his grandfather, Dost Mohammed, was the signal for the commencement of disturbances, which in the following year declared themselves in a civil war. The first campaign between Shere Ali, whom Dost Mohammed had selected as his successor, and the elder brother, Afzool Khan, Abdurrahman's father, closed with the discomfiture of Afzool, who was nothing loath after his defeat to come to an understanding with his successful brother. An agreement was accordingly arranged between them at Balkh, and, while Afzool swore fealty to Shere Ali on the Koran, the latter took a similar oath to spare Afzool's life. The arrangement was of short duration, owing chiefly, it is believed, to Abdurrahman, who was utterly dissatisfied with the surrender of his father's pretensions. At all events, the tranquillity of the camp of Balkh was soon disturbed by the arrest of Afzool and the flight of Abdurrahman. While Shere Ali returned with his captive brother to Cabool to march against other rebels, Abdurrahman sought ref-

uge in Bokhara, where he was well received. He remained there until after Shere Ali had driven Azim Khan into English territory; but when he found that Shere Ali, instead of following up his successes, was sunk in a state of apathy at Candahar, he crossed the Oxus with an irregular force and easily established his authority in Balkh. Abdurrahman's success north of the Hindoo Koosh did not suffice to rouse Shere Ali to a sense of the dangers which surrounded him. With Cabool as well as Candahar in his possession, he remained apparently of opinion that the period for reëstablishing his authority in the outlying portions of the state might be deferred until a more convenient season. Abdurrahman, who measured the situation more correctly, struck hard and quick. In February, 1866, he had been joined by his uncle Azim, and was in the close neighborhood of Cabool, held at that time by Ibrahim, Shere Ali's second son. On the 2d of March Cabool surrendered, and Azim was installed as temporary ruler. Soon after a decided victory over Shere Ali's forces was gained at Shekabad, of which the immediate consequences were the release of Afzool and the capture of Ghuznee. Afzool then became the recognized Ameer at Cabool, and his son was looked upon as the Hotspur of the confederacy. His right to this title was shown still more conclusively at the crowning victory at Khelat-i-Ghilzai in the early part of 1867. Afzool, after being proclaimed Ameer at Bala-Hissar, soon degenerated into a drunkard, and his death was precipitated, if not caused, by the excesses which he committed after his release from confinement. Azim also had become a petty tyrant, who in the distribution of the chief posts secured the most important for himself and his son Surwar. After Afzool's death there was a critical moment when it was doubtful whether Abdurrahman would recognize Azim as Ameer. He finally concluded, however, to take the oath of allegiance to his uncle, but he quitted Cabool in disgust, and

* A genealogical table of the family of Dost Mohammed, which shows the relation of Abdurrahman to the other members of the family who are mentioned in the former and the present volumes of the "Annual Cyclopædia," is given in the article ARGHANISTAN. When first mentioned in the history of the civil wars of his country, his name was frequently given as Rahman, or Rhaman Khan. (See Annual Cyclopædia for 1874, p. 8.)

retired to Afghan Turkistan, with the administration of which he was intrusted. The spreading discontent with Azim encouraged Shere Ali to make another effort for the recovery of his rights with the aid of fresh troops from Herat, and the then untried abilities of his younger son Yakob. Azim's son had to fly from Candahar, and it became necessary to collect all troops within reach. Accordingly, Abdurrahman was summoned from Balkh, and a severe defeat was inflicted upon him by Yakob. In the winter campaign of 1868 Abdurrahman was once more crushingly defeated by Yakob at Tinah Khan. The civil war closed with that battle. Azim and Abdurrahman escaped, and the latter traveled through the steppe of the Tekke Turkomans to Urgentch (Khiva). From that place he went on to Bokhara, whence he wrote to General Kaufmann, requesting permission to reside in Russian territory. The request was granted, but all his efforts to obtain aid for reopening the war were firmly refused. The Russian Government, however, accorded to him a pension of 25,000 rubles a year (1 ruble = 78 cents), and Mr. Schuyler has told us that for the last nine years he has been living upon one fifth of his allowance. He must consequently have saved during that period close upon 200,000 rubles, the significance of this fact consisting in the circumstance that in 1872 he told General Kaufmann he could raise up an insurrection in Afghanistan if half that sum were given to him. Mr. Schuyler's description of Abdurrahman conveys a favorable impression of his force of character. In Afghanistan proper his reputation after his flight to Russia appeared to have paled before that of his cousin Yakob, but it always remained considerable in Turkistan from Balkh to Badakshan. As governor, he is remembered as the best of the last generation. As soldier, the Uzbecks took a personal interest in his successes and sympathized with him on his defeats, for it was they who fought and bled under him. An additional motive was given for their affection by his marriage with the daughter of Jehandir Shah, ex-chief of Badakshan. (A full account of his movements in 1880 is given in the article *AFGHANISTAN*.) His twelve years' residence in Russian territory has made Abdurrahman quite different from all other Afghan princes. He has learned to write and dictate his own letters, and to act and to think for himself without the dangerous aid of a crafty confidant. Hermann Vambéry, who is generally regarded as the best living authority on the affairs of Central Asia, regards the installation of Abdurrahman ("Allgemeine Zeitung," June 3, 1880) as fraught with danger for the English interests in India.

ADVENT CHRISTIAN CHURCH, commonly called Second Adventists. The name Advent Christian is the more common church designation. This denomination embraces a

class of religious worshippers organized into churches and conferences, found in all the Northern States and California, excepting the Rocky Mountain States, in several of the Southern States, and in the Canadas. They are more numerous according to population in the New England States. Their ministry numbers more than four hundred regular preachers, and their congregations over six hundred, many of the ministers preaching to more than one congregation. They are congregational in their church polity, and their conferences exercise no ecclesiastical jurisdiction over the churches, but are advisory to them. They meet for worship on the first day of the week, teach justification by faith, conversion and regeneration through the Holy Spirit, the divinity of Jesus Christ, and atonement by his blood alone. Their distinctive tenets are, the present entire mortality of mankind, the unconscious state of the dead, the resurrection of the body a necessity to a future life, the personal second advent of the Saviour soon to be revealed, immortality to be given to the righteous only at that time, the utter destruction of the ungodly in the judgment-day, and the renewed earth the final and only promised inheritance of the saints. They make Christian character, and not denominational tenets, the test of Christian fellowship, and practice baptism by immersion only. They teach no set time as known by man for the second advent, though they have done so somewhat formerly.

PUBLISHING AND MISSION SOCIETIES.—The largest organization of the Second Adventists as a denomination is that called *The Second Advent Christian Association*, which holds its meetings annually and transacts business relating to gospel work by this people. This association is formed of delegates sent from the various conferences, each conference being entitled to one delegate, and to an additional delegate for every three hundred church-members within its limits. This association was organized A. D. 1860, has been somewhat modified since then to suit its increasing work, and held its last annual meeting in Chelsea, Mass., in the Advent Christian church, commencing Tuesday, August 17, 1880. Elder E. A. Stockman, of Chelsea, Mass., was elected President; Elder E. McCulloch, of Nevada, O., Vice-President; Elder Frank Burr, of Portland, Me., Secretary; and Ozias Goodrich, of Boston, Mass., Business Agent. Nine members at large were elected a Board of Directors, and these with the officers constitute a Board of Managers for the year.

The association also controls and elects officers for a society formed of its adherents, and called the *Advent Christian Publishing Society*, the object of which is to issue a weekly religious paper called "The World's Crisis," also to publish and keep for sale tracts and books on religious subjects. Officers for the present fiscal year, Elder S. G. Mathewson, of Westfield, Mass., President; Elder Frank Burr, Secretary; O. Goodrich, Treasurer and Business Agent. There is also an Editorial Committee of three,

and a Publishing Committee of five, who with the officers form the society for the year. This society also publishes a semi-monthly Sunday-school paper, called "The Young Pilgrim," of which Elder C. E. Barnes, of Salem, Mass., is Editor. There is also a society called *The American Advent Mission Society*, Elder Miles Grant, President; and Elder A. W. Sibley, Secretary. This society attends to mission-work in sending tracts and books to various localities and furnishing funds for missionary work. Tents are used by the missionaries in the warm season, and thus many are induced to hear who would not otherwise be reached. The Second Advent Christians also hold camp-meetings in various parts of the country, those at Springfield, Mass., and Alton Bay, N. H., being the most noted. The latter is said to be the largest camp-meeting in the country, the attendance at one time being reported as numbering 30,000 people.

There are other publication interests among this people, under different forms of organization, but pushed with commendable zeal and interest. "The Bible Banner" is a religious weekly under the control of a society of stockholders, called *The Bible Banner Association*. It is mostly supported by Second Advent Christians, and reports many of their conference doings, yet claiming to seek an undenominational standing. Its doctrines advocated are the same as those herein noted as peculiar to the Second Adventists.

A society of Second Adventists, called *The Life and Advent Union*, also publishes a weekly religious paper at Springfield, Mass., called "The Herald of Life." It gives prominence to the doctrine of the non-resurrection (so called) of the unconverted dead, a doctrine honestly held by a small portion of the Second Adventists, but not favored by the societies before mentioned.

The number of Second Advent Christians in the United States and Canadas coöperating with these mentioned institutions is estimated to be upward of 30,000.

AFGHANISTAN, a Mohammedan country in Central Asia; area about 278,000 square miles, or 721,664 square kilometres; the population has hitherto been estimated at about 4,000,000. The territory of Afghanistan will be somewhat diminished by the execution of the Gundamak treaty of May, 1879 (see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, page 10), but to what extent, has not yet been officially calculated. Mr. A. H. Keene has published careful researches on the population of Afghanistan (in "Nature," January 22, 1880), according to which the total population is at least 6,145,000. He distinguishes according to the nationality of the inhabitants:

Afghans and Pathans (Iranians).....	3,520,000
Tajiks [Persians] (Iranians).....	1,000,000
Hindis (Hindoes).....	500,000
Hazaras and Aimaks (Mongol-Tartars).....	600,000
Kataghans [Uzbeks] (Turki).....	200,000
Badakhsh (Galtshen).....	100,000
Beloaches (Iranians).....	100,000
Kizil-Bash (Turki).....	75,000
Kohistanis and Slah Posh (Galtshen).....	50,000

The Afghans proper comprise, according to Keene, the following principal tribes:

PRINCIPAL TRIBES.	Territory.	Number.
Durani or Abdall.	Between Herat and Candahar, also in Caboolistan.	800,000
Khujiani....	Principally in the district of Jelalabad.	50,000
Ghilzal or Ghilji.	Between the Cabool River in the north, the Suleiman Mountains in the east, the Gulkoh Mountains in the west, Khelat-i-Ghilzai and Poti in the south.....	600,000
Yusafzai....	Mountains north of Peshawar and in the Yusafzai district of the Peshawar country.....	700,000
Mohmandzai or Mahmandzai....	Mountains northwest of Peshawar, between the rivers Cabool and Swat: chief place, Lalpura.....	40,000
Kakars.....	Extreme southeastern corner of Afghanistan proper.....	200,000
Khataks.....	Southeastern part of the Peshawar country, south and east of Kohat.....	100,000
Utman Khel	Mountains north of Peshawar, between the Mohmands and Yusafzai.....	80,000
Bangash.....	Miranzai, Kohat, and Kuram valleys.....	100,000
Afreedeas...	Lower and eastern offshoots of the Sefid Koh, west and south of the Peshawar country, with the Bara Valley, and parts of the Tehura and Tira valleys.....	90,000
Turis.....	Kuram valley.....	30,000
Shinwaris or Shanwaris.	Parts of the Khyber Mountains, the eastern valleys of the Sefid Koh, on the frontier of Bayawar. From the sources of the Gomal southward, along the western side of the Suleiman Mountains as far as the source.....	50,000
Povindahs...	Suleiman Mountains, from Thal as far as the Gomal Pass.....	50,000
Vaziris.....		250,000

The following genealogical table of the dynasty ruling in Afghanistan will show the relationship existing between the princes who have been prominent in the history of the wars and disturbances since the death of Dost Mohammed, and who are mentioned in the present and in former volumes of the "Annual Cyclopædia":

Dost Mohammed, Ameer of Afghanistan, died 1863, at the age of ninety-two, left thirty-two sons, of whom seven were living in 1880.

Akbar, commander of the Afghan army in the Punjab campaign.	Afzool, Ameer 1866, died 1867.	Shere Ali, 1863-'66, and 1868-1879, died 1879.	Azim, Ameer 1867, died 1869.	Mohammed Hussein, murdered 1879.
Abdurrahman, appointed Ameer of Cabool in 1880.		Surwar.		
Mohammed, died 1865.	Ibrahim.	Yakoob, Ameer 1879.	Ayoob, Governor of Herat.	Abdullah Jan.
Moosa.				

The Viceroy of India gave a state banquet on New Year's day of 1880, at which he made a speech reviewing the events of the year. Speaking with reference to the situation in Afghanistan, he said that India had gained on its

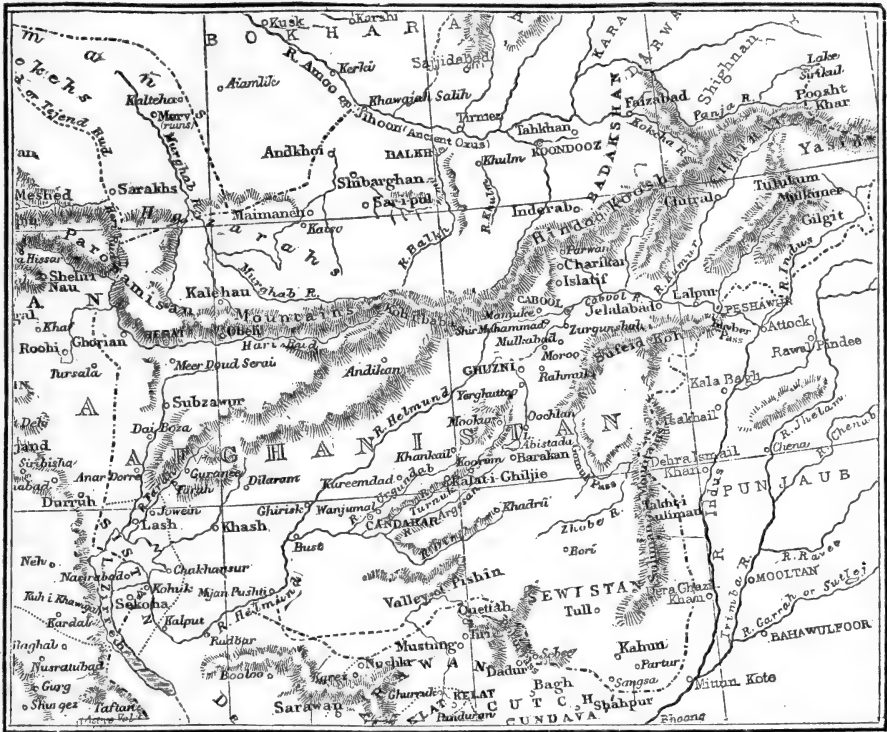
most exposed frontier an established military line of defense, which he trusted it would never surrender, for its value had been severely tested and clearly recognized. The anxiety felt concerning the crisis which the British forces had recently passed through at Cabool was natural but not altogether reasonable. The Indian Government had been charged with want of foresight in not doubling the strength of Sir F. Roberts's force, but such an act would have been unwise; it would have quadrupled all the difficulties and delays in reaching Cabool, and would have left the troops there exposed to infinitely greater perils. In a memorandum written by the late Duke of Wellington on the conditions of Afghan warfare, which had been given him, supreme importance was attached by the writer to the fact that the numbers of a force operating in Afghanistan must always be strictly limited in exact relation to the carefully ascertained means and conditions of supply. Sir F. Roberts had succeeded in collecting supplies sufficient to place his entire force beyond the risk of danger. The General well knew wherein his real strength lay, and neither he nor his garrison ever felt the slightest anxiety. The new year, the Viceroy added, opened under happier auspices and with more hopeful auguries than the old had done; but the work of the soldiers in Afghanistan was not yet over, nor could it be relinquished or relaxed till its object was fully attained.

The situation at Cabool was complicated during December, 1879, by the appearance of large bodies of hostile tribes who speedily possessed themselves of advantageous points, cut off communications, and held the British forces for a few days in a critical position. General Roberts collected his forces within the Shirpoor cantonment. The enemy attacked him there at daylight on the 23d of December, but the British were ready for them. The engagement continued through the greater part of the day, and ended in the complete dispersion of the Afghans and the final deliverance of the city from the danger which had threatened it.

At the beginning of January, 1880, General Roberts had made good his position in Cabool, and was engaged in strengthening the Shirpoor cantonments and constructing block-houses on the hills to command the city and the Candahar and Peshawar roads. Order was restored in and around Cabool, the population began to return, and an amnesty was published, from the benefits of which the leaders in the resistance that had been offered to the British forces were excepted. Other chiefs went out to plot against the British and excite the tribes to a renewal of hostilities against them. Among them was Mohammed Jan, who, when driven from beneath the walls of the Shirpoor cantonments in the battles of December, 1879, had taken with him, it was believed, a large quantity of ammunition and treasure. Leaving the young Ameer Moosa Khan, son of Yakoob Khan, in safe keeping at Ghuznee,

he went into the northern parts of the country, while his colleague, the mollah Mooshki-Alim, departed in another direction. The office of military governor of Cabool was discontinued, and the Wali Mohammed Khan was appointed civil governor. Mohammed Hassan Khan, former Afghan governor of Jelalabad, joined Mohammed Jan at Ghuznee, and afterward went into the Logar Valley for the purpose of arousing the local chiefs and preventing their submitting to General Roberts. Mohammed Jan caused to be circulated among the Kohistani chiefs a forged letter purporting to have come from Ayoob Khan at Herat, saying that he had captured Candahar and driven the English to defend themselves behind breastworks. The Kohistanis declared that they were prepared to fight if the English invaded their country, but would not at present renew the attack upon Shirpoor. General Roberts, previous to his intended advance in March, sent Mustaufi Habiboollah, who had been Minister of Finance under Shere Ali, and Yakoob Khan as a messenger to Mohammed Jan and other malcontent leaders with letters to the effect that the British Government was disposed to accept as ruler for Cabool any sirdar (with certain exceptions) whom the assembled representatives of the nation might choose. In February nearly all the representatives of the dominant and reigning branch of the Barakzai tribe were at Cabool with General Roberts. Among them were five of the seven surviving sons of Dost Mohammed, with their families, and most of the numerous nephews, grandsons, and grand-nephews of that chief. Of his sons, Nek Mohammed was the only one against the English; only three of his grandsons were absent; and the only able counselor of Shere Ali and Yakoob Khan, Mustaufi Habiboollah, was working heartily in the interest of the British. The attempt of the English to come to an understanding with Mohammed Jan was, however, unsuccessful. The British Governor was driven from Kohistan in February, unable to resist the insurgents, who had occupied a number of villages. Peace, however, still prevailed at Candahar, where the administration of General Stewart was attended with almost continuous tranquillity from the beginning.

The British constantly endeavored to conciliate the people, and to satisfy them that their designs respecting the country were moderate. The sirdars were told at an interview held with them by a British agent, Mr. Lepel Griffin, and again on the 13th of April, at a durbar which was attended by the principal chiefs who had cooperated with Mohammed Jan at Ghuznee, and who had come up to Cabool from Maidan for the purpose, that no permanent annexation of the country was intended unless of parts that were necessary for the defense of the frontier; that Yakoob Khan would not be allowed to return; that the Government was ready to appoint any chief whom they might select to be Ameer at Cabool, provided he was friendly to



the English and their allies, and capable of keeping the country quiet; and that the English would retire as soon as peace was restored and the Ameer was enthroned. It was intimated, however, that Candahar would be placed under a separate government; and in pursuance of this policy the Sirdar, Shere Ali Khan, a cousin of the late Ameer, was appointed to the control of that district, with the title of Wali. This chief was a firm friend of the late Ameer, and had served under him as an ambassador to the Russian General Kaufmann, as Regent of Cabool, and as Governor of Candahar.

The tribes renewed their harassing activity with the opening of spring. Captain Showers, of the Punjab infantry, was killed while traveling between Chappa and Quetta; Lieutenant Thurlow, of the light infantry, was shot near Jagdalak. In return, the British swept the hills near Gundamuk and Jagdalak, thus clearing the ground between Jelalabad and Cabool. Fort Battye was attacked on the night of the 26th of March, with heavy loss to the British, although the assailants were repulsed. A fine of 10,000 rupees was imposed upon the tribes implicated in this attack, half of which was paid immediately. General Stewart set out from Khelat-i-Ghilzai for the advance upon Ghuznee April 8th. On the 19th he had

reached a point about twenty-five miles from Ghuznee without having met with any opposition, when his further advance was opposed near the village of Nani by a force of 15,000 Afghans advantageously posted among the hills flanking the road. While General Stewart was preparing to attack them, a body of 3,000 of them, armed only with swords, rushed vigorously down upon the British forces. They were repulsed after a contest of an hour's duration, leaving half their number on the field, when the whole enemy's force fled, abandoning the strong positions they had held. They could not be pursued for lack of cavalry, but General Stewart immediately entered Nani, and on the next day occupied Ghuznee without opposition. On the 23d his forces had another engagement with a body of about 6,000 men a few miles from Ghuznee, in which the enemy were routed with a loss of 400 men. General Jenkins was attacked at Charasiah on the 25th, and kept on the defensive till reinforcements came up, when the enemy were routed. A force sent into the Maidan district destroyed the towns of the hostile chiefs without opposition. The villages were spared under orders from General Roberts that they should not be burned.

Attention had for some time been directed toward the movements of Abdurrahman, the

claimant for the throne, whose pretensions were believed to be supported by the Russians; he had called upon the chiefs to rally around him, and was supposed to be marching into the country with an increasing number of followers. A communication was brought from him to the British on the 19th of April, professing his readiness to submit to the English. He hoped, he said, that he would not be suspected on account of his long residence in Russian territory, and he denied that he had received any aid in men or money from the Russians. The people of Afghanistan and Turkistan gladly welcomed him, and he was confident of the suffrages of the country. He also sent messages to his countrymen in Cabool, warning them that opposition to the English would only injure their interests and his own, suppressed the rebellion in Badakshan, censured his cousin Islack for writing letters designed to inflame the people against the British, and dismissed his army, saying he had no hostile intentions. He was understood at this time to be undisputed master of the territory north of the Hindoo Koosh. A mission, consisting of two native gentlemen on the staff of Mr. Lepel Griffin, the British civil agent, was sent to him from Cabool and was received by him with distinction. The Sirdar bore himself, it was said, frankly and courteously toward the envoys, and discussed business in a sensible and practical way. An offer was made him to recognize him as Ameer of Cabool, to which he deferred a reply till he could consult with his chiefs; but he addressed a letter to the chiefs, expressing his thanks to God that an opening was made to friendship between himself and the British, and a hope that a satisfactory arrangement would be effected. Abdurrahman replied to the British propositions about the first of July, in a note the tenor of which was such as for the time to raise doubts of his sincerity. He took no notice of the fact that Candahar had been formed into a separate province under a separate governor, which had been insisted upon by the British in all their communications, but, both in his note and in a circular which he issued to the country, cited the terms which had been offered by the government without mentioning this important reservation, and claimed that he was entitled to rule the same territory that his grandfather, Dost Mohammed, had governed. The negotiations were nevertheless continued with him by the Marquis of Ripon, the new Viceroy of India, with ultimately a satisfactory result.

General Stewart assumed the supreme command of the British forces in Afghanistan at the beginning of May, while Sir F. Roberts retained his divisional command.

The change in the political character of the British Government resulting from the election of a Liberal Parliament involved as a necessary consequence a modification of the policy toward Afghanistan. Lord Hartington explained

in the House of Commons, June 7th, that the instructions which had been sent out to the new Viceroy of India, Lord Ripon, in reference to this subject, had two objects in view—to bring the actual military operations to a close as soon as possible, and to leave, on withdrawing from the country, an event which it was hoped would take place in the fall, something like a prospect of a settled government.

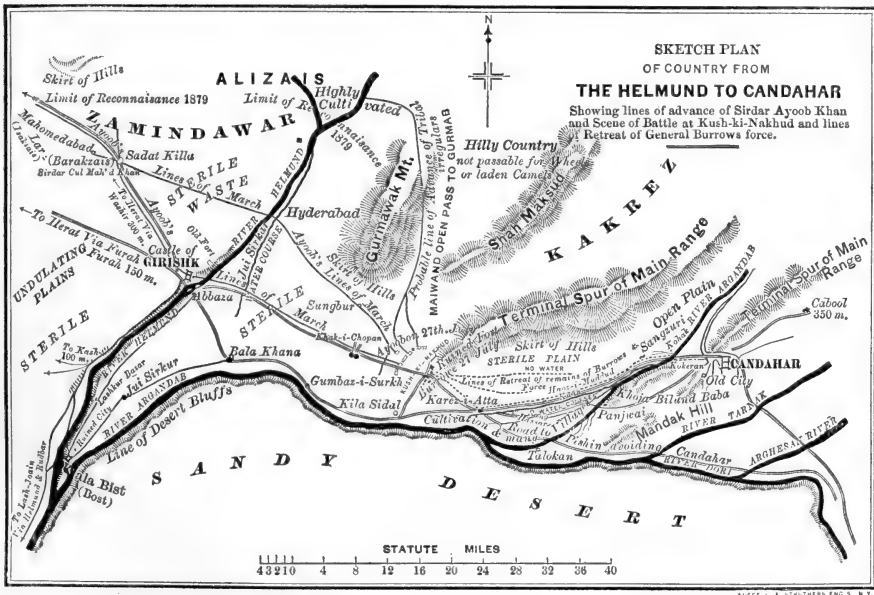
Orders were sent to General Stewart early in June to withdraw his forces with the least possible delay compatible with the health of the troops, and he was instructed that it was desired that Cabool should be evacuated not later than the 31st of October. Orders were also given for the return to India of the surplus staff, and the stores and ammunition which might not be required. A brigade was dispatched from Candahar at the beginning of July to proceed to Girishk and support the Wali, Shere Ali, against Ayoob Khan of Herat, who was reported to have arrived at Farah with his whole force. A mutiny broke out among the Wali's troops, and the disaffected regiments seized the artillery, and drove the Wali with his faithful soldiers across the river. A reinforcement of British troops came up, recaptured the artillery, and dispersed the mutineers, a part of whom went to Herat, while the rest fled to their homes. The Wali withdrew nearer to Girishk.

Abdurrahman, after a considerable delay in crossing the Hindoo Koosh, came into the occupied territories in July, and was recognized by the representatives of the British Government as Ameer at a durbar held at Cabool on the 22d. On this occasion, Mr. Lepel Griffin, on behalf of the British Government, repeated the assurances that had previously been given that the armies would shortly withdraw from northern Afghanistan within those frontiers which were described in the treaty that had been made with the ex-Ameer, Yakooob Khan, and said: "We trust and believe that your remembrance of the English will not be unkindly. We have fought you in the field whenever you opposed us, but your religion has not been interfered with, the honor of your women has been respected, and every one has been secure in the possession of his property. Whatever has been necessary for the support of the army has been liberally paid for. Not a single complaint has been made by any Afghan of any soldier, English or native, belonging to her Majesty's army." In connection with this event Lord Hartington made a statement in the British House of Commons to the effect that it was not yet prudent to speak with too great confidence as to the nature of the arrangements that had been made, for Afghan politics were so uncertain that it was not possible to feel that the troubles in the country were yet at an end; that the question of Candahar and of the new frontier remained in *statu quo*, and were to be independently and separately considered; and that the negotia-

tions with Abdurrahman had been continued after some persons had advised that they be broken off, through the firmness and prudence of Lord Ripon.

The main body of the troops of Ayooob Khan having crossed the Helmund, reached Hyderabad on the 23d of July. On the 27th of the same month, this force, estimated to be 12,000 strong, attacked a body of three regiments of native infantry and 730 British troops at Kushk-i-Nakhub, and routed it after an engagement lasting four hours. The British and Indian troops fled in disorder, pursued and harassed at every point by the enemy, having lost 1,100 men (about half their original number), two guns, the colors of the Sixty-sixth Regiment and the Bombay Grenadiers, and nearly all their ammunition. They suffered

even more during their flight, for they took a road on which they could get no water, and had no food. The loss of the enemy was also very heavy, and was described by the natives as "almost fabulous." Ayooob Khan was afterward driven back to a point between Candahar and Chamar; Candahar was put into a condition of defense; General Phayre advanced with a body of troops upon Chamar; and General Roberts marched from Cabool August 8th with a force of 10,000 men for the relief of Candahar. Ayooob Khan proceeded to intrench himself three miles from Candahar. The withdrawal of the British troops from Cabool was completed the 11th of August, after a meeting of General Stewart and Mr. Lepel Griffin with Abdurrahman. Mooshk-i-Alam, the spiritual chief of the Afghans, bound the turban—the



Afghan equivalent for a coronation—upon the new Ameer's head.

General Roberts arrived at Candahar on the last day of August, having marched 318 miles in twenty-three days, including two halts. His force had suffered from the desertion of the Afghan and Hazara drivers, in consequence of which heavier labor was entailed upon his troops. He attacked the position of Ayooob Khan at nine o'clock on the morning of the 1st of September, and gained a complete victory, after a battle of four hours ending in a total rout of the Afghan forces. The nature of the ground prevented his officers from realizing the extent of their victory, but, while General Ross, commanding the extreme left, was still expecting to have to attack a first position, the advance, after a short halt to replenish

ammunition, showed that Ayooob's camp was deserted. Thirty-two pieces of artillery were taken, including the two guns which had been captured July 27th at Kushk-i-Nakhub. The British loss was 40 men killed and 228 wounded, while the loss of the enemy was estimated at 1,200 men out of a total force of 12,800. General Haines, in a dispatch from the Government, of October 7th, acknowledging General Roberts's report of this action, complimented him on his clear and able record "of one of the most complete and successful military operations of modern times," commended the discipline and behavior of General Roberts's troops, and expressed the desire to bring to the notice of the Government the quick military appreciation of the situation shown by General Roberts, the excellent dispositions made by

him, the admirable manner in which his orders were carried out, and the gallantry of his troops. General Phayre did not reach Candahar in time to take part in the battle. He entered the city on the 7th of September, and found it presenting a desolate appearance. The streets were deserted, the shops were shut, and but few of the inhabitants were to be seen about. An extraordinary change, however, took place on the next day. The people returned to their homes, the shops were opened, and supplies were brought in from the surrounding country where they had been hidden during the siege. Generally the people found their property intact as they had left it, only a few cases of depredations having been brought to notice. It was now evident that Ayoo Khan had altogether failed to induce a general rising in western Afghanistan. His emissaries had traversed the whole country, entreating the people to rise and exterminate the infidels, with only slight success. After the battle before Candahar, Ayoo Khan retired to Herat with a body of horsemen, and was reported early in October to have reached that place, after having left governors at Farah and Sabzwār. Apprehensions were still current that he would be able to foment troubles at Candahar, and the people around that city were still agitated, and continued to neglect their crops and their trade in consequence of rumors that he intended to make another attack. The defeat of Ayoo Khan caused great satisfaction to the Ameer, and had a quieting effect at Cabool and in the surrounding country. A body of troops was sent to Maiwand, the scene of the disaster to General Burrows of Kushk-i-Nakhub, to bury the bodies which had been left on the field. It found evidence to confirm fully the reports of the magnitude of the Afghan losses in the battle that had taken place there. The evacuation of Cabool was accomplished quietly, and the troops marched back toward the Indian frontier without suffering molestation. Peimar Kotal was evacuated on the 12th of September, when Shalozan became the most advanced post of the British. It was decided to recognize the Turis, a powerful tribe in the Kuram Valley, as independent of the Ameer, and to evacuate the valley. A considerable force was left at Candahar, and it was decided to retain a strong division of troops there for the winter.

Communication was had during the campaign between the different divisions of the army by means of the heliograph, the operation of which was very satisfactory. Messages were transmitted by it nearly as quickly as by the electric telegraph, as was shown by the fact that a dispatch from General Stewart announcing the result of an engagement on the 22d of April, was received at the India Office, London, on the next day. Since signals may be transmitted by heliograph, if necessary, over the heads of the enemy, to stations which may be few and far between, its operation is not

dependent upon the keeping open of any route, and can not be interrupted by the appearance of a hostile force between the stations. A heliograph with a mirror having a diameter of ten inches—the ordinary size—is capable of reflecting the sun's rays in the form of a bright spot to a distance of fifty miles, where the signal can be seen without the aid of a glass. To set up the instrument, the operator, having chosen his position on a hill, looks through a spot that has been cleared from his mirror by scraping away the quicksilver, to the station he wishes to signal. He then sets up in front of the mirror a rod bearing a movable stud like the fore-sight of a rifle, so that the stud shall be on a line with the clear spot in the mirror and the distant station. All that is afterward necessary is so to manage the reflections that they shall fall upon the stud, when it is certain that they will reach the station aimed at.

Sir F. Roberts in February gave the following explanation of the executions which had taken place at Cabool under his orders in November and December, 1879: "Before November 12th about seventy-three men were executed; one, the city *kotwal* (magistrate), and six other men convicted of dishonoring the bodies of the officers of the embassy, seventeen for attacking escorts and having property of the embassy in their possession, and forty-nine for proved murders of camp-followers and implication in attack on the Residency. Since November 12th nine were executed on conviction of attacking the Residency. Up to December 15th fifteen more were sentenced to death for killing wounded soldiers as well as for implication in attack on the Residency."

Mr. Lepel Griffin made an address at a dinner given to him at Simla, in which he spoke hopefully of the settlement that had been made at Cabool, saying that "the Ameer was rapidly creating a stable administration, and his position was much strengthened by Ayoo Khan's defeat. The Cabool policy inaugurated by the Conservative Government had been energetically carried to a conclusion by the present Viceroy. He attached no importance to the criticism that the Ameer was a *protégé* of Russia. Shere Ali was ruined through ignorance. Abdurrahman possessed complete knowledge, and those who knew Russia best would like her least. The criticism on the withdrawal from Cabool was as foolish as it was unworthy of Englishmen. Sir Donald Stewart could not have supported General Roberts, and it was well known that General Roberts would meet with no opposition before reaching Ghuznee. To have left an army at Cabool would have made the Ameer unpopular with his subjects. As to the talk about annexation, he could only thank God that the destinies of the country were not yet intrusted to crack-brained enthusiasts, who fancied it high and imperial policy for the Government to drag its coat through Asia for a barbarian to trample upon."

The position of Abdurrahman at the close of

the year was not yet considered wholly secure, and his authority was little felt outside of the district which was under his immediate control. A correspondent of the London "Times," writing from Candahar on the 24th of October, spoke of the extreme indifference which prevailed there as to what was passing at Cabool, and as to what was the position of the new Ameer, and represented that Abdurrahman's rule was still hardly more than nominal at Ghuznee, that the tribes south of Ghuznee were quite beyond his influence, and that at Candahar itself the feeling was hostile to him. Ayoob Khan, who was again at Herat, endeavoring to obtain means to make another advance against the British, and retrieve the losses he had suffered before Candahar, was a rival for the allegiance of the Afghans not to be despised, and combinations were talked of between his forces and the partisans of Yakooob Khan, and the disaffected tribes, which, if they could have been carried out, would have made him really a formidable competitor for the supremacy. The efforts of Ayoob Khan were not, however, attended by results encouraging to his cause. He sent messengers to Meshed to ask assistance from Persia without success, and excited discontent at Herat by his arbitrary conduct in exacting taxes which he had levied in advance in order to secure means to push forward his military preparations. His force at this time consisted of three complete regiments, all of which had served with him in his expedition against Candahar, sixteen field-guns without horses, and two heavy pieces of artillery. This force even could not be depended upon, for in November the regiments which had been defeated at Candahar refused to serve any longer, and returned to their homes. Notwithstanding the signs of weakness in his actual position, a strong feeling was believed to exist in his favor among the Pathan population, and apprehensions were entertained that, in case the British should entirely withdraw from the country, a rising would take place in his favor, with great danger to the authority of Abdurrahman. Some hopes existed that a way might be found to induce him to acquiesce in the British policy, and with this object the father-in-law of Ayoob Khan, who had accompanied General Roberts on his march from Cabool, went to Herat, designing to express the attachment of the people to him, but at the same time intending to advise him to enter into negotiations with the British. Abdurrahman was also said to have made overtures to Yakooob Khan in order to persuade him to acknowledge his authority, and to have even sent him a present of money.

The Wali of Candahar received permission from the Viceroy, on the 29th of November, to retire to India with his family. The fact was the subject of much speculation and of conflicting interpretations as to its meaning. The correspondent of the London "Standard" in Candahar said that the Wali's intention of proceeding to India was not in any degree due to a

hint from the British authorities as to the expediency of such a step. The Wali himself said that the disposition of the people toward him had entirely changed since the fighting at Shirpoor, and that he was so disgusted at their hostile attitude, notwithstanding all the efforts he had made to benefit them, that he felt compelled to abandon any further effort to gain their goodwill. In consequence of the long hesitation of the British in declaring any definite policy, the Pathan population, who would have accepted their rule had they shown themselves determined that it should be permanent, were now declaring with great unanimity for Ayoob Khan.

AFRICA.* The area of Africa, according to the new volume of the "Bevölkerung der Erde," published by Behm and Wagner (vol. vi, Gotha, 1880), was in 1880 estimated at 29,909,444 square kilometres † (= 11,548,519 square miles), and the population at 205,679,000. New planimetric calculations have been made by these editors of all the large countries of Africa, and thus new and more accurate statements of the areas can now be given. The latest information that could be gathered from official publications and the accounts of travelers and missionaries in regard to population, make but slight changes in the figures published in 1878. The table on page 10 exhibits the area and population of the principal divisions and subdivisions in 1880, according to the new volume of the "Bevölkerung der Erde."

The most important among the recent territorial changes in Africa is the annexation of the kingdom of Medina to the republic of Liberia. The area of Medina is not exactly known; its population is estimated by the Government of Liberia at about 700,000, and the total population of the republic is therefore supposed to amount now to about 1,400,000. (See LIBERIA.)

The Italian commercial firm, R. Rubattini, took, in 1880, actual possession of the territory of Assab, which had been purchased in 1870 from some chiefs of the Danakil. It is therefore now regarded as Italian territory. Including the small islands of Omm el Bachar and Ras er-Raml, this territory contains fifteen square kilometres.

(For an account of the British, French, Spanish, and Portuguese possessions in Africa, see GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, SPAIN, and PORTUGAL.)

The government of the Cape Colony, after the conclusion of the Zooloo war, undertook to disarm all the native tribes. The Basutos protested against the application of the disarmament to themselves, pleading special reasons for the exemption, without avail. An agitation followed, which lasted through several months, and ended in the Basutos begin-

* For a full account of the religious statistics of Africa, see "Annual Cyclopaedia" for 1879, p. 15.

† 1 square kilometre = 0.386 English square miles.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.	Area in square kilometres of		Population of	
	Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Divisions.	Subdivisions.
Northern Africa	8,809,520	15,200,000
Presidios (belonging to Spain).....	} 612,832 {	12,179
Morocco (and Tuat).....	6,870,000
Algeria.....	667,065	2,567,626
Tunis.....	116,345	2,100,000
Tripolitania (inclus. of Fezzan and Barca)	1,088,349	1,010,000
Sahara.....	6,180,426	2,850,000
Northeastern Africa	5,217,232	35,920,000
Egypt.....	1,021,854	5,586,280
Dependencies of Egypt.....	1,965,561	11,838,700
Abyssinia.....	853,279	8,000,000
Galla and Somali countries.....	1,897,093	13,500,000
Central Soudan, exclusive of Darfoor ...	1,714,984	31,770,000
Western Soudan and Upper Guinea	1,993,046	43,600,000
Equatorial Territories	3,972,880	47,000,000
North of the equator.....	2,254,980	27,000,000
South of the equator.....	1,717,900	20,000,000
Southern Africa	7,575,728	28,237,350
Loango coast.....	12,940	800,000
Muata Jamwo's kingdom.....	844,947	1,000,000
Kasongo's kingdom.....	842,491	4,000,000
Marutse-Mambunda's kingdom.....	268,377	900,000
Zooloo and Matebele countries.....	885,820	1,350,000
Orange River Free State.....	111,497	75,000
British Possessions.....	968,418	1,966,000
Other countries.....	5,141,738	18,706,850
African Islands	626,054	3,892,000
Madagascar.....	591,964	2,500,000
Other islands.....	84,090	1,392,000
Total	29,909,444	205,679,000

ning a war against the colony. Much discontent has been manifested in the Transvaal against the annexation of that country to the British colony. In December, the Boers rose against English rule, proclaimed the restoration of the Transvaal republic, and drove the English troops out of a number of places. (See CAPE COLONY.)

Affairs in Egypt have been unusually prosperous. The material condition of the people has improved, the financial exhibits have been more satisfactory, and the foreign relations of the country have been more pleasant. Hostilities with Abyssinia have been suspended, and the conclusion of peace between the two countries was reported in June; but another concentration of troops on the Abyssinian border was mentioned in the fall. The slave-trade, notwithstanding the Government professed to be making great efforts to put it down, has been kept up in the southern provinces and on the coast of the Red Sea. (See EGYPT.)

The condition of the Jews in Morocco has attracted serious attention. The numerous complaints of ill treatment which came from them, led to the calling of a conference of plenipotentiaries at Madrid, which was attended by a Moorish envoy. This body agreed upon a paper, which was put into the hands of the envoy, claiming liberty of conscience and equality of rights for all the Christian and Hebrew subjects of the Sultan. The Sultan was believed to be willing to promise

reform, but wholly incapable and unwilling to carry it out. (See MOROCCO.)

AGRICULTURE. (See COMMERCE and UNITED STATES.)

ALABAMA. The session of the Legislature of Alabama commenced on November 9th, and with a recess in December continued into the ensuing year. Senator Rothen was chosen President of the Senate, and, in the House, N. H. R. Dallas was chosen Speaker.

The financial condition of the State has been greatly improved within the last six years. A readjustment of the debt has been made, which is now wellnigh executed in its details; expenditures have been reduced, resources economized, outstanding warrants cleared off, payment of interest resumed, expenses paid as they were incurred, and a balance accumulated in the Treasury, while the rate of taxation has been reduced from eight mills to seven on the dollar.

The total interest-bearing bonded debt of the State is now \$9,008,000, on which the interest for the current year will be \$244,040, and for the year 1881-'82, owing to the increased rate on the A and the C classes of bonds, \$319,130. The amount of the bonded debt, and therefore of interest, will be increased from time to time by further exchanges until the settlement embodied in the act of February 23, 1876, is complete.

On September 30, 1878, there remained in the Alabama Insane Hospital at Tuscaloosa 401 patients. In the last two years 214 pa-

tients have been admitted and 213 have been discharged, leaving 402 under treatment on the 30th of September last, of whom 213 are women and 189 men. The percentage of cures on admissions was 44-50, and the percentage of deaths on the total number treated was 5-84. Of those under treatment at the date of the report, 71 were colored. The number of applications for treatment within the two years beginning October 1, 1878, was 427, of which 214 were received. In this time 142 were refused for want of room. The hospital receipts for 1878-'79 were \$85,095.95, of which \$68,659.50 was from the State, and the balance from paying patients, sale of stock, borrowed money, etc., and the expenditures for all purposes were \$85,095.95. The receipts for 1879-'80 were \$84,658.07, of which \$67,203.50 was from the State, and \$3,288.15 was borrowed; the expenditures, including the payment of money borrowed the previous year, were the same.

There is a Deaf and Dumb and Blind Asylum in the State, in which the number of pupils is 75, of whom 19 are blind. All deaf-mutes in the State, and all blind children over eight years of age, are entitled to the benefits of the institution free of charge, save that all except the indigent bear the expense of travel from their homes and pay for their clothing.

In the State Penitentiary there were on September 30, 1878, 954 convicts, after which date 270 were received and five were recaptured, making a total during the two years of 929. Of these, 274 were discharged, 29 were pardoned, 26 escaped, and 60 died, leaving in prison on the 30th of September, 1880, only 540 convicts—a decrease in two years of 114. At the same date in 1878 there was due to the Penitentiary, and uncollected, from contractors \$17,290.81, from the United States \$626.50, and from other sources \$35.11, and there was in the hands of the Warden in cash \$5,313.37—in all, \$20,247.79. The gross earnings of the prison for two years were \$51,813.15, and the expenses for provisions, clothing, wood, medicine, and transportation of convicts since March 1, 1879, were \$9,840.94, leaving as net earnings \$41,972.21.

There exists in Alabama a system of hard labor as an alternative for imprisonment in the Penitentiary. It is peculiar to the State, where it results in such diversity of punishment for the same offense in different localities that in some cases felons practically escape with a fine and in others are punished excessively and cruelly; for a sentence to hard labor for the county is supplemented by a further conditional sentence, often for a longer period than that fixed for the crime, for the payment of costs, thus bearing hardly and unequally on the evildoer whose inability to pay subjects him to longer confinement and service. The growing disposition to substitute hard labor for the county for hard labor in the Penitentiary is depopulating the latter, in which the number of convicts is decreasing at the rate of more

than fifty a year—the actual decrease in two years being 114.

On the subject of the payment of costs in criminal cases, the Governor, in his message to the Legislature, presents the following views: "I recommend such changes in the laws prescribing hard labor for the county for misdemeanors as will forbid and prevent punishment for non-payment of costs. In a recent case, an offender convicted of two misdemeanors on the same day and in the same court, was sentenced to three months' hard labor for each offense, and, on default of payment of costs, to hard labor for an additional period of nearly three years in each case. This is an instance of unusual hardship; but many cases differing from this in degree only have been brought to my attention. Inability to pay costs is not a crime, and should not be treated as such. Reasonable costs should be paid by the county which has the service at hard labor of convicts for misdemeanors, and the State should pay reasonable costs where the sentence is to the Penitentiary. Adequate punishment should be inflicted for every offense committed, but no punishment should ever be permitted for mere inability to pay what is in effect and fact, whatever it may be in law, a debt to the State or to its officers."

The receipts and expenditures of the State Treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1880, were as follows: At the close of the last fiscal year, on October 1, 1879, there was a balance in the Treasury of \$267,051.75. During the ensuing year the total receipts amounted to \$681,174.81, and the disbursements to \$597,692.82, leaving a balance in the Treasury, September 30, 1880, of \$350,533.74, or \$83,481.99 as the net accumulation of the year. This is attributable to the economy of the administration for 1880, a comparison of disbursements with those of the preceding year showing a difference of more than \$90,000 in favor of 1880. The fact of there being no General Assembly to pay partly accounts for this difference, but that expense being less than \$50,000, there remains a balance to the credit of the administration of more than \$40,000. This statement, by comparison with those of former years, discloses the fact that receipts from general taxes have decreased. For the fiscal year ending September, 1878, the State received from general taxes \$593,499.34; the next year \$564,722.17; and for the year 1880, \$515,716.16. Receipts from the tax on license, redemption of land, the Penitentiary, and other sources of revenue, were increased.

The following statement shows the valuations and taxation of property in Alabama for the last four years:

YEAR.	Valuation of property.	Tax rate.	Amount of taxes.
1876.....	\$135,535,792 00	7½ mills.	\$1,016,518 44
1877.....	130,739,138 57	7 "	915,598 07
1878.....	126,773,262 85	7 "	887,412 84
1879.....	123,757,072 85	7 "	866,299 51

With increasing prosperity and population the assessments continually diminish, and this condition of affairs is attributed to some radical defect in the revenue laws.

The school statistics of 1879, compiled by the Superintendent, give the number of persons of school age as follows:

Whites.....	214,093
Colored.....	162,551
Total.....	376,639
Those in attendance in public schools:	
Whites.....	106,950
Colored.....	67,695
Total.....	174,585

The number of children at colleges and private schools is about equal to that in the free schools. Of colleges in the State there are the State University, the Agricultural and Mechanical College, the Normal (white) at Florence, and also one at Huntsville and the other at Marion, both colored. Besides these, there are male colleges at Greensboro, at Mobile, at Marion, and at Oxford. There are female colleges at Tuskegee and Eufaula, at Montgomery two, at Marion two, at Huntsville two, at Athens, Florence, and Tuscaloosa two, and in almost every city, town, and village in the State are flourishing private schools. There has never been before such an interest in schools and education generally in Alabama as now exists.

While comparatively little has been expended in schoolhouses, salaries, printing, and books, a large proportion of the children are educated in log structures built by neighborhoods. The people have cheerfully paid the tax for free schools in sums relatively larger than the amounts paid by the populations of richer States. The following statistics show the improvement in public schools within a few years:

In 1874-'75, 145,797 pupils were taught in 3,898 schools an average of about sixty days, at a cost of \$562,437.50.

In 1875-'76, 126,891 pupils were taught in 3,632 schools an average of eighty days, at a cost of \$351,496.64.

In 1876-'77, 143,571 pupils were taught in 4,175 schools an average of eighty-one and one half days, at a cost of about \$370,000.

In 1877-'78, 160,713 pupils were taught in 4,796 schools an average of eighty-four and two-thirds days, at a cost of \$377,634.38.

In 1878-'79—not including Fayette and Winston Counties, from which no reports have been made, and not including the unreported negro schools of Blount—172,540 pupils were taught in 4,582 schools an average of eighty-four days, at a cost of \$381,884.35.

The Board of Health for the State differs with the National Board of Health about the expediency of intrusting the administration of quarantine to any other health authorities than those of its own people and appointment. The State Board objects to the several bills before

Congress for increasing the efficiency of the National Board, as interfering with State and local quarantine. It argues that no uniform system of quarantine regulations is suitable at all times and places; but that one which is applicable to one place will often prove unsuited to another, and that in different seasons even the same place will require different regulations. It holds also that the circumstantial details of quarantine present the important problems of quarantine administration, and that only by experts, intimately acquainted with the local conditions, can these be wisely ordered and managed. The State Board also objects to the rule established in 1879 by the National Board, to the effect that assistance should be extended only to such State and municipal boards as had first adopted the national rules and regulations, and it contends that such State and municipal boards as desire the assistance of the National Board should be required to submit their local regulations to the National Board for examination, and if these are found sufficient the needed assistance should be granted; that the National Board ought properly to have the general direction and control of quarantines against foreign countries, but that even these international quarantines could be most wisely administered through the agency of State and municipal boards having local jurisdiction in the seaport cities. The Alabama Board disclaims any antagonism to the National Board; on the contrary, admits for it a wide and important field of usefulness within which State and municipal boards have no jurisdiction, and that its existence should be maintained by the appropriations for which it has made application, as necessary for the successful continuance of scientific investigations, sanitary surveys, and other works of sanitary administration and research that have been auspiciously begun.

The commissioners representing the late corporation of Mobile, in October, 1880, decided with the bondholders on a basis of adjustment in the payment of three per cent. for five years, four per cent. for fifteen years, and five per cent. for five years. Under the terms of the act annulling the charter of the late city, the commissioners are required to report to the Governor of the State the result of their compromise with the bondholders. The attorney of the commissioners will at the same time submit to the Legislature a draft of such an act for their consideration as, in the judgment of the commissioners, may be required to carry into effect the scheme of adjustment agreed upon. On the passage of such act the commissioners are to apply to the Chancery Court at Mobile for such orders and decrees as may be necessary to secure the application of the assets under its jurisdiction to the uses and purposes agreed upon.

A decision by the United States Supreme Court in several cases arising from the repeal of the Memphis charter follows the decision

in *Barkeley vs. Levee Commissioners et al.* It decides that a State has the power to abolish a public corporation, even when it owes debts, and that new corporations may be created over the same territory which are not responsible for the debts of the defunct corporation; and, further, that the creditor has no remedy in the courts whatever, but can only apply to the Legislature for relief.

According to the sixth quarterly report made by the commissioners to the Chancery Court, and filed therein September 20, 1880, it appears that the total outstanding coupons due down to May 1, 1880, amount to \$86,504. This, added to the bonded debt (\$2,223,749), makes the total debt \$2,310,253. Add to this the coupons that may be due when the adjustment goes into effect, and the judgments obtained against the late city, and the debt will still be under two and one half millions.

To pay three per cent. upon this debt will require \$75,000 annually for five years, \$100,000 annually thereafter for fifteen years, and \$125,000 annually thereafter for five years.

The assessed value of property within the old limits of the city in 1878 was \$16,254,093. Assuming that the assessments under this adjustment will amount to \$16,000,000, it will require a tax of less than one half of one per cent. to realize \$75,000 annually. In five years the assessments may advance with renewed prosperity, and no larger ratio of taxation be required to realize the \$100,000 which will then be needed annually.

The annual statement of the commerce and trade of Mobile, in September, 1880, does not exhibit a large increase—with New Orleans on one, and the Atlantic ports on the other side of her, and with the extensive shipments of cotton from the interior by railway to the north, Mobile suffers serious disadvantages as a commercial seaport. But notwithstanding these, new branches of trade and industry have sprung into existence. The popular enterprise is directed toward manufacturing; the increase of naval stores, and the lumber trade; and to the production of vegetables for the Western markets. Its dry-dock competes successfully with similar establishments elsewhere, and the proprietors have launched, in addition to smaller craft, a new river steamboat of about one thousand bales capacity. Two new manufacturing enterprises have been inaugurated, an ice company and a furniture factory; while evidences of work in iron, tinware, vehicles, etc., are increasing. In the vegetable trade alone, \$175,000 worth of produce was shipped in 1880; and the fish and oyster traffic shows creditable results.

The Alabama railroad system is very complete, and is rapidly developing the State. The South and North Alabama (a part of the Louisville and Great Southern)—the grand trunk, so to speak—runs from Montgomery to Decatur, 183 miles. At Calera it crosses the Selma, Rome and Dalton; at Birmingham it

crosses the Alabama Great Southern, and at Decatur it crosses the Memphis and Charleston, and taps the Tennessee River, with its line of boats to Chattanooga, and thence by rail on to Nashville, Louisville, St. Louis and Cincinnati, etc. The Alabama Great Southern runs east and west across the State, 295 miles, connecting at Meridian, Mississippi, with the Mobile and Ohio and the Vicksburg and Meridian. The other lines traverse the State in all directions—such as the Mobile and Montgomery (now a part of the Louisville and Great Southern); the Western, from Montgomery to Selma, and to Atlanta and Columbus, Georgia, and the Montgomery and Eufaula, *via* Eufaula to Macon and Savannah, with cross and short lines to nearly everywhere and in all directions. The only two projected roads needed in Alabama are the Georgia Western, from Atlanta, and the Grand Trunk, from Mobile to Birmingham. With these two additional lines, especially the first mentioned, the system will be complete, and equal to any emergency in the near future, notwithstanding the present and prospective industries and developments. The Alabama River is navigable all the year, five hundred miles, between Montgomery, Selma, and Mobile, as are also the Warrior, Bigbee, and Chattahoochee—all tapping a rich cotton belt and making rail connections.

The purchase by the Louisville and Nashville of the Selma and Pensacola Railroad will open a new timber and cotton market for Pensacola, Greenville, and Montgomery. There are in operation forty miles of this new purchase, known as the Selma and Gulf, from Selma in the direction of Pensacola. The Louisville and Nashville company are working on its southern end, from its junction with the Mobile and Montgomery and the Pensacola, at or near Pollard.

The Louisville and Nashville combination and consolidation with the Georgia system is nothing more than an alliance, offensive and defensive, or division of territory, as to freights and rates.

The route from Meridian to Tupelo touches Lauderdale Junction, where the Alabama Central Railroad diverges on its way to Selma and Montgomery. From Mobile to Macon, a distance of one hundred and seventy-six miles, the road traverses the long-leaved pine region of the South. Crowned with perpetual green, the stately monarchs of the Southern forests tower a hundred feet in the air, and at their feet, in tropical luxuriance, grow dwarf palmettoes with their fan-like leaves, magnolias with their gigantic buds and flowers, hollies, myrtles, and evergreen oaks, draped with long gray moss. At Macon the prairie region begins, and thence to Okolona, a distance of about sixty-five miles, the country is open and slightly rolling, with occasional skirts of woodland dividing plains almost level. The soil is of a fertility nearly equal to that of the Mis-

issippi bottom, and a large portion of it is under cultivation, though the area planted is less than before the war. Cotton is the leading product, but corn, wheat, and other cereals may be as easily grown. West Point, an important station on this division, near Okolona, is the county-seat of Clay County. Its population is among the thousands, and the town is an important shipping point for cotton, and the various products of this agricultural region. It is situated two hundred miles from Mobile, and two hundred and thirty-nine from Columbus, Kentucky, making it the half-way station of the road.

A case between the Southern Express Company and the Louisville and Nashville Railroad, which organized an express company of its own in opposition to the former, was decided in the United States Circuit Court, at Nashville, against the latter. The rights of express companies, in their relations with railroads, were very distinctly defined. The points set forth in the decision were "that the express business is separate and distinct in every way from the railroad business, and that railroad corporations desiring to embark in this pursuit must do so as expressmen, subject to all the rules and restrictions imposed upon that class of persons. If a railroad desires to have an express department, it must be a separate and distinct branch of its business, which must deal with the railroad proper upon the same basis with other express companies. The railroads are prohibited from making discriminations in favor of their own express departments as against other express companies. The practical result of the decision, so far as the interest of the public is concerned, is that the great railroad corporations will be prevented from making the express business a monopoly by the exclusion from their lines of mere express companies.

The Democratic State Convention met June 2, 1880, at Montgomery. Dennis M. Stone was elected President, and the following persons were nominated for office: R. W. Cobb for Governor; W. W. Screws, Secretary of State; H. C. Tompkins, Attorney-General; I. H. Vincent, Treasurer. For Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Robert C. Brickell was nominated; George W. Stone and Amos R. Manning, Associate Justices; J. M. Carmichael for Auditor, and H. C. Armstrong, Superintendent of Education. E. A. O'Neal and Walter Bragg were nominated for Presidential Electors at large. The platform of the last Convention, without the resolution relating to paper money, was adopted. The delegates to Cincinnati were instructed to adhere to the two-thirds rule.

The committee upon resolutions reported a platform, the concluding resolution of which was as follows:

That we favor the just payment of the public debt and a stable currency. We are opposed to the refunding of the public debt beyond the reach of the Gov-

ernment to pay it as soon as it is able. We favor the retirement of the national-bank notes as soon as the same can be done without injury to the business of the country, and the issue of Treasury notes, commonly called greenbacks, sufficient in volume to meet the commercial and business demands of the country, and redeemable at the option of the holder, and that we oppose any unnecessary restriction on the coinage of the silver dollar.

The Convention voted to strike out the resolution, because it was deemed that the proper place to consider a national question was in the Democratic Convention at Cincinnati.

The platform adopted was as follows:

1. The Democratic party in convention assembled declares its confidence in and unshaken adherence to the great principles of democratic government; its devotion to the Union and Constitution, with the amendments thereto; its unswerving maintenance of the following principles, viz.: strict subordination of the military to the civil power; purity of elections, and their absolute freedom from all interferences by the officers of the Federal Government, civil or military; profound respect for the popular will fairly and legally expressed at the ballot-box; a fixed purpose to expose and punish all political fraud and corruption; the political equality of all citizens; the largest rights of individual liberty consistent with the rights of others, and general participation by the body of the people in public affairs.

2. That our present tariff laws are an impediment to American industry, devised in the interest of monopolies, and maintained in opposition to the demands of the people. We therefore demand their repeal and substitution of a simple revenue which shall be productive without being oppressive. We demand the restoration of the Federal Government to its constitutional limits, and a return of its administration to its original economy, simplicity, and impartiality.

3. In the name of the Democracy of Alabama we most solemnly arraign the Republican party before the bar of public opinion as the authors of all the evils of government which threaten and oppress the people; protesting its friendship for the Federal Union, it sought to destroy it in centralization; declaring its purpose to establish justice, it trampled it under its feet; "to insure domestic tranquillity," its proclaimed mission, it preached the gospel of hate, and filled the land with misrule and anarchy and blood. As the legitimate fruit of its administration it has paralyzed all our industrial pursuits; it has destroyed the value of our property; it has impoverished the country, and it has filled the land with discontent and agitation. For these crimes against humanity and constitutional government, we denounce the Republican party as unworthy the trust and confidence of an intelligent and patriotic people.

4. That the fraud, first triumphant in American politics and unparalleled in the world, whereby the will of the freemen of the republic was defied and subverted, and a defeated candidate placed in the Presidential chair, shall never be ignored, and we call upon the Democracy and the people throughout the land to stand with us in demanding the vindication of the right, and the condemnation and punishment of the wrong, to the end that fraud shall henceforth be powerless and odious, and free government a reality in America.

5. By the levy of excessive duties upon tobacco and alcoholic productions it has encouraged violations of the revenue laws, and, under pretense of protecting the revenue service, it has turned loose on our people irresponsible and reckless men, who maltreat and imprison our citizens, and who destroy property at will, yet refuse to allow these enemies to society to be tried in the State courts for the violation of State laws.

6. That we rely, to a great extent, upon the education of the masses of the people for the perpetuity and





J. A. Garfield

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peace of our republican form of government, and we therefore favor the most liberal system of public free schools that is consistent with the financial condition of the State.

The Republican State Convention met at Selma, May 20th. George Turner, ex-United States Marshal, was appointed President. A large majority of the delegates appointed to the Chicago Convention favored General Grant. A stormy debate on the report of the committee on credentials disturbed the meeting.

The State election took place on the first Monday in August, 1830. Governor Cobb was elected by a majority of 92,545 over Mr. Pickens, the Greenback candidate. All the candidates on the State ticket received about the same vote. At the election the Democrats had no regular Republican ticket to oppose. The Executive Committee of that party advised the support of the Greenback ticket, but in several counties, where there were many negroes, not a Greenback State ticket was seen. A Democratic ticket alone was voted. The only real contest made for the Greenback ticket was in the counties of the First District, where about one third of the vote for Mr. Pickens was cast. Even there the Democrats had a handsome majority. At this election the Democratic vote was the largest ever cast, which was attributed to the intense interest attaching to contests for local offices, as many as ten Democrats in some counties running for the same office. Each of these men was supporting the Democratic State ticket, and the colored voters obtained by them voted, in nine out of ten cases, the whole ticket from Governor down. This accounted largely for the increased vote for the Democratic State ticket over previous elections; and even should the vote of those counties where it is urged that fraud was perpetrated be thrown out, there would still be a majority for the Democratic State ticket of over 60,000. Hancock electors received more than 80,000 majority over the Republican candidate for Governor.

The vacancy in the Supreme Court, caused by the death of Judge Manning, was supplied by the appointment of Henderson Michael Somerville—a selection highly approved by the State at large.

At the session of the Legislature which commenced in November, James L. Pugh was elected to the United States Senate during the unexpired term of the late Senator Houston. Mr. Pugh was born in Georgia, on December 12, 1819. He was a candidate for Presidential Elector on the Taylor and Fillmore ticket in 1848, and on the Buchanan ticket in 1856, and was chosen. In 1859 he was a member of Congress. During the war he was in the Confederate army and Congress.

No acts of general importance were passed by the State Legislature previous to its recess in December.

The returns of the census show the population of the State to be 1,253,069, with four

counties incomplete, and estimated on the basis of 1870, with the percentage of gain in the district added. The population in 1870 was 984,215.

AMERICA. A new difficulty between the United States and British Governments respecting the interpretation of the fishery clauses of the Washington Treaty arose from an act of violence committed by some Newfoundland fishermen upon a party of Americans who were seining for herring in Fortune Bay in January, 1878. A demand for indemnification of the American fishermen for the loss sustained was presented to the late British Government, but was curtly dismissed by Lord Salisbury. Measures were initiated in Congress with reference to the possible failure to come to a common understanding of the meaning of the treaty, and a strong disposition was manifested in Congress and among the public to renounce altogether the privileges and obligations flowing from the treaty with respect to the fisheries, on account of the frequently recurring misunderstandings and disputes regarding the fishery rights. The dilatory answer of the British Foreign Office protracted the controversy until it devolved upon the present British Government. Mr. Evarts repeated his demands and the reasons on which they are based to the new Government, and found Lord Granville disposed to view the question as a debatable issue, admitting of discussion and perhaps of arbitration. (See CANADA and UNITED STATES.)

In the Canadian Dominion the construction of the Pacific Railroad has for a second time been intrusted to the hands of a syndicate. A contract has been concluded, on the basis of extensive land grants and money subsidies, which is strenuously opposed by the party out of power. The question of the ratification of the bargain is the first business to be considered by the Dominion Parliament in its winter session of 1880-'81. The contract is of a similar nature to those under which the United States transcontinental roads were built.

The quadrennial election in the United States, resulting in the election of James A. Garfield for President over Major-General Winfield S. Hancock, was characterized by an unusual degree of partisan fervor; yet so vigorous has been the commercial revival, so strong the consumptive demand and the productive impulse, that the usual disturbance and interruption of mercantile affairs attending a Presidential contest were scarcely felt in any part of the Union.

The harassing, irregular wars which have been carried on against the United States Government by Sitting Bull and his Sioux, and Victoria with his murderous band of Apaches, have ceased; and no organized force of turbulent Indians now menaces the settlements of the far West.

The interoceanic canal at Panama has not yet been begun, but the capital has all been

subscribed. The application for twice or thrice as many shares as there were, when the books were opened, shows a remarkable confidence throughout Europe in the judgment and ability of De Lesseps, its promoter.

The year has been marked by events of the highest importance for some of the Spanish-American states. If peaceful elections and the fact of a change of administration having been effected in the midst of unexampled serenity; the resumption of friendly relations with foreign powers after a protracted period of estrangement; the construction (no longer projected, but actual) of railways; the extension of inland telegraph lines, and the laying of a submarine cable—if all these bespeak the inauguration of an era of prosperity, such an era has assuredly begun for Mexico within the past twelve months.

In the Central American republics a season of international quiet, if not of absolute international harmony, has been enjoyed, and much has been accomplished in the direction of facilitating foreign commerce.

In Colombia the reverse has, for the most part, been the order of things; and General Nuñez's Government, inaugurated in April, has chiefly attracted attention at home and abroad by a marked increase of imposts on foreign products entering the republic: printed books, including even text-books for the use of schools, having been subjected to an onerous rate of duty. A bill for an international copyright treaty with the principal European and American nations was laid before the Colombian Legislature, and the new administration has manifested a desire to encourage the development of the mining industry of the country.

Little has been accomplished in the way of real progress in either Venezuela or Ecuador; Peru has continued to resist, but has been powerless to repel, the Chilean invaders, and her very capital has been menaced with destruction; while Bolivia, partly from inability and partly from apathy, has tendered little aid to her ally, but rather sullenly submits to the prospective forfeiture of an important portion of her territory, which must inevitably follow the ultimate success of the Chilean arms in the present strife.

In Chili, commerce, agriculture, and mining have of necessity suffered from the long drain of forces to maintain the strength of the army; but the moral energy of the Government and people has been sustained by uniform success; the interest on the foreign and home debts has been regularly paid, nor has the Executive required to be invested with any extraordinary powers to raise funds and organize elements with which to carry on the war.

The Argentine Republic has been the scene of considerable disturbance during the electoral campaign. The military policy announced by the new President in his message, and the increase of the military and naval resources of

the country, have given place in some quarters to the assumption that belligerent designs were entertained toward Chili, with which republic the Patagonian boundary question is still pending; while the more plausible explanation of the armament is by many regarded as simply a prudent desire on the part of the Argentine Government to be prepared in case Chili, when finally at peace with Peru, should be tempted to make a demonstration of her liberated forces in support of her claim to sovereign jurisdiction over the disputed territory. The material prosperity of the Argentine Republic has, in the mean time, suffered no check.

Political affairs in Uruguay have been in a very unsettled condition, and the national revenue in the second half of the year proved inadequate to meet the Government requirements.

In Brazil the discussion of the electoral bill was continued with but little interruption; but no event has occurred throughout the year to retard commercial or industrial progress; trade with foreign nations, on the contrary, would seem to be rapidly increasing, a by no means unimportant proof of which is the fact of arrangements having been made for the establishment of a regular line of steamers between the ports of Halifax, Nova Scotia, and Rio Janeiro in October, 1881.

ANGLICAN CHURCH. The population connected with the Anglican Church in the British Isles, in British North America, and in Australia, is estimated as follows: *

British Isles.....	18,522,000
British North America.....	600,000
Australia and New Zealand.....	760,000
Total.....	19,882,000

The following new sees of the Church of England were established in 1879 and 1880: In England, Liverpool, 1880 (forming part of the province of York); in India, Travancore and Cochin, 1879; in China, Mid-China, 1880; in America, New Westminster, 1879, and Caledonia, 1879.

The Convocation of Canterbury met June 1st. Petitions were presented and considered in favor of the act for closing the public-houses on Sunday, against any alteration in the Book of Common Prayer, and in favor of the more complete representation of the clergy. In the Lower House, a resolution respecting the "Burials Bill" supported by the Government before Parliament was adopted, as follows: "That the Lower House of the Convocation of Canterbury are bound by their duty to the Church humbly to record the expression of their deep regret that it should be judged necessary on the part of her Majesty's advisers to propose to Parliament a measure which, if it shall become law, will, for the first time in the history of the country, save and except only the time of the Commonwealth, take away from the

* For a more detailed statistical account, and for a complete list of dioceses existing at the beginning of 1879, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 80.

Church of England the exclusive control, according to her own doctrines and discipline, of the use of her own churchyards; and that this House desires, by this solemn protest, to deliver itself of all responsibility as to any dishonor which may be done to Almighty God by the character of the worship which, in the event of the passage of this bill, may hereafter be offered in her churchyards." A committee was appointed to consider the best method of providing for Episcopal supervision over Anglican congregations in the North of Europe. The Archbishop was deputed to confer with the Government respecting an increase in the number of elected proctors, and a change in the mode of elections and the qualifications of electors. The bishops agreed that they would use all their influence in Parliament to secure the incorporation in the bill for taking the census in 1881 of a provision for taking a religious census in England.

The second meeting of the Convocation was held July 13th. A committee of both Houses was appointed to consider how best to provide for Episcopal supervision over Anglican congregations in the North of Europe. The committee to whom the subject of the Burials Bill had been referred, made a report suggesting that, if the bill should not be passed, both the Church and dissenters should give up the funeral services at the grave, and hold them only at their houses of worship. This clause was struck out by vote of the Convocation, and the report was referred back to the committee. The Convocation of York met at the same time, and took action in favor of securing provision for a religious census of England in the bill for a general census which was about to be presented to Parliament.

The eighty-first annual meeting of the *Church Missionary Society* was held in London, May 4th. The Earl of Chichester presided. The total amount of contributions given to the Society during the year had been £221,723, and the expenditures had been £200,307. The capital fund had been restored to its original figure of £68,281. The committee had resolved to set apart £60,000 as the permanent working capital of the Society, and to place the remainder of the fund to a separate account, to be called the contingency fund. Four hundred and eighty clergymen, of whom 218 were European, were engaged in the work of the Society, with 2,686 native and country-born Christian catechists. The number of communicants in the mission churches was 28,510.

The receipts of the *Society for the Propagation of the Gospel* for 1879 were: from collections and subscriptions to the general fund, £71,099; from legacies, £10,934; from dividends, £4,753; total in the general fund, £86,787. Other funds had been appropriated to the amount of £9,943, and special funds amounted to £34,943, making the entire income of all classes, £131,674. The Society had employed 593 missionaries.

The twelfth annual Conference of the Society for the Liberation of Religion from State Patronage and Control, was held in London, June 10th. Mr. H. Lee, M. P., presided. The report stated that the receipts of the Society for the year had been £11,398, and the expenditures £10,848. Seven million copies of publications had been issued, and nearly two thousand meetings had been held. Resolutions were adopted declaring that the Conference viewed with satisfaction the results of the recent elections in Scotland, and the indications that the question of disestablishment was not to remain in abeyance till another election; that it approved of Mr. Roundell's motion affirming the inexpediency of retaining clerical restrictions in connection with any headship or fellowship in any college of Oxford or Cambridge, and also of Mr. Bryce's proposal for the abolition of such restrictions in connection with professorships of Hebrew and ecclesiastical history; that the Public Worship Regulation Act had failed to accomplish its professed object; expressing the belief that a remedy for the evils which afflict the Church would be found, not in fresh legislation, but in employing the spiritual forces of a free church; and expressing gratification at the early introduction of the Burials Bill, and a hope that it might be satisfactorily amended.

The twentieth annual *Church Congress* was held in Leicester, beginning September 27th. The opening sermons were preached by the Archbishop of York and the Dean of Llandaff. The Bishop of Peterborough presided at the Congress. Papers were read and discussed on subjects relating to the foreign missions of the Church, "The Church and the Poor"; "The Religious Condition of the Nation"; "The Church in relation to the Organization of Labor"; "Upper and Middle Class Education; its Present Condition, and how to maintain and promote its Religious Character"; "Sunday-Closing and Local Option"; "The Internal Unity of the Church, and the Influence of the Three Great Schools of Thought in the Church of England upon each other, and upon the Church"; "The Existing Forms of Unbelief; their Social and Moral Tendencies"; "The Cathedral System; how to reform it so as to strengthen the Relations of the Cathedral to the Diocese, and to make each Cathedral a more Efficient Center of Religious Equality"; "The Duty of the Church as regards Civil Laws relating to Marriage and Divorce"; "The Communion of Saints; how may it be strengthened and manifested"; "Popular Recreations; how to improve them; Light Literature and the Stage." The Congress was visited by a deputation representing the nonconformist ministers of Leicester, bidding it welcome to the town. The Bishop of Peterborough responded in a courteous address.

The *Synod of the Episcopal Church in Ireland* met in Dublin, April 20th, and was opened with an address from the Lord Primate. The

financial reports showed that a steady decrease in the receipts from various sources had been going on for several years past, the amount received under the head of assessment having fallen from £124,424 in 1876 to £108,272 in 1879, and the receipts from all sources from £212,095 to £165,007. The attention of the Synod was given to the discussion of the relations of the Divinity School in Trinity College with the Synod, of the status of proprietary churches, the formation of a General Church Committee, the claims of the minor incumbents and curates, the increasing expenditure of the representative body, the consecration of church-building, and primary education.

The *Provincial Synod of the Episcopal Church in Canada* was held in Montreal in September. The Synod decided that the name of the Church should hereafter be "The Church of England in Canada"; that a Board of Foreign Missions should be formed for the collection of money for missions to the heathen abroad, and a Board of Domestic Missions for work in British America, particularly in the diocese of Algoma; and that persons might be admitted to the diaconate, but not to the priesthood, without surrendering their worldly callings.

The fifth *Synod of the Diocese of Sydney* met in Sydney, New South Wales, June 22d. Bishop Barker, in his opening address, mentioned as important topics affecting the interests of the Church, the Public Instruction Act of 1880, and the Church and school land revenues, an act concerning which was pending before the Colonial Parliament. He urged the clergy to avail themselves of the opportunities for imparting religious instruction in the public schools. A resolution was proposed reciting that the Church had not the influence in the colony to which it should, by its numbers and position, be entitled, and advising the members to take a more active interest in politics. After considerable debate, it received the vote of a large majority of the clergy, but was defeated by the negative vote of the laity. The income of the *Church Society* for the year had been £14,000. The Society granted stipends to thirty-eight clergymen and eight catechists.

The triennial meeting of the *General Synod of New Zealand*, was held at Christchurch in April, and was attended by seven bishops, twenty clergy, and twenty-three lay representatives. The Primate suggested that a revision of the wording of the constitution of the Synod was needed to adapt the instrument to the changes which had taken place in the circumstances of the colonies since it was framed, and a motion providing for a revision was made, but not acted upon. The principal subjects considered by the Synod were the consolidation of the parochial system, and clerical education. The Board of Theological Studies provided a uniform standard of education for all the dioceses. It was resolved not to attempt to establish a central theological college, but to

found exhibitions which might be held in New Zealand or elsewhere. The arrangements for the selection of hymns and the musical parts of the service were declared to be under the control of the clergymen, not of the vestry. Favorable accounts were given of religious work among the Maories, and in the islands.

ANTIMONY-MINES IN MEXICO. The antimony of commerce has hitherto been derived almost exclusively from the sulphide-ore called stibnite, or gray antimony. In this state the metal is distributed very widely over the globe, though it is found nowhere in large deposits. It is mined in Hungary and different parts of Europe, and is found in California and Nevada; but the principal source of the supply is Borneo, whence it is shipped in ballast to the English smelters. The cost of the purified metal is quite high, being as great as that of tin and copper, and about four times that of lead. Its high price is owing not only to the comparative infrequency of the ores, but to the difficulty of reducing the sulphide, in which the antimony is usually associated with various troublesome mineral impurities, which impede and complicate the process of extraction. The reduction of the sulphide is a long process. The sulphide is first separated from the gangue by fusion, and then reduced to an oxide by roasting in a reverberatory furnace; and from the oxide the metallic antimony is obtained by fusion with charcoal saturated with a solution of carbonate of sodium.

Extensive mines of the oxide of antimony have recently been discovered in Sonora, Mexico, in the district of Altar. The attention of metallurgists was called to these deposits in 1879 by the discoverer, E. T. Cox, of Arizona. A company of capitalists from Boston was soon formed who secured nine claims of the dimensions allowed in Mexico, 2,624 by 656 feet, including all the outcropping lodes. The geological character of the country where this valuable discovery was made is identical with that of southern Arizona. The mountains are in short, narrow ranges, running mostly in a north-and-south direction. Some of the summits are irregular and rugged, and some are smooth, round cones, owing to the different degrees of erosion in the different materials of their masses. Between the parallel ranges is table-land or *mesa*, formed of the eroded material. The peaks are porphyry, quartzites, basalt, diorites, and trachytes, the principal mass of the mountain-chains granite, the sedimentary rock on their flanks a sub-carboniferous limestone, in which the fossil remains have been effaced by igneous action. The *débris* which forms the *mesa* is so loose that the rain sinks through it, leaving the surface always dry and arid. In the immediate neighborhood of the mines only the limestone and quartzite are found. The lodes are from four to twenty feet thick. The ore has been removed to the depth of thirty feet, and the fissures are found to be filled from one wall to the other with the solid ore. It is oxide of anti-

mony, almost pure, and remarkably uniform. The course of the lodes is north and south, parallel with the axis of the mountains. The pitch is high to the east. All the lodes are found within an area five or six miles long and one half mile wide; on three of them the ore crops out above the surface of the ground, and can be seen bulging out for several hundred feet along the lode. The ore is almost pure oxide, the only impurity being silica, which is present in very small quantities. The ore assayed 60 and 70 per cent. of pure metal, and is expected to average 50 per cent. There is no indication that the oxide ceases and gives place to sulphide deeper down in the lodes. The mineral varies from a light color, almost white, to a dark brown. The purest specimens have the specific gravity 5·07; in these there is 75 per cent. of antimony; they contain 5 per cent. of water. It corresponds in composition and specific gravity to the mineral called *stibiconite*. It is only slightly soluble in hydrochloric and nitric acids, and *aqua regia*. Fused with carbonate of soda in a crucible of platinum, it decomposes readily. The ore is reduced only with difficulty before the blow-pipe, but yields readily in a crucible with powdered charcoal or cyanide of potassium, giving star antimony. This particular oxide of antimony has never before been met with except as a slight coating on other minerals containing antimony. It has before been so rare that specimens containing only a few grains were difficult to procure.

Antimony is an exceedingly useful metal, and if more abundant could be applied to additional uses. It is chiefly valuable for the alloys which it gives in combination with other metals. The chief of these are type-metal and britannia-metal. Type-metal is composed of lead and antimony, the proportion of the latter varying between 17 and 20 per cent. Britannia-ware is made of an alloy with tin, copper, and zinc, containing 16 per cent. of antimony and 81 of tin. The valuable pharmaceutical preparations of antimony, tartar-emetic, etc., must be freed absolutely from arsenic and other impurities which the antimony of commerce nearly always contains.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC (REPÚBLICA ARGENTINA).* The President of the Republic is Brigadier-General Don Julio A. Roca (inaugurated on October 12, 1880); and the Vice-President, Don Francisco B. Madero. The new Cabinet is composed of the following Ministers: Interior, Señor Del Viso; Finance, Dr. Cortínez (*ad interim* until May, 1881, when the regular appointee, Dr. Don Juan José Romero, Governor of the province of Buenos Ayres until that date, will assume the portfolio); Justice, Public Worship, and Public Instruction, Señor Pizarro; War; and the Navy, Señor Victorica.

The Argentine Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the United States

and Great Britain is Dr. Manuel R. García. The Argentine *chargé d'affaires* in the United States (during the Minister's absence in England) is Señor Don Julio Carrié. The Consul-General (at New York) for the American Union is Señor Don Carlos Carranza. The Governors of the several provinces, etc., were:

Buenos Ayres.....	Dr. Juan José Romero.*
Minister of the Interior.....	Dr. Carlos A. D'Amico, } October,
Minister of Finance.....	Dr. Mariano Demaria, } 1880.
Catamarca.....	M. J. Rodríguez.
Córdoba.....	M. Juárez Celman.
Corrientes.....	F. Cabral.
Entre-Ríos.....	Colonel J. Anteto.
Jujuy.....	Bustamante.
La Rioja.....	V. A. Almonacid.
Mendoza.....	E. Villanueva.
Salta.....	Dr. M. Oliva.
San Juan.....	M. Moreno.
San Luis.....	T. Mendoza.
Santa Fé.....	S. de Iriondo.
Santiago del Estero.....	Santillan.
Tucuman.....	D. Martínez de Huelgas.
Gran Chaco Territory.....	Colonel L. V. Mansilla.
Patagonia.....	Colonel A. Barros.

The Argentine army, exclusive of the National Guard, comprises 7,175 men, as follows: 2,929 horse; 3,332 foot; artillery, 914. There are 5 generals of brigade, 9 colonels-major, 30 colonels; 107 lieutenant-colonels; 166 sergeants-major, and 735 officers of other grades. The National Guard was, at the time of last returns, 236,000 strong; and the reserve, 68,000.

The navy was composed of 27 vessels: 2 steam ironclads, 6 steam gunboats, 2 steam torpedoes, 12 steamers (transformed into war-ships), 3 steam transports, and 2 sail of the line; with an aggregate tonnage of 12,000, an armament of 88 guns, and manned with 2 chiefs of squadron, 5 colonels, 8 lieutenant-colonels, 6 majors, 7 captains, 26 lieutenants, 22 students, 43 midshipmen, 7 paymasters, 26 engineers; 900 seamen, including officers; 2,000 infantry and artillery (National Guard); and 1 torpedo section, with 3 commandants, 8 subaltern officers, and 80 men. There is a naval school and a school for cabin-boys; and an arsenal has been built at Zárate.

The estimated revenue and expenditure for the fiscal year 1879-'80 were as shown in the following tables:

REVENUE.	
Import duties.....	\$13,300,000
Export duties.....	2,500,000
Warehouse fees, etc.....	350,000
Stamped paper, patents, etc.....	650,000
Post-office and telegraphs.....	450,000
Lighthouses, etc.....	40,000
Railways.....	635,939
Interest, etc. (on national funds loaned to provinces).....	509,061
Wharfae.....	15,000
Sundries.....	500,000
Total.....	\$19,250,000
EXPENDITURE.	
Ministry of the Interior.....	\$2,582,881
Ministry of Foreign Affairs.....	117,540
Ministry of Finance.....	9,413,180
Ministry of Justice, Public Instruction, etc.....	1,286,068
Ministry of War and the Navy.....	5,078,745
Total.....	\$18,479,614

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1872, 1877, and 1878, for statistics concerning area, population, territorial divisions, etc.

* *Ad interim* until May, 1881, when he will assume the portfolio of Finance in the national Government.

The surplus observed on comparing the totals of these two tables is \$770,386.

Some of the more important items of expenditure in the several departments of the Government, according to the estimate already referred to, are exhibited in the subjoined table:

INTERIOR.

President of the Republic (salary, and expenses of his household).....	\$46,920
Legislature.....	580,575
Post-Office and telegraphs.....	602,760
Immigration.....	246,086
Subsidies to provincial governments.....	52,485
Railways.....	875,600

WAR AND THE NAVY.

Army.....	\$4,487,968
Navy.....	640,782

JUSTICE, ETC.

Justice.....	\$168,865
Public Instruction.....	565,656

FINANCE.

National debt.....	\$5,433,587
Collection of revenue.....	715,440

The customs receipts for each month of the year 1879, as given in the following table, though in general but little below the standard for the most favorable years, do not aggregate as high as the estimated receipts for 1879-'80, shown in the foregoing table of the revenue:

January.....	\$1,199,487 25
February.....	1,230,019 28
March.....	1,059,946 21
April.....	1,103,615 77
May.....	1,414,375 24
June.....	1,011,146 07
July.....	1,029,261 34
August.....	929,967 22
September.....	888,509 53
October.....	1,152,858 98
November.....	980,427 95
December.....	4,196,883 71
Total.....	\$13,150,823 50

Dr. Avellaneda, in his message to Congress, immediately before surrendering the executive power to his successor, made the following statement concerning the budget:

The total expenditure for the year 1881 is estimated at \$20,207,851, as follows: Interior, \$3,452,995.08; Foreign Affairs, \$140,840; Finance, \$9,455,322.57; Justice, etc., \$1,499,452; War and the Navy (army, \$4,740,610; navy, \$917,692 =) \$5,658,232; and showing an increase of \$1,724,337 over the present year (1880) as follows: Interior, \$870,114; Foreign Affairs, \$24,000; Finance, \$42,252; Justice, etc., \$202,484; War and the Navy (army, \$302,647; navy, \$279,840 =) \$582,487. This increase is in a great measure merely nominal, as the whole amount appropriated is rarely spent, although it well might be in the present instance, and particularly in the branches for which the increase is intended. A few words will explain this: Of the \$870,114 asked for the Interior, \$650,000 are for the extension of the Central North and Andine Railways, and may be looked upon as the earnings of said lines. Consequently, the real increase is only \$220,114, which will be chiefly devoted to immigration and colonization, and subsidizing the municipal bodies to be created for those purposes; the founding of new colonies in Patagonia; the improvement of roads, bridges, and public buildings; the canalization of the port of Santa Fé; the repairing of the dredging-machinery, and other urgent public items which reach in the aggregate \$85,848 in the estimates of the other ministerial departments. The increase for Public Instruction is comparatively insignificant, if the appropriations made in former years for this branch are considered, and how important it is for

young nations to have the largest possible number of inhabitants educated, while it is perhaps the noblest manner of returning to the people what they have contributed to the Government. Finally comes the Ministry of War and the Navy with \$82,720, of which \$50,000, are for the new powder-factory, a medical corps, and Board of Health, the placing in commission of several ships at present lying up, the erection of marine workshops, etc. The taxes all remain as they were in 1880, except some slight modification in the manner of collecting them.

The financial condition of the Argentine Republic is, on the whole, and despite of many unfavorable circumstances, chief among which are the devastating revolutions which attend electoral campaigns, extremely favorable, and the country's credit is uniformly maintained abroad, thanks to the unexceptional regularity observed in the service of the national debt. Between the years 1863 and 1870 the revenue increased 120 per cent., and between 1870 and 1878 a further advance of about 4 per cent. was apparent. The returns for 1879 now show an increase of rather less than 5 per cent. as compared with those for 1878; * but this is attributed in part to the enhanced import tax on wool, for which Minister Plaza obtained permission from Congress in 1878. Notwithstanding that it is an express violation of the Constitution to impose any export duties on native products, yet the tax on wool was raised to 6 per cent. *ad valorem*, a state of things regarded as prejudicial to the interests of the republic, since it would be impossible for Buenos Ayres, shackled with such an impost, to compete with Australia, which exports its wool free of duty. Dr. Plaza's policy, however, was cordially supported by the people of Buenos Ayres. As the inhabitants of the city already paid forty-five dollars per capita to the national Government, twenty dollars to the provincial government, and about ten dollars to the Municipal Council, it was deemed wise and "more patriotic" that any new taxes should be laid on the *estancieros* (farmers, etc., occupying the *estancias* in the rural districts). The incidence of taxation was as follows:

NATIONAL REVENUE.

Buenos Ayres (city).....	\$3,600,000
Buenos Ayres (rural districts).....	4,800,000
Thirteen remaining provinces of the republic.....	2,100,000

\$15,500,000

REVENUE OF BUENOS AYRES.

City.....	\$3,250,000
Rural districts.....	1,500,000
	\$4,750,000

Total..... \$20,250,000

Hence, the taxes paid by the Argentine people were as follows:

DIVISIONS.	Taxes.	Rate per capita.
Buenos Ayres (city).....	\$11,850,000	\$55.00
Buenos Ayres (rural districts).....	6,800,000	15.00
Thirteen remaining provinces.....	2,100,000	1.50
Total.....	20,250,000	10.01

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 88.

In the foregoing statements are not included the municipal taxes of Buenos Ayres, or the local taxes of the thirteen other provinces. It is, however, sufficient to remark that the city of Buenos Ayres paid thirty-five times as much per capita as the other provinces, than which circumstance none can more satisfactorily explain the wish of the Buenos Ayreans to get rid of so much government. "The cause of such heavy taxation," observes an Argentine economist, "is the extra liberality of the British public in lending us money," and indeed the interest and sinking fund of the following loan constitute a heavy yearly drain:

YEAR.	Debt.	Amount.
1865.....	Argentine.....	\$11,000,000
1870.....	Buenos Ayres.....	5,250,000
1871.....	Argentine.....	81,250,000
1872.....	Hard dollars.....	5,750,000
1873.....	Buenos Ayres.....	10,500,000
	Total.....	\$63,750,000

In this table are not comprised the Buschenthal loan of 1863, the foreign indemnity bond, the 1876 loan of 500,000,000 pesos current money (about \$20,000,000), the Lottery loan of 1878, nor such minor matters as the loans to Santa Fé and Entre-Rios. If the railway guarantees be excepted, the whole indebtedment of the republic and of Buenos Ayres is about \$100,000,000, or a little over \$10 per capita of the population of the country, and one fourth of the Australian average. If the finances be carefully handled, says the writer last referred to, the country will retrieve itself in ten or fifteen years. It is a pity that the public men are violent protectionists, and paralyze the imports with an impost of 50 per cent. *ad valorem* for the purpose of protecting manufactures. In this way "good sheep farmers are being converted into bad bootmakers and execrable tailors," and the exports for 1878 showed a decline of 20 per cent. from those of the year immediately preceding, particularly in wool, tallow, and hides. At the close of 1877 the price of Argentine bonds in the London market (taking those of 1868 for a guide) was 70; at the end of 1879 it was 90 to 92; and in December, 1880, some were, for the first time, sold at par. Here is an evident indication of financial prosperity. Yet one great drawback still proves a heavy drag on the financial and commercial prosperity of the country, namely, a depreciated currency which calls aloud for remedial measures. Gold, the "shuttle-cock of the *bolsa*," is still at a high premium. With the large influx of gold from Great Britain in 1879, and the confidence felt in the stability of the Government, there ought to be but little difficulty in reestablishing the *Oficina de Cambios*, making paper a legal tender at the former rate of 122½ pesos to the pound sterling, a financial achievement which would favor the flow of capital into the republic, and render commercial transactions safe and steady. As things have been for a number of years past, however,

there is too much of the gambling element; and a country whose foreign securities have almost attained par value, ought not to be exposed to the humiliation of a depreciated currency at home.

The great feature in Argentine history during the past few years is the increase of production, and the marked excess in the value of the exports over that of the imports, the reverse of which condition was formerly the rule. The appended tables show the values, sources, and destinations, respectively, of the imports and exports for 1879:

IMPORTS.

From.	Values.
Belgium.....	\$3,081,000
Brazil.....	2,224,000
Chili.....	321,000
France.....	9,105,000
Germany.....	2,213,000
Great Britain.....	12,083,000
Holland.....	296,000
Italy.....	2,631,000
Paraguay.....	724,000
Spain.....	2,177,000
United States.....	8,794,000
Uruguay.....	2,116,000
West Indies.....	128,000
Other countries.....	943,000
In transitu.....	3,076,000
Total.....	\$44,567,000

EXPORTS.

Destinations.	Values.
Belgium.....	\$13,870,000
Brazil.....	3,279,000
Chili.....	1,150,000
France.....	11,621,000
Germany.....	1,536,000
Great Britain.....	8,758,000
Italy.....	1,602,000
Paraguay.....	464,000
Spain.....	736,000
United States.....	8,791,000
Uruguay.....	1,436,000
West Indies.....	1,018,000
Other countries.....	475,000
In transitu.....	3,004,000
Total.....	\$47,765,000

The values of the principal commodities exported in the same year were as follows: wool (91,951,094 kilogrammes), \$21,610,000; ox-hides (2,336,799 kilogrammes), \$8,149,000; horse-hides (317,429 kilogrammes), \$292,000; sheep-skins (25,088,878 kilogrammes), \$3,965,000; tallow (15,538,289 kilogrammes), \$2,033,000; salt beef (32,309,577 kilogrammes), \$2,812,000; animals (297,073), \$2,130,000; hair (2,372,962 kilogrammes), \$766,000; bones, \$506,000; various skins, not above enumerated, \$789,000. According to statistics, Buenos Ayres owned at the commencement of 1880, 5,116,029 head of cattle, or 936 for every 100 inhabitants; and 46,600,000 sheep, or 8,275 for every 100 inhabitants; which last figures are without a parallel elsewhere, though, singularly enough, the number of cattle in Uruguay was 6,000,000, or 1,385 per 100 inhabitants, while the number of the sheep was but 12,000,000.

No returns of shipping movements at the various ports of the republic have been published of a later date than those given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

The total length of railway lines in operation in 1878 was 1,448 miles; and concessions had been, up to the end of that year, granted for new lines to the extent of 1,989 miles, including the great interoceanic railway from Buenos Ayres to Santiago (Chili), 888 miles. Still further concessions were granted in 1879 and 1880, and works on the new lines and continuation of those already built were carried on with activity.

The telegraph lines in operation in 1877 comprised 9,887 miles of wires, of which 3,365 belonged to the state. The total number of dispatches in 1878 was 214,714.

The tide of immigration continues to increase, the number of immigrants for 1879 having reached 50,000, a figure hitherto unprecedented outside of the United States, and showing an increase of 14,329 as compared with that of the year immediately preceding. The lack of immigration from Northern Europe to the Argentine shores is very generally deplored, and active measures are on foot for encouraging its augmentation. Of the 286,000 immigrants from the United Kingdom and Germany in 1879, hardly 1,000 went to the River Plate regions.

The political situation of the country in 1880 contrasted widely with that of 1879, the events of which latter year comprised only measures of peaceful industry at home, while the single question of a menacing character in the foreign relations of the republic was the still existing vexed question with Chili as to the possession of territory in Patagonia. In the year just past, as the final issue of the elections for a new President approached, the smoldering fire of party strife broke out and raged for several months with unmitigated violence, paralyzing all branches of trade and industry, and being attended with considerable bloodshed, the city of Buenos Ayres itself having suffered the hardships and inconveniences inseparable from a state of siege. An incident which seriously complicated the main question at issue was that of the discussion concerning the definitive establishment of the capital of the republic, Buenos Ayres, which had been the *provisional* capital ever since the days of the independence, with the trammels and expense of a double gubernatorial machine, and the object of envy and jealousy of all the provinces save that in which it is situated. The first days of October brought the reestablishment of peace, with the termination of the electoral campaign, and the inauguration of the new Chief Magistrate of the Republic, Brigadier-General Don Julio A. Roca, whose administration is regarded as one full of patriotic and fruitful promise. General Roca gained considerable distinction as Minister of War and in other important capacities under the Avellaneda government. The fact of his being a soldier, together with his resolution to initiate a military policy, and the continued arrival, for some time past, of war material for the Argentine Government, gave

place in some quarters to apprehensions of belligerent designs toward Chili, with which country, as already hinted, the Patagonian boundary question is still pending. But a more reasonable explanation of the armament would be the prudent desire on the part of the Argentine Republic to be prepared in case Chili, after making peace with Peru, should feel tempted to make use of her liberated forces in support of her claim to sovereign jurisdiction over the disputed Patagonian peninsula.

The following extracts we translate from President Roca's inaugural speech to the Argentine Congress on October 12, 1880, than which no other description could present a clearer view of the present political condition of the country:

MESSRS. SENATORS AND DEPUTIES: I have just taken the oath prescribed by the Constitution for the office to which the most important duties and the gravest responsibilities attach; and I consider that I should, on this solemn occasion, express to the representatives of the Argentine people what my intentions are on accepting that high post.

I do not come unconsciously to power. I well know that the path now before me is beset with snares for him who feels the responsibility of this elevated charge among a free people; nor am I unaware of the bitter trials ever awaiting him who is resolved upon the rigid discharge of his duty. But, as you know, it was beyond my power to control the current of opinions which has terminated in this (by me unsought for) result of the electoral contest—a contest which has served as a pretext for staining once more our country's soil with blood. When the liberties of mankind and the growth of a nation are concerned, all that is great or enduring is to be attained only at the expense of vast efforts and painful sacrifices. Nor are the severe trials passed through by the Argentine Republic to be wondered at, when we survey her rapid progress and the triumphs achieved in half a century of national existence, as compared with the tardy development to which history bears testimony in the governments of the most advanced societies.

We live very rapidly, and in our feverish impatience to reach in a day the level arrived at by other nations through centuries of labor and sanguinary attempts, most of the problems of our organization, political and social, take us by surprise.

The Congress of 1880 has completed the federal representative system of government; and we may be said to have this day fairly entered the period of constitutional rule. The law just sanctioned by your body for the final settlement of the capital of the republic, is at once the starting-point of a new era in which the Government will have entire freedom of action, and the realization of the people's dearest wish, as implying the consolidation of the union and the reign of peace for long years to come. The existence of that law had come to be an inevitable necessity, and your highest claim to the nation's esteem will be your having so faithfully interpreted its desire.

Henceforth, free of preoccupation and undisturbed by the internal commotions which hourly imperiled the very integrity of the republic, the Government will be enabled to devote its attention to the concerns of administration and the fruitful works of peace; and the revolutionary period being closed for ever, which constantly retarded our onward march, we shall soon reap the fruits of your firmness and tact.

On assuming the general administration of the country, I would mention the subjects which occupy my mind more particularly than all the others—the army, and means of internal communication.

The army and navy, implying, as they do, the integrity and safeguard of our country from without,

and peace and order at home, have the first claim to the attention of Congress and of the new Government.

The present army of the republic is a model of disinterestedness, fortitude, valor, and loyalty to its flag, but at the mercy of arbitrary dispositions, and without rules for its guidance or laws for its organization on a regular and systematized plan.

To the reforms required in this direction I shall devote my best endeavors, in order to avert the dangers of militarism, which is the suppression of liberty, at a more or less distant day, and make of the army a veritable institution, according to the terms of the Constitution and the requirements of modern progress. By this means, and being removed from party influence, it will occupy, as it now does, an exalted place in public opinion, and in the unfortunate event of our country's rights being endangered, be in a position to disinvolve an irresistible force. This measure will prove advantageous also in an economical point of view, doing away with useless expenses which weigh heavily upon the Treasury because of the impossibility for previous Governments to establish a perfect system of civil and military administration in the services connected with the army.

As for internal means of communication, they present to my mind an imperative and unavoidable necessity, which can not be neglected without injury to the common weal. It is indispensable to complete our railways to their natural termini in the north, west, and east, with their several branches, thus perfecting the facilities of travel and cementing the bonds of union between the provinces.

Such as have attentively watched the progress of this country can not have failed to observe, as you yourselves well know, the marked changes—economical, social, and political—effected by railways and telegraph lines in their progressive extension through the interior.

Rich and fertile provinces but await the construction of railways to increase their yielding powers a hundred-fold, with ready means of transportation to markets and the seacoast for their varied and magnificent products, representing the three kingdoms of nature.

For my part, I shall regard it as the greatest glory of my Government if, in three years from this day, we succeed in saluting with the whistle of the locomotive the towns of San Juan and Mendoza (the region of the vine and the olive), of Salta and Jujuy (the region of coffee, sugar, and other tropical products), and, throwing wide open at the same time our gates to the commerce of Bolivia, to receive the metals from her rich and inexhaustible mines.

I rely upon your aid, and that of the whole country, for the realization of these projects within the time specified, or sooner if possible; nor will the works mentioned be at all extraordinary or superior to our resources, if we can only live in peace.

The other branches of administration, such as immigration, public instruction, the enlightenment of all classes of society, the fostering care due to religion, commerce, arts, and industry—these have become normal duties which no Government can now neglect.

I must, nevertheless, make special mention of the necessity of peopling the desert territories, but yesterday the home of savage tribes and to-day the possible seat of populous towns, as the most efficient means of securing their possession.

I shall continue our military operations along the present frontier lines, north and south, until the complete subjection of the Patagonian and Chaco Indians, in order to blot out the military frontiers for ever, and not leave a single span of Argentine soil beyond the jurisdiction of the laws of the land.

Let us rid completely those broad and fertile regions of their traditional enemies who, since the days of the conquest, have ever retarded the development of our pastoral wealth; let us offer absolute security of life and property to those who engage their capital and their hands in the labor of fertilizing them, and we

shall soon see them peopled by eager multitudes of every race and from every clime, the future founders of new states to swell the power and greatness of the republic.

A young and vigorous nation like our own, with a vast extent of territory, fertile lands, a favored climate, and liberal institutions, ought not to look with amazement at such feats as these, of the accomplishment of which elsewhere under similar circumstances numerous examples are recorded in the history of human societies.

We are the outline of a great nation destined to exercise powerful influence in the civilization of America and of the world; but in order to complete the picture with full perfection of detail, we must enter with firm tread the path of regular life, as a people constituted in the image of those we have chosen for our model: that is to say, we require lasting peace, order unbroken, and permanent liberty. And, touching these particulars, I declare aloud from this exalted seat that I may be heard throughout the entire republic, I will make use of all means and authority placed by the Constitution in the hands of the Executive power of the nation to avert, crush, and repress any attempt against the public peace. If in any spot of Argentine territory a fratricidal arm be raised, or a movement subversive of the constituted authority, thither the nation's whole power shall be directed to restrain them. Yet I trust there shall be no need of this; for there are now none—either individuals or parties—any longer mighty enough to arrest the chariot of the republic's progress by the crime of a civil war. On the other hand, the liberties and rights of citizens will be faithfully protected; and political parties, so long as they keep within constitutional bounds and do not degenerate into revolutionary parties, may remain in peaceful security from interference or hindrance on the part of my Government. The door of the Constitution and the law is wide enough for all parties and all noble ambitions. And thus, who can doubt that the party which twice in the course of six years committed the error of attempting to repair electoral defeats by force of arms might this day be the legitimate directors of the destinies of the nation, had they not resorted to such odious extremes? In cases of doubt or of impossibility to discern where the rights of the citizen end and the attributes of the Government begin, my preference will always be to refrain from action, leaving time and public reason to solve the difficulty; and, should I be forced to take any steps that might affect the political interests of even the unworthiest of Argentines, I shall proceed upon mature reflection, and after having heard the opinion of my natural advisers and of the acknowledged eminent authorities which the country happily possesses.

Our relations with foreign powers will be zealously maintained and fostered by my Government, care being taken to augment and strengthen the bonds of union between this republic and the most advanced nations. It will be my especial endeavor to preserve harmony with our neighbors, while strictly abstaining from interference in their internal concerns. And as for those with whom, in relation to boundaries, we have difficulties still pending, I shall seek to solve these in a manner worthy of all concerned, without yielding one iota where I understand the dignity, rights, or integrity of the republic to be affected.

As a consequence of these views, our obligations toward foreign commerce shall be regarded as sacred, and I shall spare neither pains nor sacrifices to preserve our credit, both at home and abroad, by scrupulous attention to the service of our debts; for I regard the national honor as dependent upon the faithful discharge of that duty.

ARGYLL, Duke of, GEORGE DOUGLAS CAMPBELL, K. T., the Lord Priy Seal in the new English Cabinet, was born April 30, 1823. He is the only surviving son of the seventh Duke

of Argyll, and succeeded his father on April 26, 1847. He sits in the House of Lords as Baron Sundridge and Hamilton, in the peerage of England. He held the office of Lord Privy Seal also in the Earl of Aberdeen's Cabinet from 1852 to 1855, and on the break-up of that Ministry he retained the office under Lord Palmerston's premiership. He afterward became Postmaster-General in the same Cabinet, but resumed the Privy Seal in 1859, exchanging again to the postmastership on Lord Elgin being sent to China in the following year. He retired in 1866. In the last Liberal Cabinet of Mr. Gladstone, the Duke of Argyll held (from 1868 to 1874) the position of Secretary of State for India. He has been a frequent speaker in the House of Peers on such subjects as Jewish Emancipation, the Scottish Marriage Bill, the Corrupt Practices at Elections Bill, the Sugar Duties, Foreign Affairs, the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, the Scottish Law of Entail, the Repeal of the Paper Duties, etc. During the administration of Lord John Russell he generally supported the Government, but he identified himself with the Liberal Conservatives. He showed a special interest in all questions affecting Scottish interests brought before the House of Lords, especially in the affairs of the Church of Scotland. Even before he had succeeded his father, he took, as Marquis of Lorne, an active part in the controversy in the Presbyterian Church of Scotland relating to patronage, and was regarded as the chief support of Dr. Chalmers. The first pamphlets published by him, and entitled "A Letter to the Peers, from a Peer's Son" (1842), and "On the Duty and Necessity of Immediate Interposition in Behalf of the Church of Scotland," related to this question. Though an admiring friend of Dr. Chalmers, he condemned the Free-Church movement then in agitation among certain members of the General Assembly. The fullest *exposé* of his views on church matters is given in his work, "Presbytery Examined" (1848), which traces and critically reviews the history of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland since the Reformation. He was elected Chancellor of the University of St. Andrews in 1851, and Rector of the Glasgow University in 1854. In addition to the works already mentioned, he published in 1866 "The Reign of Law," which had a very large circulation; in 1869, "Primeval Man: an Examination of some Recent Speculations"; and in 1870 a small work on the "History and Antiquities of Iona," of which island he is proprietor. He is Hereditary Master of the Queen's Household in Scotland and Keeper of the Great Seal of Scotland, Lord-Lieutenant and Hereditary Sheriff of Argyllshire, and a Trustee of the British Museum. He was married to Lady Elizabeth, daughter of the second Duke of Sutherland. His wife died in 1878. Of his children, five sons and seven daughters were living in 1880. The eldest son, the Marquis of Lorne, married, in 1871, the Princess Louisa, fourth daughter of Queen Victoria.

ARKANSAS. The correct pronunciation of the name of this State has been a subject of investigation by a joint committee of the Eclectic and the Arkansas Historical Society. According to the results of their research, it appears that the name was taken from that of a tribe of Indians inhabiting the country upon the northern bank of the river of the same name. The early French explorers caught from them the sounds of the name, and endeavored to represent them by French modes of spelling. In other words, it belongs to the class of Gallicized Indian names, which, together with those of purely French origin, make so important a part of the nomenclature of the rivers, mountains, and prairies of the territory purchased from the French under the name of Louisiana. In the old diaries, notes, reports, and rude maps of the early French, the name is differently spelled. Each, having no guide, made his own phonetic effort to represent sounds heard upon the lips of the natives. In one point all agree, that the sounds represented by the letters and syllables can, in the French language, be nothing different from that pronunciation which afterward became common, namely, the pronunciation of those syllables with the final *s* silent, and the broad sound of *a* in each. This French pronunciation passed afterward to the Americans, prior to and with their purchase of the territory, and was used by all the people, as well as by statesmen in official transactions. This is illustrated by the American spelling, which for a while was adopted, to indicate approximately the French sounds. The English not having the final silent *s*, the letters *aw* were introduced temporarily to avoid corruption in pronunciation. They nearly, but not quite, represent the broad sound of *a* in the French, with the silent *s*. This became the spelling of Congress. It caught the pronunciation and transported it into the English at a critical period, when it might have been lost or corrupted, as many French names of less importance have been, to the point of entire disguise. When the pronunciation had become familiar, and the danger was thought to be past, the better taste of the more cultivated people, among whom was Governor Izard, of the State, insisted upon a restoration of the original orthography, which was easily effected, and now universally adopted. But for uniformity, however, it would still be pardonable to use the orthography of Congress, in the act establishing the Territory.

Through these changes in spelling the pronunciation remained unaltered, and was retained by all the people until a quite recent period, and is still used by a very large majority of the people of all classes. The origin of the other pronunciation, which is used by a small class of educated people and has obtained recognition, to some extent, among lexicographers, although quite recent, eludes all investigation. By it the accent is cast on

the middle syllable, the final *s* is sounded, and the Italian sound of *a* in the second and third syllables changed to the sound of *a* in *can* instead of its sound in *car*. The committee say: "We are happy to state, however, that we find this vicious habit less universal and less firmly established than the honor given it by lexicographers led us to fear. It has never obtained except among a small class of immigrants from more distant States. It is almost unknown in those States which have furnished the great mass of our population, and entirely so among those born and bred in the State, or who came here at an early period. We are, therefore, unanimous, and without hesitation in declaring it, as the result of our inquiries, that the true pronunciation of our State is in three syllables, with the broad Italian sound of *a* in each, and with the final *s* silent, with the accent on the first and last. The spelling is correct, and indicates properly its French origin. The polite world will doubtless concede to our State the privilege of fixing the pronunciation of its own name. The pronunciation herein indicated as proper, is now retained and commonly used by the Governor, heads of departments, and all the Judges of our Superior Courts. We beg leave to recommend that it continue to be used in all official *viva voce* proceedings."

The Hot Springs adjustment was finally secured by an act of Congress, passed on June 16, 1880. The important features of the act may be briefly stated. It provides that every person, his heirs or legal representatives, in whose favor the commissioners appointed by Congress, relative to the Hot Springs of Arkansas, have adjudicated, shall have the sole right to enter and pay for the amount of land the commissioners have adjudged him entitled to purchase. This privilege continues for eighteen months after the expiration of the notice required by the tenth section of the act of Congress of March 3, 1877. The person so entering land must pay to the receiver at Little Rock forty per cent. of the assessed value of said land placed thereon by the commissioners.

A large and unadjusted claim is held by the State against the Government of the United States. Under an act of Congress of 1850, designed to aid in the construction of the necessary levees and drains to reclaim the swamp and overflowed lands, Congress gave to the State the whole of such overflowed lands not then fit for cultivation. The Interior Department, by this authority, reported as due 8,652,432.93 acres, and of this amount 7,627,812.14 have been approved to the State, and 7,121,953 acres actually patented. There still remain unapproved 1,024,620.79 acres, and of the approved lands no patent has been issued for 505,858.66 acres. The matter is complicated from the fact that Arkansas is largely indebted to the Smithsonian Institution, which is under the charge of the Government. This

Institution holds 500 \$1000 bonds of the State of Arkansas issued in 1838, and, as no interest has ever been paid, the indebtedness now stands at something like \$2,000,000, and the United States has made this default on the State's part the occasion for withholding payment of the five per cent. fund due the State arising from the sale of public lands.

Another complication arises from the issue of patents to citizens for this land already granted to Arkansas, and the donation of another quarter million of acres to railroads as a subsidy. Efforts are being made to have Congress reduce the price of public lands in this State to 62½ cents an acre, except the reserved alternate railroad sections. The State Land Commissioner, in the fifteen months before January 1, 1880, disposed of 146,664 acres of the public lands of the State by sale and 317,640 acres by free grant to actual settlers, against 127,415 acres sold and 183,743 acres donated to settlers in the twenty-four months preceding.

An amendment was proposed to the State Constitution, which was designed to take from the Legislature all authority to pay certain State bonds. To become valid, it was requisite that it should have been agreed to by a majority of all the members elected to each House of the Legislature, and adopted by a majority of the electors of the State. The amendment had passed the Legislature and was submitted to the voters at the election in September. It was in these words:

ARTICLE XX. The General Assembly shall have no power to levy any tax or make any appropriations to pay either the principal or interest, or any part thereof, of any of the following bonds of the State, to wit: Bonds issued under an act of the General Assembly of the State of Arkansas, entitled "An Act to provide for the Funding of the Public Debt of the State," approved April 6, A. D. 1869, and numbered from four hundred and ninety-one to eighteen hundred and sixty, inclusive, being the "Funding Bonds" delivered to F. W. Caper, and sometimes called "Holford Bonds," or bonds known as Railroad Aid Bonds, issued under an act of the General Assembly of the State of Arkansas, entitled "An Act to aid in the Construction of Railroads," approved July 21, A. D. 1868, or bonds called "Levee Bonds," being bonds issued under an act of the General Assembly of the State of Arkansas, entitled "An Act providing for the Building and Repairing of the Public Levees of the State, and for other Purposes," approved March 16, A. D. 1869, and the supplemental act thereto, approved April 12, 1869, and the act entitled "An Act to amend an Act entitled, 'An Act providing for the Building and Repairing of the Public Levees of this State,'" approved March 23, A. D. 1871, and any law providing for any such tax or appropriation shall be null and void.

At the election in September, this amendment was rejected by the people by a majority of nearly four thousand votes.

A Republican State Convention was held at Little Rock, on May 2d, at which John A. Williams was President. Delegates to the Chicago National Convention were appointed, and instructed to support General U. S. Grant for President. Presidential electors were also

selected, and other business transacted relating to the State election.

The Greenback National-Labor Convention assembled on June 17th, and nominated for Governor, W. P. Parks; for Secretary of State, C. E. Tobey; for State Treasurer, W. A. Watson; for Auditor of State, C. E. Cunningham; for State Land Commissioner, Wilshire Riley; for Superintendent of Public Instruction, Peter Brugman; for Chief Justice of Supreme Court, J. Cole Davis; for Clerk of Chancery Court, W. T. Holloway.

The Democratic Convention assembled on June 4th, and nominated for Governor, T. J. Churchill; for Secretary of State, Jacob Frolich; for Auditor of State, John Crawford; for Treasurer of State, William E. Woodruff, Jr.; for Attorney-General, C. B. Moore; for Commissioner of Public Lands, D. W. Lear; for Supreme Judge, E. H. English; for Superintendent of Public Instruction, J. L. Denton; for Judge of Pulaski Chancery Court, D. W. Carroll; for Clerk of Pulaski Chancery Court, J. W. Calloway.

The following platform was adopted:

We, the Democratic party of the State of Arkansas, in delegated convention assembled, reaffirming and renewing the pledge of our allegiance and unwavering devotion to those great principles of equal rights, untrammelled suffrage, and universal toleration toward all men of whatsoever race, nationality, creed, or condition, that underlie and uphold the fabric of our free Government and republican institutions, and hereby solemnly pledging ourselves to a continued recognition, observance, and enforcement of the same, do further make these our declarations of party principles:

1. That the General and State governments are each in their own proper and constitutionally appointed sphere supreme, and entitled to equal love, obedience, and devotion, and that neither can trench upon the province or prerogatives of the other without grave danger and detriment to the highest interests of both.

2. That, recognizing morality and intelligence together as the true and lasting basis of every free government, and an essential requisite to a proper exercise and enjoyment of the rights and privileges of the same, we are in favor of such a system of free public schools as will increase to even greater extent the facilities of education our people now enjoy, and with this view we commend to the Legislature of our State such needed revision of our school laws as may be most conducive to this end.

3. That we favor and cordially invite immigration from every quarter without restriction, save that it be of an honest and industrious class, and we hereby proclaim and publish to the world that all charges and intimations that any man or classes of men have been or will be in any manner proscribed, or ostracized among us on account of political opinion, or otherwise, is an unjust and unfounded libel upon our people and State; and we hereby guarantee equal protection and enlightened tolerance to all alike who may come to cast their lot among us, and make our beautiful and growing State their home; and we demand from the Legislature the enactment of such suitable laws as will tend to encourage and increase immigration into our midst.

4. We are in favor of such wholesome legislation as may be necessary to encourage the investment of capital in and the building up of manufactories in the State to the full extent that the same may be done without undue discrimination in favor of one class or branch of industry or enterprise before another of equal importance to the welfare of the people at large.

5. That, recognizing from well-attested acts and conduct in the recent past that the time has come when a large number of our colored fellow-citizens, ignoring the party affiliations and prejudices of a bitter past, are now willing to strike hands with us in the living present and march shoulder to shoulder with the great political party to which is intrusted the reins of power to be exercised for our common weal, we do hereby warmly acknowledge their kindly aid and disposition already shown, and cordially invite them to a yet fuller and more active coöperation with us in fostering and forwarding our common interests, and the welfare of our noble Commonwealth.

We endorse the action of the Democratic State Convention assembled in 1878 in recommending the submission of the question of our State's bonded indebtedness to the people by resolution providing for an amendment to our State Constitution, as also the action of our State Legislature of 1879 in submitting the same to the people, and we do not now regard that question as a political one, and remit the same to the people to be voted on by them at the approaching election, irrespective of party.

The result of the election was the success of the Democratic ticket by a large majority.

ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES. Lieutenant-General Sheridan reports that there were 4,850 officers and men in the Department of Dakota; 2,840 in the Department of the Platte; 4,720 in the Department of Missouri; and 3,640 in the Department of Texas. He protests anew that this force is too small for the work which it has to perform, and inadequate for the suppression of disturbances in the Territories and Western States, and the protection of the borders. In the Division of the West there is only one man for 75 square miles of territory, in the Department of Texas only one man for 125 miles.

Major-General Hancock reports a force of 317 commissioned officers and 2,390 enlisted men in the Division of the Atlantic.

The number of soldiers drawing increased pay for length of service under the act of 1854 is 6,129; for five years of continuous service, 3,762; for ten years, 1,872; for fifteen years, 227; for twenty years, 130; for twenty-five years, 97; for thirty years, 41.

The number of men and officers killed and mortally wounded in actions with Indians in the four years past was for each year as follows: In 1876, 16 officers and 272 men; in 1877, 7 officers and 121 men; in 1878, 2 officers and 8 men; in 1879, 2 officers and 32 men. The total losses for the four years were 27 officers and 333 men.

According to the report of Adjutant-General Drum, the enlistment of soldiers has been conducted with such care in selection, that out of 23,300 applicants only 5,026, or less than 22 per cent., were enlisted. A great improvement in the class of men applying for enlistment has been observed within the past few years, which he ascribes to the act of June 18, 1878, to advance the more soldierly and intelligent of the enlisted men to commissions. The total number of soldiers who have passed out of the service during the year is reported as 7,582: 235 by death, 2,043 by desertion, 3,158 discharged on expiration of service, 482 by court-martial,

15 by civil authority, 116 on account of minority, and 653 by order. The assignments of recruits and reenlistments amounted to 5,620: recruits assigned, 4,166; non-commissioned officers reenlisted, 474; musicians, etc., 41; privates, 939.

The deaths reported among the white troops by the Surgeon-General were 219, or about 1 per cent. of the mean strength (22,100), of which number 126 died of disease and 93 of wounds and casualties. The proportion of deaths to cases treated was 1 to 179. The number of white soldiers discharged from the service on surgeons' certificates of disability was 734, 3·3 per cent. of the average strength. The number of deaths among the colored soldiers was 46, or 1·9 per cent. of the mean strength; 21 of these died of disease, and 25 of wounds, accidents, and injuries. The proportion of deaths to cases treated was 1 to 88. The number of colored soldiers discharged on certificates of disability was 42, or 2·2 per cent. of mean strength (2,368). Casualties of seventeen hostile engagements with the Indians were reported for the year ending June 30, 1880. The organization of the army at present provides for 11 general officers, 555 officers, and 1,286 enlisted men for the staff; and 1,989 officers and 24,214 enlisted men for the line. Secretaries Sherman and Ramsey in their reports to the President recommend that the strength of the army be increased to 25,000 men in the troops of the line, instead of that number of enlisted men for all duties, to which limit the army is confined by the appropriation bills. Frontier tactics have undergone a great change since the extension of railroads through the Territories. It is no longer necessary to guard stage-routes and maintain small posts; but considerable bodies of troops may be concentrated at points of intersection on the railroads, whence they can be rapidly forwarded to the scene of action when Indian outbreaks take place. It is desirable to build permanent quarters for the soldiers at these central posts. Many of the small posts are still occupied, because they afford the only available quarters for the troops, which have ceased to be of any strategic importance. Secretary Ramsey and General Sherman recommend that authority be given to sell these useless sites and buildings, and apply the proceeds to erecting new barracks at the important military positions. The lack of officers for field-service prompts the suggestion that only retired officers be allowed in the educational employments for which regimental officers are now frequently detailed.

There are 78 schools in operation in the army, under the supervision of officers, with an aggregate attendance of 2,305 enlisted men and children. The enlistment of 150 schoolmasters, with the rank and pay of sergeants, is recommended by the Secretary of War.

Adjutant-General Drum addressed a circular in July to the adjutant-generals of the different

States, offering to aid in the organization of the State militia, and to help assimilate the rules and forms used in the State organizations to those employed in the regular service. The motive of the interest in the discipline of the State forces manifested on the part of the authorities of the regular army is to enable the army to be readily strengthened by the State troops and regular and volunteer recruits suitably officered by officers of the militia in the event of a war. Officers were detailed to visit and inspect the summer encampments of the State troops.

The year has witnessed the suppression of the two troublesome bands of hostile Indians who have infested the Northern and Southern frontiers for many months, escaping over the borders when hard pressed by the military. The Apache leader Victoria and his band have been destroyed in Mexico, and the main body of the Sioux led by Sitting Bull have delivered themselves up to the military authorities.

In the engagement between Major Thornburgh and the Utes, near the White River Agency, September 29, 1879, 10 were reported killed and 35 wounded. In an attack upon Colonel Miles's command by the Sioux, at Beaver Creek, Montana, 3 were killed and 3 wounded, July 17th; in a skirmish at Salt Lake, Texas, July 25th, 2 were wounded; at Big Creek, Idaho, July 29th, 2 were wounded, and 1 killed at the same place August 20th. In an engagement with the Apaches, near Fort Bayard, New Mexico, 4 were killed and 1 wounded, September 5th. A number of engagements took place in New Mexico between a detachment under Colonel Morrow and the Apaches belonging to Victoria's band. On September 30, 1879, 2 were killed at the head-waters of the Rio Cuchillo Negro; 3 were killed and 1 wounded at Grozman Mountain, October 26th and 27th; on the Rio Perche, January 13, 1880, 1 was killed and 1 wounded. In an engagement in the San Mateo Mountains, January 17th, 2 privates were wounded and an officer killed. In engagements in the Carvallo and San Andreas Mountains, January 30th and February 7th, 1 was killed and 4 wounded. A severe fight took place on the east side of San Andreas Mountain, April 6th and 7th, between Mescalero Apaches and a portion of Colonel Hatch's command, in which an officer and 8 men were wounded. In a meeting on Ash Creek, Arizona, with Victoria's Apaches, May 7th, 1 man was killed. Trouble occurred also with the Sioux in Montana, who attacked several scouting parties. A party supposed to belong to Sitting Bull's band attacked a small detachment on Pumpkin Creek, February 7th, wounding 1 and killing 1; in another attack near Rosebud River, March 8th, 2 scouts were killed. On April 1st a skirmish took place on O'Fallon's Creek, in which 1 man was killed.

The Apaches were hotly pressed in New Mexico and Arizona by the United States troops and by volunteer organizations of citi-

zens. They were encountered and scattered by a force commanded by General Grierson, and pursued wherever they showed themselves. Victoria and his band of marauders were finally driven over the Mexican border in September by General Buell. The American forces pursued them into Mexican territory for more than 100 miles south of Quitman, Texas, when they were notified by the Mexican Colonel Terrassas, with whom they had communicated, that a further advance into Mexico would be objectionable. After committing a massacre in the district of Chihuahua, the Indians were met by the Mexican troops under Terrassas. Victoria was slain with 60 of his warriors and 18 women and children; and 68 women and children were captured. The remainder of his band, about 30, fled across the line into American territory again. The raids of Victoria extended through a year and a half. His band and their allies are supposed to have committed as many as 400 murders. A party of Mescaleros who had been separated from Victoria's band in the fight with General Grierson attacked a picket near Eagle Springs, Texas, October 29th, and killed 4 men.

An organized band of emigrants from Kansas, Arkansas, and Texas, called the Oklahoma Colony, started in November for the strip of territory of 57 miles beyond the border-line of Kansas in Indian Territory, which they claimed was not a portion of the ceded reservation, and which they announced that they would settle upon and occupy by force unless forbidden by act of Congress, since the Secretary of the Interior had expressed the intention to settle the wild Indian tribes of the Southwest upon the disputed tract, and the Federal courts had not promptly accorded a judicial hearing of the matter. The president of the colony was D. I. Payne.

The removal of the Utes from the reservation in which silver and gold mines have been found, in Colorado, has been attended by many difficulties. A critical conjuncture, in which the Indian agents and the small body of troops on the reservation were in danger of becoming the victims of a sudden outburst of savage rage, was brought on by the action of the State authorities in regard to a case of manslaughter, in which an Indian was killed by a freight-carrier, and the perpetrator captured and put to death by the Indians. (See COLORADO.)

At the beginning of November about 1,500 Indians who had taken part in the rebellion of Sitting Bull had surrendered to the military, and were placed on the reservation in Montana, under the control of the garrison at Fort Keogh, and set to agricultural employments. The chiefs Spotted Tail and Rain-in-the-Face gave themselves up with their camps; but Sitting Bull refused to deliver himself up till the return of the British officer, Major Walsh, who had treated with him as a mediator.

The number of Indians in the United States, exclusive of Alaska, is 255,938, all of whom except some 18,000 are under the control of agents of the Government. In the Indian Territory there are 60,560 civilized and 17,750 uncivilized Indians. There are about 25,000 Indians in Dakota, 23,000 in New Mexico, 21,000 in Montana, 17,000 in Arizona, and 14,000 in Washington Territory. Over 5,000 Indians live in the State of New York, and 10,000 in Michigan. The number of acres broken by Indians not belonging to the five civilized nations of Indian Territory in 1880 was 27,283; the number of acres under cultivation, 170,847; bushels of wheat raised, 415,777; of corn, 666,430; of oats and barley, 222,439; of vegetables, 376,145; tons of hay, 56,527; number of cattle owned, 78,812; of sheep, 864,137. By the civilized tribes the number of acres cultivated was 314,398; the number of bushels of wheat grown, 336,424; of corn, 2,346,042; of oats and barley, 124,568; of vegetables, 595,000; tons of hay cut, 149,000; bales of cotton raised, 16,800; number of cattle owned, 297,040; of swine, 400,282. Among the Indians, exclusive of the five civilized tribes, 110 day-schools and 60 boarding-schools have been maintained with 316 teachers. These have been attended by upward of 7,000 children. The boarding-schools are regarded as more efficacious than the day-schools, since in them the teaching of farming and domestic work can be more successfully conducted. As much attention is given to instruction in useful labor necessary to self-maintenance as to the schoolroom studies. There are tribes numbering 50,000 Indians who have no treaty school funds. The Indian Bureau intends to open 13 new boarding-schools during the present season, which will be the first schools established for the instruction of the Western Shoshones, the San Carlos Apaches, and the first regular and satisfactory instruction provided for nine other tribes, numbering in all over 33,000 individuals. The officers conducting Indian affairs deem that the time is come when the tribal customs can be supplanted by the law of the land to a considerable extent, and when the policy of granting communal rights only in the reservations may safely be abandoned, and agricultural lands be allotted to individual Indians to hold in severalty. Acting-Commissioner Marble reports that the feeling among the Indians on the reservations in favor of individual ownership is almost universal. "Following the issue of patents comes disintegration of tribal relations, and if his land is secured for a wholesome period against alienation, and is protected against the rapacity of speculators, the Indian acquires a sense of ownership, and, learning to appreciate the advantages and results of labor, insensibly prepares himself for the duties of a citizen." The Commissioner recommends a law also to prevent polygamy and legalize marriage among the Indians, and the enactment of a code of criminal law for the reservations. He considers that the

laws for the punishment of trespassers upon Indian reservations are inadequate, and asks for a law making such interlopers strictly amenable to punishment. Secretary of the Interior Schurz, in his annual report, expresses similar views of Indian policy. The policy of massing the Indians on the largest reservations, which was followed in the beginning of the present Administration, in accordance with which the Pawnees, the northern Cheyennes, and the Poncas were removed to the Indian Territory, Mr. Schurz thinks has been a mistaken one. The policy advocated is to respect the rights which the Indians possess in the lands they occupy and their attachments to their homes, and by teaching and encouragement to cultivate among them independence and a love of work and desire to accumulate private property. He advises giving separate holdings of land, with an inalienable title running a sufficient length of time; proposing to allot lands in fee simple eventually to Indians able to maintain themselves upon them, and to dispose of the lands of those of the Indians who do not prove themselves able or disposed to maintain themselves upon them, for the benefit of and with the consent of the owners, to white settlers. The aim of such a policy is to dissolve the tribal system and to gradually make citizens of the Indians. By a decision of the United States Circuit Court, rendered by Judge Dundy, the Ponca Indians are entitled to the lands in Nebraska from which they were removed. By the same principle their former reservation in Dakota will be returned to them, and the Sioux, to whom the Poncas' lands were assigned and who now hold them, have no legal title and may be dispossessed.

The Chief of Engineers, General Horatio G. Wright, directs attention to the backward condition of the harbor defenses. Only a small portion of the existing fortifications are of recent construction, and planned with reference to modern heavy ordnance. These are all of them earthen barbette batteries. The casemated forts, which were as good as any in the world when they were built, were designed only to resist the attacks of wooden vessels, and are pierced for guns long out of date. The modern naval vessels are armed with guns of from 9 to 17 inch bores, firing 800 to 2,000 pound projectiles, and are clad with from 6 to 24 inches of iron armor. Foreign nations have naval stations within a few hours' sail from the American shore. Immediately upon the declaration of a war these fast war-steamer could appear at any one of the American ports and pass the present batteries with ease. The navy could not avert such a danger, and no rapid concentration of troops could prevent the burning of the seaport thus attacked by explosive shot. Some of the wealthiest cities of the United States, thousands of millions' worth of property, and a large part of the naval and military stores of the Government, are thus ex-

posed to quick destruction upon the first outbreak of a war. This danger can only be successfully guarded against by a thorough system of harbor fortifications constructed in accordance with the principles followed by European nations, casemated forts armed with the heaviest artillery and protected by thick iron scarps, supplemented by earthen batteries and a well-planned system of torpedo defense. Barbette batteries may be used entirely in the ports with shallow harbors which will not float the heaviest ironclads. Fortifications should be studded along the channels of approach of every harbor and in the harbor, and in all waters in the neighborhood of a city within the longest direct or curved range of modern gunnery. In the harbor mouths and channels should be placed lines of torpedoes for the purpose of holding the vessels of the enemy under the fire of the fortifications. The torpedoes should be ready in the fortresses to be laid down at the breaking out of a war according to regular plans which have been studied out with reference to the topography of the bottom and the tidal currents. The wire for firing the torpedoes should be securely laid in subterranean galleries conducting from the secure chambers within the fortifications, where the electrical apparatus is placed, out into deep water. Heavy mortars should be placed to command every position where the enemy might anchor either for the purpose of shelling the city or of destroying the torpedo lines. The guns and mortars should be heavy enough to penetrate the iron plating and break through the decks of ironclads, and should be numerous enough to prevent the fastest war-steamer from running their fire. The present casemated forts, where they can be strengthened and pierced for heavy ordnance, ought to be coated with strong plates of iron, and provided with iron casemate shields to protect the guns and gunners from direct or curved fire.

The trial of a 11-inch muzzle-loading rifled cannon which had been made over from a 15-inch smooth-bore has been very successful, and proves the practicability of converting old guns into effective weapons of the approved form. With this gun 398 rounds were fired with 90 pounds of powder and 495 and 543 pound shot, and 3 with 95 pounds of powder and 540 pound shot. Tests with an 8-inch breech-loader, with battering charges of 35 pounds of powder, led the Board of Ordnance to recommend the breech-loading system. The advantages of the use of chambers in rifled cannon for heavy charges having been tested with a 3-inch rifle, one of the 8 inch rifles was chambered and tried. After a preliminary trial 100 rounds were fired with the maximum charge of 55 pounds of powder and 180-pound shot. The velocity was found to be about one third greater than in the unchambered guns, and the power and accuracy were increased, while the wear of the bore by the 55-pound charge was no greater than that produced in the other

form by 35-pound charges. The penetration at 1,000 yards was 9.93 inches, while that of the unchambered rifle of the same caliber is 7.73 inches, and that of the English 9-inch rifle 8.76 inches. In all kinds and calibers up to 11-inch bores the method of converting old guns into the newer forms, both muzzle- and breech-loading, has proved a success. Four 12-inch breech-loading rifled guns were directed to be constructed in the bill making an appropriation of \$400,000 for armament. The reluctance of contractors to take the orders for guns heavier than the foundry plants are adapted to caused a delay; but the contracts were finally placed. The manufacture of small-arms in the National Armory during the fiscal year aggregated 20,387 rifles and carbines. The reserve supply on hand at the end of the year was 22,979, including the manufactures of the year. The Springfield breech-loader is still retained. No form of magazine gun has yet been brought to the point of perfection which would warrant its general use in the army. The Hotchkiss type is the most promising one, and is being developed and improved, and, if successful, will probably be adopted, though the bolt and handle are not looked upon with favor in the service. The Chief of Ordnance, General Benet, has recommended that the bayonet and the saber both be abolished. The General of the Army gave orders for studies and experiments with the design to have the ramrod shaped so that it would serve the additional purpose of a bayonet or foil after the manner devised by Lieutenant Zalinski, and for the manufacture of a light, efficient knife or trowel for digging in the ground and other uses. Colonel Benton, commanding the Armory, has produced a combined bayonet and ramrod, which is a simple modification of one used in Hall's breech-loading carbine, invented seventy years ago. It occupies the same space as the ordinary ramrod, is strong and efficient, reduces the weight carried by the soldier, and does away with the bayonet-scarbard. In the butt of the gun is a receptacle for the screw-driver, cartridge-extractor, and wiper. A trowel-knife has also been devised. A limited number of both instruments have been furnished to soldiers for trial. Trials at extreme ranges have demonstrated that the service-rifle is able to wound or kill up to nearly 3,000 yards, and that the carbine with the rifle-cartridge made for the service carries as far. The 500-grain bullet fired from any rifle with sufficient twist ranges nearly 3,700 yards. Ordinary variations in the weight of powder-charges do not affect elevation at very long ranges, velocities approximating each other. The range of the Government rifle may be made, according to Colonel Benton and Captain Greer who made the trials, as long as that of any in the world by preparing the cartridge as at present, but with an increased weight of ball.

The case of suspected hazing of the colored cadet Whittaker, at West Point, in April, who

was found with the cartilage of his ears cut open, and with other injuries and marks of violence, which he asserted had been committed upon him during the night by a band of students of the Academy, aroused considerable popular excitement. The authorities of the school were convinced from the first that the tale was an imposture, and that the cadet had inflicted the marks upon himself for the purpose of obtaining an excuse from certain examinations, or from some other motive. An investigation was entered upon, in which Whittaker exhibited a threatening anonymous letter, which he said had come to him several days before the alleged outrage. The presence of the Attorney-General, who was requested to watch the proceedings of the trial as a representative of the Government, was resented by the commandant and other officers. No one was implicated besides the supposed sufferer by the evidence brought out at the trial. In the yearly report of Major-General Schofield, commanding the post, the officers and teachers are defended from the charge of showing disfavor to the colored cadets, and the students are exonerated from the imputation of hazing Whittaker. The regulations which require white cadets to sit at the same mess with colored students, to meet them and hold the necessary intercourse with them in the class-room, on parade, and in other places, General Schofield considers an invasion of their social liberty. The two races are not required to occupy the same dormitories. The white cadets respect the legal rights of colored cadets more scrupulously than those of each other. "The enforced association of the white cadets with their colored companions, to which they have never been accustomed before they came from home, appears to have destroyed any disposition which before existed to indulge in such association. The intellectual inferiority of the lately enslaved race is a reason for the want of success of colored cadets at West Point. One out of the eleven appointees has passed through the course and graduated with credit, though without social recognition. The case of the cadet Whittaker is the natural result of the assumption that the enfranchised race have attained in half a generation the social, moral, and intellectual level which the average white man has reached in hundreds of years. . . . He imagined that officers who had fought to make him free, and who were laboriously striving to teach him what he could not comprehend, were governed in their conduct toward him by 'hate of the nigger,' and that cadets who would neither touch him nor speak to him, could be believed to have tied his hands and feet, and cut his hair and ears, and that so tenderly as not to hurt him. He had not reached that point in civilization where it is first apprehended that human nature may be governed by motives other than love, hatred, or fear." The cadet Whittaker was subsequently dropped from the roll of the college, having failed to satisfy the requirements of the stand-

ard for examinations in certain branches of study. His case was discussed later on in a meeting by President Hayes and his Cabinet, and by order of the President a trial by court martial, on the charges of duplicity made against him, was accorded to take place in January, 1881. General Schofield has been relieved of his command at West Point, and General Howard placed in charge of the post.

ASIA. The sixth issue of Behm and Wagner's* publication, "Die Bevölkerung der Erde" (Gotha, 1880), estimates the territory of Asia at 17,210,044 square miles, or 44,572,000 square kilometres, and the present population at 834,707,000. Not included in this number are the Polar Regions, to which the editors of this periodical now assign an independent position among the large divisions of the land-surface of the earth. We give their estimates of the area and population of these regions in the article POLAR REGIONS.

As long as the final results of the Kulja treaty between Russia and China are not known, there is some uncertainty about the present boundaries of these two empires. The area and population of the large divisions of Asiatic Russia are set down as follows:

DIVISIONS.	Area + in sq. kilometres.	Population.
Caucasus, inclusive of recent (1878) increase in Armenia	7,569,644	5,623,344
Siberia (exclusive of New Siberia, for which see POLAR REGIONS) ..	12,469,524	8,410,362
Central Asia	3,824,096	4,401,376
Caspian Sea (without islands)	439,418
Total Asiatic Russia	23,802,682	13,470,582

For the Turkish possessions in Asia the following figures are given:

COUNTRIES.	Sq. kilometres.	Population.
Immediate possessions	1,889,055	16,193,000
Cyprus (under English administration) ..	9,601	150,000
Tributary principdom of Samos	550	87,000
Total	1,899,206	16,320,000

The area of the still independent region between Khiva, Bokhara, Afghanistan, Persia, and the Russian Transcaspian district, is given as 206,500 square kilometres, with a population, according to Vambéry, of 450,000. The only stock that have up to the present moment retained their entire independence are the Tekkes, of whom 200,000 are Akhal Tekkes, frequenting the oases at the foot of the Kuren-Dagh; the remainder, about 100,000, have their seat to the east, at present in Merv. Of Khiva the area is given as 57,800 square kilometres, and the population 700,000. The total number of people of the Turkoman stock in Central Asia is given as 1,100,000. Bo-

khara, with the adjacent districts of Karategin, Shignan, Roshan, etc., which the English-Russian treaty about the northern frontier of Afghanistan recognized as subject to Bokhara, has an area of 239,000 square kilometres, and a population of 2,130,000.

The total area of Arabia is given at 3,156,600 square kilometres, and the population 5,000,000; of this, 2,507,390 square kilometres, with a population of 3,700,000, are still independent of Turkey.

On the basis of new estimates for one or two districts of Persia, the area of this country is now set down as 1,647,070 square kilometres, with a population of 7,000,000. The district of Khotoor, ceded to Persia by Turkey, in virtue of the Berlin Treaty of 1878, has an area of 1,125 square kilometres, and a population of 8,000.

As the Afghan-English Treaty of Gundamak, of May 28, 1879, which placed the districts of Kuram, Pisheen, and Sibi under the protection and the administration of the British Government, was annulled by the subsequent hostilities, and a new agreement had not been made up to February, 1880, Behm and Wagner continue to set down the area of Afghanistan as 721,664 kilometres, and the population as 4,000,000. At the same time they give the detailed lists of the various tribes and stocks published by A. H. Keane in "Nature" (January 22, 1880), as the result of careful and independent research, and yielding as the estimate of population the much higher figure of 6,145,000, which may be still further increased by a more accurate knowledge of the country. (See AFGHANISTAN.) Kafiristan has an area of 51,687 square kilometres, and a population of 1,000,000, and Beloochistan 276,515 square kilometres, and 350,000 inhabitants.

China with all its dependencies has an area of 11,813,750 square kilometres, and a population of 434,626,500. The latter figure is, however, very uncertain; some authorities maintaining that it is much too high, and others much too low. Hong-Kong had (1876) an area of 83 square kilometres, and a population of 139,144 inhabitants; Macao (1879), 11.75 square kilometres and 77,230 inhabitants. Japan, according to official statistics of 1878, had an area of 379,711 kilometres, and a population of 34,338,504.

The total area of the immediate British possessions in India, including British Burmah, is given as 2,329,201 square kilometres (=899,341 square miles), and of tributary states as 1,444,922 square kilometres (=577,903 square miles); population of the former, 191,095,445, of the latter, 49,203,053; total British possessions, 240,298,500. The French possessions in India have an area of 508½ square kilometres, and a population (1877) of 280,381; the Portuguese, an area of 3,855 square kilometres, and a population in 1877 of 444,957. Ceylon has an area of 24,702 square miles, and a population in 1877 of 2,755,557.

* For a fuller reference to this periodical, which has now become the great fountain from which all statistical works are supplied, see article EARTH in the present volume of the "Annual Cyclopædia."

† One square kilometre = 0.386 English square mile.

The following table shows the areas and populations of the various subdivisions of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, according to the latest attainable data of any value :

SUBDIVISIONS.	Area in sq. kilometres.	Population.
British Burmah.....	229,851	2,747,148
Manipur (British).....	19,675	126,000
Tribes east and south of Assam (independent).....	65,500	200,000
Independent Burmah.....	457,000	4,000,000
Siam.....	726,850	5,750,000
Anam.....	440,500	21,000,000
French Cochin-China.....	59,457	1,006,000
Cambodia.....	88,561	800,000
Independent Malacca.....	81,500	800,000
Straits Settlements.....	3,472	350,000
Total.....	2,167,440	36,968,000

The East India Islands are subdivided thus :

ISLANDS.	Sq. kilometres.	Population.
Andaman Islands.....	6,497	14,500
Nicobar.....	772	5,500
Sunda Islands and Moluccas.....	1,698,757	27,848,000
Philippine Islands.....	299,585	7,450,000
Total.....	2,002,611	34,818,000

The following table exhibits estimates of the population connected with the Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Eastern Churches :

COUNTRIES.	Total Population.	CHURCHES.		
		Roman Catholic.	Protestant.	Eastern.
Russia.....	13,471,000	51,000	14,000	5,941,000
Turkey.....	16,170,000	260,000	25,000	3,000,000
Persia.....	7,000,000	10,000	3,000	50,000
China *.....	435,000,000	488,000	50,000	5,000
Japan.....	34,838,000	21,000	4,000	6,000
Anam.....	21,000,000	480,000
Burmah.....	4,000,000	5,000
Siam.....	5,750,000	25,000	2,000
British possessions †.....	248,508,000	1,264,000	2,600,000	400,000
French ".....	2,770,000	300,000
Spanish ".....	6,300,000	5,501,000
Portuguese ".....	822,000	850,000
Dutch ".....	26,745,000	80,000	170,000
Other countries.....	17,443,000
Total.....	834,707,000	8,829,000	2,868,000	9,402,000

The number of Mohammedans in Asia is about 115,144,000. (See MOHAMMEDANISM.) According to recent works on Japan, the Shinto religion, although it is recognized as the state religion of Japan, has no more than from 100,000 to 200,000 professed adherents, the rest being Buddhists or nothing. (See JAPAN.)

In Afghanistan, the British held, at the beginning of the year, Candahar, Cabool, which they had reconquered from the Afghan insurrectionists, and the districts bordering on India with their passes. Mohammed Jan had been driven from the positions he had taken before

Cabool, and had retired with the Prince Moosa Khan to Gluznee, and was endeavoring to excite the tribes to a new rising. Ayoub Khan was at Herat with a considerable force, which he was preparing to lead against the British. He assumed the offensive during the summer, and inflicted a serious defeat upon General Burrows at Kushk-i-Nakhub, on the 27th of July. He then laid siege to Candahar, but was routed on the 1st of September by General Roberts, who had marched from Cabool to the relief of the garrison, and was compelled to retire to Herat, while his troops were scattered. Abdurrahman, the nephew of Shere Ali, was installed Ameer of Cabool on the 22d of July. The British forces were withdrawn from Cabool during September; the garri-on at Candahar was strengthened, with the intention of holding the city for the present; and the Kuram Valley was evacuated and left in the possession of the Turis under a British guarantee that their independence of the Ameer of Cabool should be maintained. (See AFGHANISTAN.)

The progress of events in Afghanistan, and matters connected with them, constituted the most important objects of attention in India. The estimates for the expenditures on account of the war, which were published at the beginning of the year, gave promise that the cost would be light, and encouraged the belief that the viceroyalty would be able to sustain it without calling upon the British Government for help. This expectation was afterward disappointed by the production of other items of expense, and new estimates which showed that the cost of the war would be one hundred and fifty per cent. more than that which had first been given, and very far beyond the ability of India to sustain. Upon the occurrence of a change in the British Government, Lord Lytton was recalled from the office of Viceroy, and the Marquis of Ripon was appointed in his place. Apprehensions were entertained for a time that the new Government might abruptly enter upon a policy of administration, particularly with reference to Afghanistan, so different from that which had been pursued by the previous Government, as, by a too sudden change, to bring disaster upon interests and enterprises which had been adapted to the old policy. The measures of the new Government were taken, however, with such carefulness and deliberation as to assure the country that these fears had no solid foundation. A land-slide which occurred at the summer resort Naini Tal, on the 18th of September, caused the death of several officers of the Government of Bengal, and of other persons of high standing in Indian society. (See INDIA.)

A Russian expedition was dispatched against the Tekke Turkomans to chastise them for the depredations and incursions of which they had been guilty. It was said before the expedition started that it would not occupy Merv, for the

* Including dependencies.

† Including native states under British protectorate, and Cyprus. The population set down as Protestant is based upon an estimate made by Protestant missionaries of the native population under the control and direct influence of the Protestant churches.

‡ Including Cambodia.

Russian Government was desirous to avoid such an occupation, lest it should provoke a counter-occupation of Herat by the British. It was intended to be conducted on a reduced scale during two years, and the operations of the first year were to be confined to establishing outposts, lines of communication, etc. The expedition started at the beginning of the summer, under the command of General Skobeleff, pushed on beyond Geok Tepe, against which a detachment from it made a reconnaissance, to a point between that place and Merv, where it made preparations to spend the winter. Another Russian expedition, under Colonel Prjevalsky, of a scientific and topographical character, had penetrated into Thibet, when its further progress was stopped by the order of the Thibetan Government. The expedition was obliged to retrace its steps, and was traveling along the Yellow River, with the intention of returning to Siberia, when the members of the party were arrested by the Chinese. They were afterward set at liberty, and permitted to continue the exploration of the Yellow River, but intended to return to Kiakha before the end of the season. (See RUSSIA.)

The Chinese Government has exerted great strength, and has persistently followed the policy of reasserting its claims to equality of consideration with any other power, and to the recovery of whatever territory has been wrested from it. The arrangement made with Russia in the previous year for the delivery of Kulja was not satisfactory to the Government. The envoy who negotiated the treaty was degraded for his failure to secure better terms, and the demand for a revision of the treaty was pressed upon Russia with such energy that war was regarded as imminent during nearly the whole year. The claims of China to the paramount sovereignty of the Loochoo Islands were vigorously pressed against Japan. The Government has given notice to Portugal of its intention to resume the occupation of the promontory of Macao. (See CHINA.)

Japan has made a considerable advance in the exploitation of its mines and the development of its manufacturing interests. The Government continues to make great efforts for promoting the education of the entire people. Important reform movements are going on among the Buddhists of the country. (See JAPAN.)

English influence has become ascendant in Persia. Negotiations have been reported to be in progress between the British and Persian Governments, for a treaty, under which Persia should be permitted to acquire and hold Herat, in consideration of its granting to British companies certain privileges of navigation in its waters, and of the construction of roads in its territory. A portion of the country suffered severely from famine; and the Kurds rose in the fall, and, joined by the Turkish Kurds,

made extensive depredations, pillaging and destroying numerous villages, of which they killed most of the inhabitants. (See PERSIA.)

Burmah has been in an unsettled condition, on account of the discontent and hostility which the capricious conduct of King Theebaw has aroused. An embassy dispatched by the King for the purpose of bringing about a resumption of diplomatic relations with the British Government, received no encouragement; but, after having remained for several months at Thayetmayo awaiting a recognition which the British agent refused to give it, was obliged to return without having accomplished its mission. The kingdom was disturbed by an insurrection in behalf of the Nyoungoke Prince; but the insurrection was put down, and the Prince fled into British territory, where he was arrested. The King claimed an indemnity of the British, because the Prince had entered Burmah from British territory, and in October sent troops to the frontier. (See BURMAH.)

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS. *Solar Parallax from the Velocity of Light.*—The most trustworthy method of finding the sun's horizontal parallax is now believed, with good reason, to be that based on the experimental determination of the velocity of light. The "American Journal of Science" for January, 1880, contains a paper on this subject by Mr. D. P. Todd, M. A., assistant in the Nautical Almanac Office, Washington, D. C. The latest determination of the velocity of light is that of Mr. A. A. Michelson, of the United States Navy; viz., 186,360 miles per second. Hence the mean horizontal parallax of the sun is found to be $8''.808''$. The corresponding distance of the sun from the earth is 92,800,000 miles.

Sun-Spots.—The quiescence of the sun's surface during the spot minimum of 1878-'79 was extraordinary and long continued. We have now entered, however, on another period of activity. In 1880, especially toward its close, the spots were quite numerous. In accordance with the theory of a connection between auroral phenomena and the variation in the number of sun-spots, the former have been found to be likewise increasing. It is worthy of notice that the period between the last two spot minima was not only greater than that immediately preceding, but greater also than the average length.

Ellipticity of Mars.—The "American Journal of Science" for March, 1880, contains a paper on the "Ellipticity of Mars," by Professor C. A. Young, of Princeton, New Jersey. After remarking that the polar flattening of Mars had never been satisfactorily determined, and specifying the results obtained by different observers, Professor Young continues:

Either of these values is apparently irreconcilable with the planet's known mass and period of rotation if we admit the presence of water upon its surface, as the polar "snow-caps" seem to indicate, except upon

the almost absurd assumption of a density rapidly increasing from the center toward the surface.

It has seemed to the writer quite possible that the difference of illumination of the limbs of the planet, caused by phase, may lie at the bottom of the difficulty. Except on rare occasions there is phase enough, even at the moment of opposition, to produce a notable difference of appearance between the fully illuminated edge of the planet's disk and that opposite, a difference which can hardly fail to be felt in microscopic measurements. Unexceptionable observations for determining the polar compression can therefore be made only when the planet reaches opposition and its node together. This was so nearly the case last season that, on the night of November 12th, an observer on the planet would have witnessed a transit of the earth. At this time, and for a few days before and after, the phase was extremely small, and an opportunity was presented for determining the planet's ellipticity such as will not be available again for nearly half a century.

An elaborate discussion of Professor Young's observations gives, as a final result of the work detailed, an ellipticity of $\frac{1}{219}$. In other words, the polar diameter is to the equatorial in the ratio of 218 to 219. This agrees very closely with Professor J. C. Adams's recent estimate of the compression ($\frac{1}{228}$) which the planet ought to have if it follows the same law as the earth in the variation of its density. The ellipticity assigned by Professor Young is considerably greater, it will be observed, than that of the earth.

Minor Planets.—Since the date of our last report, nine minor planets have been added to the cluster between Mars and Jupiter, making the present number 219. The dates of discovery, names of discoverers, periods and mean distances, are as follows:

NUMBER.	When, and by whom discovered.	Mean distances.	Periods in days.
211.....	1879, December 10, Palisa...	8.0524	1,948
212.....	1880, February 6, Palisa....	8.1164	2,009
213.....	1880, February 19, Peters....	2.7455	1,662
214.....	1880, March 1, Palisa.....	2.6111	1,541
215.....	1880, April 7, Knorre.....	2.7680	1,682
216.....	1880, April 10, Palisa.....	2.7941	1,706
217.....	1880, August 30, Coggia.....
218.....	1880, September 4, Palisa....	2.7010	1,622
219.....	1880, September 30, Palisa..	2.3820	1,342

No. 216 has the greatest eccentricity (0.29) of those discovered during the year, and the last in the catalogue the greatest apparent magnitude.

The 219 minor planets now known have been detected by thirty-five discoverers. First in this list is Dr. C. H. F. Peters, Director of the Observatory of Hamilton College, at Clinton, New York, who has discovered forty-one—nearly one fifth of the whole number. The next is Professor Palisa, of Pola, now credited with twenty-seven. This successful observer discovered five of those announced in 1880. The third is the lamented James C. Watson, late Director of the Observatory at Ann Arbor, Michigan, who detected twenty-two. Of the whole number, seventy have been discovered by American astronomers.

Jupiter's Period of Rotation.—In the monthly notices of the Royal Astronomical Society

for January, 1880, H. Pratt, Esq., of England, discusses a series of observations of the great red spot of Jupiter. These observations were continued from July 26 to December 6, 1879, including 321 rotations of the planet. Mr. Pratt's resulting period of rotation is $9^h 55^m 33.91^s$. This exceeds the period found by the Astronomer Royal in 1835 by 12.91^s . A series of observations by T. D. Brewin, Esq., covering a period of 437 rotations, gave $9^h 55^m 34.1^s$ —exceeding the value found by Mr. Pratt by only 0.19^s .

Evidence that the Light of Jupiter is partly intrinsic.—Among the papers read at the meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society, on May 14, 1880, was one of great value, by Dr. Henry Draper, of New York. For several years it has been held, by Mr. Proctor and others, that Jupiter's light is not wholly reflected. The facts now obtained by spectroscopic investigation seem clearly to indicate, as Dr. Draper remarks, that "Jupiter is still hot enough to give out light, though perhaps only in a periodic or eruptive manner." It is proper to remark, however, that in the discussion which followed the reading of Dr. Draper's paper, some doubt was expressed in regard to his conclusions. The question can not be regarded as definitively settled without further investigation.

Jupiter's Red Spot.—Observations of Jupiter's great red spot in 1879 and 1880 indicate but little change in its appearance between the last two oppositions of the planet.

Probable Existence of Ultra-Neptunian Planets.—In February, 1880, Professor George Forbes, of the University of Glasgow, read a memoir before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, designed "first, to show reasons for a belief in the existence of two planets, whose orbits are greater than that of Neptune; and, secondly, to indicate the probable positions of these planets."

The whole of this research is founded upon the theory of the introduction of comets as permanent members of the solar system, which is now generally held. According to this theory, comets are bodies of size, composition, and character, which we need not at present discuss, but which move through interstellar space subject to the laws of gravitation. Every time that such a comet becomes sensibly attracted by any star, such as we have reason to suppose our sun to be, it is attracted toward it, and tends to describe about it an orbit sensibly parabolic.

Let us call the distance of the Earth from the sun one Earth's radius. The orbits of comets thus attracted into the sun's neighborhood, though on the numerical average parabolic, may have their orbits transformed, by planetary perturbation, either into ellipses or hyperbolas. If the comet approach a planet in such a manner that its velocity is increased, it then will describe an hyperbolic orbit in future, and will never again return to the sun. But if the action of the planet be such as to reduce the velocity of the comet, it will then for the future revolve in an elliptic orbit round the sun, which may have its elements altered by planetary perturbations, and may eventually be actually in this way driven out of the solar system altogether, but which, in default of these accidental occurrences, must become a permanent member of the solar system.

It has long been known that the aphelion-distances of comets are grouped in classes at definite distances from the sun. Thus we know that there is a large group of comets whose aphelion-distance is about the same as the distance of Jupiter from the sun. Jupiter's distance is 5 Earth's radii, and there are eleven periodic comets whose aphelion-distance is between 4 and 6 Earth's radii. Neptune's distance is 30 Earth's radii, and there are six comets whose aphelion-distances vary from 32 to 35 Earth's radii.

On tabulating the aphelion-distances of all the known elliptic orbits of comets, it was found that in no case was there any grouping of aphelion comet distances which did not agree with the distances of planets, except that beyond the distance of Neptune there were two groupings of comet aphelion-distances, one at 100 Earth's radii, the other at 300 Earth's radii approximately.

Taking Professor H. A. Newton's theory with respect to the introduction of comets into the solar system, it would follow that the disturbing planet must, at the time when the comet was so introduced, have been somewhere near the position of the comet's aphelion. Two hypotheses then present themselves: 1. We may suppose that the planet must have been extremely close to the comet when it introduced it, in which case it would be necessary to prove that the aphelion-positions of a fair proportion of these comets lie in one plane which passes through the sun. In this case we could determine the date when the planet was in some definite positions, and so might predict its present position; 2. We may suppose that the planet revolved in some orbit close to the ecliptic, and assume that it attracted the comet into the solar system, when it was most near to the comet's aphelion-position.

The details of Professor Forbes's interesting researches can not here be given.* He assumes that the comets 1840 IV, 1846 VII, 1861 I, and 1861 II, were introduced by a planet whose distance is about one hundred times that of the earth, and whose period is about one thousand years. The estimated position of the planet in 1880 is in longitude 174° , and north polar distance 87° . Some attempt has also been made to determine the position of the more remote planet, but no satisfactory result has yet been attained. If the bodies really exist, their apparent magnitudes are doubtless very small.

Comets.—On the evening of February 2, 1880, Dr. B. A. Gould, Director of the Observatory at Cordoba, South America, noticed a bright stream of light rising from a point beneath the western horizon. As was supposed when first observed, this luminous beam soon proved to be the tail of a very large comet. From observations at Cordoba, the Cape of Good Hope, and other points in the southern hemisphere, the elements of the orbit were calculated by Dr. Gould, Mr. Hind, and others, with the remarkable result that the comet had actually passed through the sun's atmosphere; the nucleus, in perihelion, having been less than 100,000 miles from the solar surface. It was found, moreover, that the orbit coincided so closely with that of the great comet of 1843 as to render it nearly certain that the bodies were identical.

The second comet of the year was discov-

ered, on the 6th of April, by Mr. J. M. Schärberle, Assistant Astronomer at the Ann Arbor Observatory. It passed its perihelion on the 1st of July, at a distance from the sun considerably greater than that of Mars in aphelion.

The comet of Faye, whose period is seven years and five months, was detected by Mr. Common, of England, on the 2d of August. This is its fifth return to perihelion since its discovery, in 1843.

A comet was discovered by Dr. Lewis Swift, at Rochester, New York, on the night of August 11th. The body, however, on account of cloudy weather for several nights following, was not reobserved, and consequently its orbit is wholly unknown.

The fifth comet of 1880 was discovered by Dr. Hartwig, of the Strasburg Observatory, on the 29th of September. It was barely visible to the naked eye, and had a tail two degrees long. It was discovered independently on the following night at Ann Arbor, Mich., by Professor Harrington, and on the 3d of October by Mr. Baxendell, of Southport, England. Professor Winnecke, of Strasburg, having discussed the observations of this body and compared them with those of former comets, thinks it probably identical with the comets of 1382, 1444, 1506, and 1569. The period deduced is sixty-two and one third years. It is regarded, however, as not wholly improbable that this may be a multiple of the true period. The orbit approaches very near to that of Mercury, and Dr. Winnecke thinks it possible that the former may owe its elliptic form to Mercury's disturbing influence. The elements are as follows:

Perihelion passage.....	September 6, 1880.
Longitude of perihelion.....	$88^\circ 33' 25''$ } Mean equinox, 1850.
Longitude of ascending node....	$44^\circ 33' 30''$ }
Inclination.....	$38^\circ 8'$ } 38,856
Eccentricity.....	0.9777
Semi-axis major.....	15.72
Mean daily motion.....	$56^\circ 93'$

Another comet was detected by Dr. Swift on the night of October 10th. Its apparent diameter was three or four minutes, but the disk was ill defined and irregular in outline. From the first available observations the elements of its orbit were computed by Mr. Seth C. Chandler, Jr., of Boston, Massachusetts. These elements so closely resemble those of the third comet of 1869 that the identity of the bodies can scarcely be doubted. The probable period is, therefore, either eleven or five and one half years. The same comet was independently discovered by Mr. Lohse at Dunecht Observatory, England, November 7th.

Meteors.—The shower of meteors radiating from Quadrans, and hence termed Quadrantids, was observed, in 1880, by Mr. E. F. Sawyer, at Cambridgeport, Massachusetts. Between seven and eight o'clock on the evening of January 2d, Mr. Sawyer recorded six meteors of this well-known group. The radiant was in right ascension 227° , declination 48° north. The meteors were bright, and their motions rather slow.

* They may be found in Christie's "Observatory" for June, 1880.

The Shower of November 14th.—Professor D. E. Hunter gives the following results of his watch for meteors at the Leonid epoch in 1880, at Washington, Davies County, Indiana: The morning of November 13th was cloudy, and on the 15th the moonlight interfered with observations till daylight. On the morning of the 14th, watch was kept for two hours, from 3^h 45^m to 5^h 45^m by Professor Hunter and three assistants. One hundred and sixteen meteors were seen, of which ninety-one were Leonids. During the first hour, before the moon had set, but fifteen meteors of the November shower were seen; but in the second hour (the moon being absent) seventy-six were observed, and of these fifty-one were counted in the last thirty minutes. The length of the tracks varied from 2° to 40°, the average being about 6° or 7°.

Fire-balls.—Many large meteors or fire-balls were seen during the year, of which the following are some of the principal: A meteor "of immense size" was seen at Welling, in Kent, England, at 5^h 20^m, p. m., January 3d. On January 19th, at 7^h 20^m, p. m., Dr. L. Waldo saw at New Haven a fine double meteor. It was first observed very near Capella, and it moved toward Theta in Ursa Major, the track being parallel to the line joining Beta and Gamma in that constellation. The distance between the meteors was about 1° 30'.

On April 12th, at 9^h 42^m, Professor F. P. Denza, at Moncalieri, saw a fine meteoric fire-ball with a path from right ascension 30°, declination 62° north, to right ascension 29°, declination 45° north, leaving a long streak, and moving slowly. ("Observatory" for June, 1880.)

A large fire-ball, whose light was nearly equal to that of the full moon, was seen by Professor E. W. Claypole, of Antioch College, Ohio, June 10th, at ten minutes after nine o'clock, p. m. It was first seen very near Benetnasch, "and disappeared behind a cloud on its way to the west-northwest point of the horizon. It was visible about two seconds, and left no sparks behind."

Several daylight meteors have been seen during the year. In "Nature," for July 1st, Mr. W. Odell, of Coventry, England, states that on June 11th, shortly before sunset, he saw, due east of his position, a bright white meteor moving toward the north with a path slightly inclined to the horizon. The length of its track was 10° or 12°. A fire-ball half the apparent size of the moon was seen in daylight on the afternoon of July 9th, by the Rev. Lloyd Jones, one mile east of Greenwich, England. According to the Indianapolis "Daily Journal," of November 23d, a large meteor was seen by several persons at Bloomington, Ind., about 4^h 30^m—shortly before sunset—on the evening of November 18th. It was first observed at a point nearly northwest at an altitude of 30° or 35°. Its motion was approximately parallel to the horizon, and its

explosion occurred at a point very nearly north. Its apparent magnitude was one half that of the moon. No sound was heard to follow the explosion. The same meteor was seen by many persons at Washington, Ind., fifty miles southwest of Bloomington.

New Stars, or hitherto Undiscovered Variables.—The "Observatory" for June, 1880, contains a letter from Mr. Joseph Baxendell, of Southport, England, announcing the discovery of two stars, which he regards as either new or as long-period variables, whose cycles of change have not been determined. The first is in Gemini, and was discovered January 28th. The second is in Boötes, and was first seen on the night of March 12th.

The Variable R Hydra.—Dr. Gould, Director of the Cordoba Observatory, South America, has lately discussed the recorded observations of this interesting variable, dating back to 1662. The variability was discovered by Maraldi, at Paris, in 1704. The assigned period was four hundred and thirty-six days, and the range of variation was from the fourth to the tenth magnitude. Dr. Gould's discussion has led to a significant and important discovery, viz., that the period of variation is rapidly decreasing. This decrease, according to Dr. Gould, amounts to more than nine hours in each period.

New Double Stars.—The monthly notice of the Royal Astronomical Society for December, 1879, has a communication from S. W. Burnham, Esq., of Chicago, giving an account of his discoveries of double stars since the publication of his last catalogue. Beta Scorpii has long been known as a wide double, but now Mr. Burnham announces the duplicity of the principal component. The star is therefore triple, and the members in all probability constitute a physical system. 48 Virginis, seen as a single star by all former observers, was found to be a very close pair, the members being each of the sixth magnitude. 86 Virginis had been known as double, but the Chicago telescope has separated each of the components. The four stars taken together form the closest quadruple system known. They are of the sixth, tenth, eleventh, and thirteenth magnitudes, respectively. 550 Virginis is a double star, which Schmidt, in 1866, discovered to be variable. Mr. Burnham has detected a distant companion, of the twelfth or thirteenth magnitude, forming with the old components a triple system.

The Warner Observatory.—Through the liberality of Mr. H. H. Warner, a new astronomical observatory has just been built at Rochester, New York. It is to be supplied with a telescope having an object-glass sixteen inches in diameter, and a focal length of twenty-two feet. The observatory will be placed in charge of Dr. Lewis Swift, a gentleman already distinguished by his discovery of comets.

The Lick Observatory.—Perhaps no enterprise of our time gives brighter promise of

optical discovery than the projected observatory on Mount Hamilton, California. The site of the observatory was originally suggested by Professor Edward S. Holden in 1874, and the recommendation was subsequently concurred in by Professor Newcomb. In order to test the fitness of the location, the trustees of the "James Lick Trust" authorized Mr. S. W. Burnham, of Chicago, an experienced and skillful observer, to fit up a temporary observatory on Mount Hamilton, to be used as long as might be necessary for the purpose. The results of the experiment are embodied in Mr. Burnham's report, presented to the Board of Trustees in the summer of 1880.

The latitude of the Observatory Peak is 37° 21' 3" north; longitude, 121° 36' 40" west. By the highway it is twenty-six miles (nearly east) from San José; by an air-line, only thirteen. The elevation is 4,250 feet above the level of the sea. "The sides of the mountain, in most directions, are very steep, and form an acute angle at the summit. The view from the peaks is unobstructed in every direction, there being no higher ground within a radius of one hundred miles."

Mr. Burnham remained on Mount Hamilton from August 17th to October 16th, inclusive. The atmospheric and other conditions of the place were found eminently suited for the permanent location of the Lick Observatory. The trustees have accordingly announced that "the preliminary work on Mount Hamilton has already been commenced, and will be prosecuted as rapidly as possible under the circumstances. The smaller equatorial, of twelve inches' aperture, has been ordered of Alvan Clark and Sons, and will be placed in position early in 1881; and the great equatorial, meridian circle, and other instruments, will be contracted for at an early day."

AUSTRALIA AND POLYNESIA. I. GENERAL STATISTICS.—The area and population of the principal divisions of Australia and Polynesia are given as follows in the new volume of the "Bevölkerung der Erde" (sixth volume, Gotha, 1880):

DIVISIONS.	Kilometres.	Population.
Australia.....	7,696,598	2,178,568
New Zealand and adjacent islands....	272,989	477,344
New Guinea and islands.....	807,956	500,000
Oceanic Islands.....	176,184	879,850
Total.....	8,953,727	4,031,000

From careful estimates the area of New Guinea is set down by Behm and Wagner as 785,362 square kilometres (1 square kilometre = 0.386 English square mile) or, with the neighboring islands, 807,956 square kilometres, and the population at 500,000.

The four groups into which the Oceanic islands are divided have, according to the same authority, the following area and population:

GROUPS.	Area in square kilometres.	Population.
Melanesia.....	145,855	606,800
Polynesia.....	9,791	130,400
Sandwich Islands.....	17,003	58,000
Micronesia.....	3,580	84,650
Total.....	176,184	879,850

II. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.—The following table exhibits the population of the Australasian colonies of Great Britain according to the censuses taken in 1871 or 1870, and according to an official estimate in December, 1878:

COLONIES.	1871 or 1870.	1878.
New South Wales.....	501,580	693,748
Victoria.....	729,563	879,442
South Australia.....	183,995	248,795
Northern Territory.....		8,265
Queensland.....	120,066	210,510
Western Australia.....	24,735	28,166
Total Australia.....	1,565,294	2,063,921
Tasmania.....	99,328	109,947
New Zealand.....	294,028	432,323
Natives.....	Included in total.	100,000
Total of the Australasian colonies.....	1,958,650	2,706,191

On June 30, 1879, an official calculation estimated the population (exclusive of natives) in New South Wales at 712,019; in Victoria, at 887,434; in South Australia, at 255,148.

The new census of New Zealand reveals the fact that the Maories are rapidly decreasing. In 1861 they were still estimated to number 55,336; now they have dwindled down to 43,595. The Registrar-General of New Zealand is not sanguine as to their recovery from their downward career, for, apart from their deficiency in moral qualities necessary to arrest the progress of decay, the history of aborigines invariably shows, in his opinion, an inability to graft the habits of civilization on native habits and customs. At the time when the colonists first landed it is believed their number was not less than 120,000. About fifty-seven schools are now in existence under Government auspices, at which there is an attendance of 1,799 children, in which the rudiments of knowledge are taught, and the girls are instructed in domestic duties. The number of natives in New South Wales was (in 1871) 983; in Victoria (1877), 1,067; in South Australia (1876), 3,953; in the other colonies no enumeration has taken place.

Some interesting information on Chinese immigration in the Australian colonies may be obtained from a report of the Colonial Government of Victoria. It appears from this report that in 1859 there were 46,000 Chinese residing in Victoria; but the number has greatly diminished during the last twenty years, and does not now exceed 13,000. As far as can be ascertained, the number of Chinese in Queensland is 14,524; in Victoria, about 13,000; in New South Wales, 9,500; New Zealand, 4,433; South Australia and Port Darwin, 2,000; Tas-

mania, 750; making a total of 44,207, being nearly 2,000 less than in Victoria alone twenty years ago. The Chinese dwelling in the city of Melbourne are about 500, and in its suburbs 380. Of these, not more than sixty-six can be fairly considered to compete in the labor market with Europeans, and these are employed as waiters and domestic servants. All the rest obtain their livelihood as gardeners, as hucksters, or by employments with which a European would not dream of occupying himself.

The Queensland Government has passed an act authorizing the construction of the Transcontinental Railway, which shall connect the northern with the southern shores of the island continent, and bring the colonies within thirty days of England. A syndicate has already agreed to perform the work, on the condition of receiving, among certain other privileges, an area of 8,000 acres of land for each mile of railway constructed. The railway extending from Brisbane in a northwesterly direction to Roma, a distance of 317 miles, was completed in the course of 1880, and from this point to the nearest part of the Gulf of Carpentaria on the north coast is, in a direct line, barely 850 miles. The line would almost touch on its way the important railway from Rockhampton to Emerald Town, also in Queensland, and the blanks to be filled up in the existing lines between Brisbane and Sydney are no greater than the links required to complete the chain between Adelaide and Sydney. If these latter are completed, there will be on the completion of the now projected line from Roma to the Gulf of Carpentaria, continuous railway communication between the northern and southern coasts of Australia, having the additional advantage of traversing the whole of the most settled districts, and connecting all the principal cities, except those in Western Australia.

The other English possessions in Australia, exclusive of some uninhabited islands, are:

Islands.	Population.
Feejee Islands,	112,272
Chatham Islands,	196
Lord Howe's Island,	25
Rotumah (annexed in 1880),	2,680
Fanning Island,	150
Malden "	79
Total,	115,402

The territory of Queensland was enlarged in 1879 by the annexation of some islands situated in Torres Strait. Letters patent dated October 10, 1878, for the rectification of the maritime boundary of the colony, provide that "all islands included within a line drawn from Sandy Cape northward to the southeastern limit of Great Barrier Reefs, thence following the line of the Great Barrier Reefs to their northeastern extremity near $9\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ south latitude, thence in a northwesterly direction, embracing East, Anchor, and Bramble Cays, thence from Bramble Cays in a line west by south (south 79° west, true), embracing Warrior Reef, Saibai, and Tuan Islands, thence di-

verging in a northwesterly direction, so as to embrace the group known as the Talbot Islands, thence to and embracing the Deliverance Islands, and onward in a west-by-south direction (true) to 138° east longitude, should be annexed to and form part of the colony of Queensland." The law authorizing this annexation came into operation on August 1, 1879.

The "Melbourne Argus" estimates the yield of gold in the colony of Victoria in the year 1879 at a little over 715,000 ounces, being nearly 39,000 ounces less than in 1878, and being also less than half the quantity obtained in 1868. The "Argus" adds: "It is well known that the yields of gold during the latter half of 1879 were much superior to those of the first half, and, if mining should continue as healthy during 1880 as it has recently been, it is probable that the yield for it will exceed that of the year just closed." The amount of gold coin issued from the Melbourne mint in 1879 was 703,709 ounces, the value of which was £2,740,000. The discovery of the Temora gold-field near Sydney in 1880 created great excitement in Australia.

Victoria.—The Parliament of Victoria adjourned on December 20, 1879. As the Parliament had refused to pass the Reform Bill, which embodied a scheme for the introduction of the *plébiscite* and the substitution of a Council nominated by the Ministry of the day for an elective Upper Chamber, the Ministry proposed to the Governor to dissolve Parliament. The request was acceded to, and new elections took place in February, which placed the Ministry in a minority of twelve in the Legislative Assembly. Accordingly, the Hon. Graham Berry and the members of his Cabinet tendered their resignations. The Governor accepted the resignations, and formed a new Cabinet, which was composed as follows: Colonial Treasurer, Mr. James Service; Chief Secretary and Minister of Public Instruction, Mr. Robert Ramsay; Attorney-General, Mr. George Kerferd; Minister of Lands, the Hon. J. G. Duffy; Postmaster-General and Commissioner of Trade and Customs, Mr. Henry Cuthbert; Commissioner of Railways and Roads, Mr. Duncan Gillies; Commissioner of Public Works, Mr. Thomas Bent; Minister of Mines, Mr. Clark. The new Premier, Mr. James Service, in an address to his constituents on March 10th, explained the programme of his Cabinet. It was proposed to empower the Legislative Council to expunge items involving questions of public policy from the Appropriation Act, and to deal with them in a separate bill. The ministerial programme further announced bills regarding irrigation and mining on private property. The railways would be placed under the control of a commission or board. Reforms would be proposed in the civil service in the direction of reducing the salaries of all classes of public officials, such reduction, however, only to apply to those appointed subsequently to the passing of the bill. Pensions would be totally abolished in the case

of civilians, who would be required to insure their lives. Government officials would be prohibited from taking any part in politics. The Government, while endeavoring to relieve the farmers and miners, did not propose to make any change in the policy of protection, neither would it interfere with the present system of education. All the members of the new Cabinet were reelected unopposed. The new Parliament was opened on May 12th by the Governor, the Marquis of Normanby, who referred to the question of the construction of colonial defenses, and stated that commissioners had been appointed to report on the subject. After dwelling on the necessity of irrigation works and an extension of the railway system, the Governor said that the depression in trade was passing away and confidence was being restored. Bills would be introduced for a reform of the Constitution, and the settlement of land; and a scheme of reforms relative to railway management and the civil service would also be submitted to Parliament. The Reform Bill was soon after introduced. It provided in the first place for the introduction of the so-called "Norwegian system." When any bill has been passed by the Assembly and rejected by the Council in two consecutive sessions, the Governor, according to Mr. Service's plan, will have power to dissolve both Houses at the same time; if, after the elections, the Assembly and the Council continue to differ, the Governor may summon them to meet as a single legislative body for the purpose of discussing and deciding upon the contested matter, an absolute majority of the whole number of members being required for the enactment of the bill in dispute. As the Assembly is composed of eighty-six members and the Council of thirty—to be increased gradually to forty-two—these provisions insure the ultimate victory of the popular branch of the Legislature, when the preponderant opinion in favor of any measure is unmistakable. Mr. Service's Reform Bill dealt also with the constitution of the Council, providing for an addition to the numbers of that body and a very large reduction in the qualifications of members and of electors. With respect to the Appropriation Bill and to the practice of "tacking," Mr. Service proposed that the Council should in no case be allowed to throw out the bill, as has more than once been done, to the injury of the whole community, but that where two thirds of the Council decide that any particular vote is not "a grant of money for the ordinary service of the year," the Assembly shall be bound to deal with the matter in question by a separate bill. Although at the last general election the constituencies had emphatically refused to give any support to Mr. Berry's policy, the new Assembly rejected the only alternative scheme which was before the colony, and upon which the Ministry of Mr. Service had staked their political credit. Early in June the second reading of the bill was thrown out by forty-three

votes against forty-one, which clearly showed that Mr. Berry in his attacks upon the Government was joined by six or seven members who had been elected as his opponents. The debate on the address showed that the nominal majority for Ministers, or rather against Mr. Berry, was weakened from the beginning by internal jealousies. The "Corner party," consisting of Independent Liberals who had parted company with Mr. Berry, were dissatisfied at the composition of the Cabinet, in which doubtless they supposed they had themselves a claim to be considered. Irritation on the same ground was more openly expressed by Sir John O'Shannassy, the leader of the Roman Catholics, who stoutly asserted the right of his following to a share in the distribution of official places, and condemned the absence in the ministerial programme of any concession to the Roman Catholic demands for separate educational grants. In compliance with Mr. Service's proposal, the Governor dissolved the Parliament. New elections took place on July 14th, when forty-four opposition candidates were elected and only thirty-five ministerialists. Besides, there were seven members who declared themselves neutral. The Catholic vote was cast against Mr. Service, and the leaders of the party declared that they would not support any government until the country would consent to make separate educational provision in the public schools for Catholic children. The defeated Service Government resolved to meet the House and encounter a deliberate vote of want of confidence. The new Assembly was opened on July 22d. In his opening speech the Governor, after alluding to the deficit in the revenue for the year, expressed a hope that Parliament would pass a satisfactory measure for the reform of the Constitution. Mr. Berry subsequently moved a vote of want of confidence in the Cabinet of Mr. Service, which was passed by forty-eight to thirty-five votes. In consequence of this, the Cabinet resigned, and Mr. Berry, after failing in an attempt to form a coalition Ministry, formed a Cabinet entirely constituted of men of his own party. The following are the members of his Cabinet: Chief Secretary and Colonial Treasurer, Mr. Berry; Attorney-General, Mr. Vale; Minister of Lands, Mr. Richardson; Minister of Public Instruction, Mr. W. C. Smith; Commissioner of Railways and Roads, Mr. Patterson; Minister of Mines, Mr. Langridge; Commissioner of Trade and Customs, Mr. Williams; Minister of Justice, Mr. A. T. Clark.

The Melbourne International Exhibition was formally opened on Friday, October 1st, by the Governor of Victoria, the Marquis of Normanby, in the presence of the Duke of Manchester and the Governors of South Australia, New South Wales, and Western Australia. The Marquis of Normanby, in reply to an address, said the undertaking had been carried out in a most creditable manner, and that the display was one of which any country might be proud.

The day was observed in Melbourne as a public holiday. A dispatch from Sir Herbert Sandford, the official representative of the Royal Commission for the Australian Exhibition, stated that the exhibition had opened most successfully, nearly all the courts being very complete, especially the British court, thanks to the exertions of the exhibitors and of the Great Britain committee, who respectfully desire to congratulate his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and her Majesty's commissioners on the splendid display of British fine arts and manufactures.

New South Wales.—The Governor's speech, in proroguing Parliament in August, 1880, refers to some signs of progress. Among the most important acts passed by the Legislature is the act to amend the Land Acts of 1861 and 1875, the aim of which is to afford additional facilities and securities for industrial settlement upon the soil; the Public Instruction Act, for carrying out a system of primary instruction, open alike to all classes and all creeds, and which provides the means for improving the methods of teaching to the highest degree, and places the teacher within reach of the remotest child in the land; the Electoral Act, which reduces the anomalies in the representation to a principle of virtual equality, and enlarges the representative branch of the Legislature. As regards the material progress of the colony, it is stated that during the current year two hundred and twenty-three miles of new railway lines will be opened to the public, while provision is made for new extensions, which will when completed add more than a thousand miles to the railway system of the colony. The revenue from the working railways is steadily increasing, and at the present time is fifty thousand pounds in advance of that for the corresponding period of 1879. Other large public works have been completed or are in course of construction, including the fortification of the harbors of Sydney and Newcastle, lighthouses on various parts of the coast, Government offices and public buildings. It is confidently expected that the International Exhibition of Art and Industrial skill recently closed at Sydney will have given a stimulus to enterprise and invention, and amply justify the grants for its inauguration.

The International Exhibition at Sydney was closed in April. At the closing ceremonial the Governor, Ministers, Judges, both Houses of Parliament, and a vast concourse of the public attended. Seven thousand awards were declared officially, and an address and gold medal were presented to the Governor. The whole ceremony was very successful. Three cheers were given for the Queen, Governor, Lady Augustus Loftus, and the Executive Commission.

Queensland.—Parliament was opened in July. The Governor, in his speech on the occasion, referred to the return of the Premier, Mr. Mellwraith, from England, and the proposals

which he had submitted to the Home Government for the establishment of an improved mail service and the transport of immigrants *via* Suez and Torres Straits. The Governor proceeded to state that the last Queensland loan issued had been completely successful. The settlement of land, and especially for the cultivation of sugar, was increasing. The discovery of tin in the northern rivers showed that the settlement of the country was progressing very favorably. The revenue of the colony for the year showed an increase of £20,000. The financial statement of the Treasurer, which was submitted on the 18th of August, estimates the revenue at £1,700,000 and the expenditure at £1,670,000. The debit balance on June 30th was £190,000. The deficit is to be covered by transferring under the new statute to the consolidated revenue the receipts of the land department previously applied to railway construction. There is to be no increase of taxation except in the excise duties upon colonial spirits. The Treasurer considered that it would be unjust to augment the public burdens in order to push forward the construction of railways in the interior, when the sale of a portion of the land made accessible would suffice to pay interest on the capital required. British capitalists were offering to complete the railway system in consideration of a Government grant of land, and a bill to sanction that course would be introduced. The depressed state of trade was passing away, and there was a gradual increase of the revenue. Nothing was wanting for the restoration of the full prosperity of the colony but means for placing its surplus food and products within the reach of the British consumer. In the sitting on the 19th a vote of want of confidence in the Government on account of the budget was moved by the leader of the opposition, but was rejected by twenty-seven votes to eighteen.

New Zealand.—In July, Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor of New Zealand, delivered a speech, in which he condemned the New Zealand educational system as too expensive, too secular in character, and in advance of the requirements of the colony; also deprecated the absence of religious teaching in the public schools.

III. FRENCH POSSESSIONS.—Tahiti, or Otaheiti, with its adjacent islands, which hitherto had been under French protectorate, was on June 29, 1880, formally annexed to France. It is reported that the King, Pomaré V, accomplished the act of his own free will, that it was accepted by the commissary of the French Government, and hailed with enthusiasm by the Tahitian population. Pomaré V will retain the honorary title of King. He had been the nominal ruler of the islands since 1877, when he succeeded, as the nearest relation of royal blood, Queen Pomaré, who in 1842 signed the convention with the French Admiral Dupetit Thouars about the establishment of a French

protectorate over the islands. Up to 1846 a small portion of the natives struggled against this protectorate, but since the population have caused no embarrassment to France, and virtually it has been a French possession since that year.

Tahiti is about one hundred and eight miles in circumference and thirty-two miles long, and is described as an elongated range of highland, which, being interrupted in one part, forms an isthmus (submerged at low water) about three miles broad, which connects the two peninsulas. The larger of these is Tahiti proper, while the smaller is named Tairaboo, and both are surrounded by coral reefs. The highest summit in the island is a mountain in the northern part, 8,500 feet above sea-level; another attaining 6,979 feet. From these two peaks ridges diverge to all parts of the coast, throwing off spurs as they descend. The fertile portion of the island lies in the valleys, which are of small extent, and in the plain, which stretches from the seashore to the spurs of the mountains. These produce tropical plants in great abundance and luxuriance. The climate is agreeable, being warm, but not enervating. The natives are a good-humored, gay, happy, and cheerful people, and are further described as honest, well-behaved, and obliging. They have been converted to Christianity by the labors of missionaries, and there are few of them who can not both read and write. The island is divided into seven districts, and is the seat of a Supreme Court, consisting of seven Judges, two of whom reside in Eimeo. Several vessels of about one hundred and thirty tons burden have been built there, which have been employed in the trade to New South Wales, whither they carry sugar, cocoanut-oil, and arrow-root, the principal productions of the island, and whence they bring back in return hardware, cloths, calicoes, etc. Most of the vessels that visit Tahiti are whalers, though until lately they only averaged less than one hundred annually. Its principal town and port is Papiete, and its estimated population is somewhat over nine thousand.

The French now have the following possessions in Oceania:

POSSESSIONS.	Kilometres.	Population.
New Caledonia.....	17,080	41,694
Loyalty Islands.....	2,743	13,174
Marquesas Islands.....	1,274	5,754
Clipperton Island.....	5	not inhab'd.
Tahiti, Moorea, and adjacent islands...	1,119	21,936
Tubuai, Vavatao, Oparo.....	209	798
Tuamotu Archipelago, with Gambier Islands.....	1,000	5,469
Total.....	23,491	81,822

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN MONARCHY, an empire in Central Europe. Emperor, Francis Joseph I, born August 18, 1830; succeeded his uncle, the Emperor Ferdinand I, December 2, 1848. Heir-apparent to the throne, Archduke Rudolphus, born August 21, 1858; engaged on

March 7, 1880, to Stéphanie Clotilde, second daughter of the King of Belgium, born May 21, 1864. The marriage was fixed to take place in February, 1881.

The Ministry for the Common Affairs of the Empire consisted, toward the close of the year 1880, of Karl Heinrich Baron von Haymerle, Minister of Foreign Affairs and of the Imperial House (appointed October 9, 1879); Joseph von Szlavy, Minister of the Finances of the Empire (appointed April 8, 1880); and Count Arthur Bylandt-Rheidt, Minister of War (appointed 1876).

The Ministry of Cisleithan Austria, at the close of 1880, was composed of Count Eduard Taaffe, President (appointed August 14, 1879); Baron Moritz von Streit, Justice (1880); Baron Sigmund von Conrad von Eybesfeldt, Public Worship and Instruction (1880); Count Zeno von Welsersheimb, Defense of the Country (1880); Count Julius von Falkenhayn (August 14, 1879), Agriculture; Alfred von Kremer von Auenrode (1880), Commerce; Dr. Julian Dunajewski (1880), Finance; Florian Ziemiałkowski (April, 1873), and Dr. Alois Prajak (August 14, 1879), Minister without portfolio.

The area of the entire monarchy is 622,837 square kilometres*; population, according to the last census of 1869, 35,901,435; according to an official estimate, in 1880, about 38,000,000. The area of Cisleithan Austria, or Austria Proper, is 300,209 square miles; the civil population at the end of 1879 was officially estimated at 22,176,745, to which must be added the army, numbering about 177,500 persons, making a total population of 22,354,245. The official estimate is based upon the census of 1869, by adding the average percentage of increase. The civil population was distributed among the different crown-lands as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Inhabitants, Dec. 31, 1879.
Austria below the Enns.....	2,230,754
Austria above the Enns.....	752,413
Salzburg.....	155,388
Styria.....	1,198,700
Carinthia.....	339,693
Carniola.....	472,903
Trieste.....	220,966
Goritz and Gradisca.....	142,150
Istria.....	278,218
Tyrol.....	798,864
Vorarlberg.....	104,066
Bohemia.....	5,474,864
Moravia.....	2,115,960
Silesia.....	579,456
Galicia.....	6,268,811
Bukovina.....	564,973
Dalmatia.....	478,556
Total.....	22,176,745
Total at the end of 1878.....	21,970,649

From some observations made in the "Statistical Monthly" ("Statistische Monatsschrift") of Vienna by Herr Schimmer, one of the best-known statistical writers of Austria, we learn that the movements of the population in Austria show, in a marked degree, the influence of the bad times through which all European states have been passing. The following table

* One square kilometre = 0.386 English square mile.

is an abstract of the births, deaths, and marriages from 1873 to 1879, inclusive:

YEAR.	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
1873.....	194,815	848,206	811,150
1874.....	189,617	849,678	662,929
1875.....	180,349	862,828	634,055
1876.....	176,143	874,623	634,363
1877.....	161,387	851,747	677,743
1878.....	164,233	854,752	633,661
1879.....	163,055	878,035	652,491

For the first time within seven years does the wave of depression show signs of lifting, as testified by the increased number of marriages in 1879. The most encouraging point in the figures is the decrease in deaths, which is most marked in the case of infant mortality. It will be remarked that 1873, the year of the Exhibition, was notorious for the fatalities of the cholera, which carried off great numbers of people in Vienna.

The number of professors and students, inclusive of non-matriculated hearers, was in the summer semester, 1879, as follows:

UNIVERSITIES.	Professors.	Students.
Czernowitz.....	39	276
Cracow.....	84	631
Graz.....	112	745
Innsbruck.....	85	559
Lemberg.....	55	983
Prague.....	191	1,707
Vienna*.....	295	3,509
Total.....	861	8,360

According to their mother-tongues, the students were classified as 3,863 Germans, 1,351 Czechs, 1,410 Poles, 439 Ruthenians, 187 Slovaks, 248 Croats and Servians, 318 Italians, 116 Roumanians, 348 Magyars, and 80 others. According to their religious denominations, 6,642 reported themselves as Roman Catholics, 214 as belonging to the Oriental Greek Church, 262 as Evangelical, 18 as Unitarians, 1,193 as Israelites, 6 as members of other churches, and 25 as belonging to no religious denomination.

Besides the seven universities, Austria had, in 1879, 6 technical high schools, 1 agricultural high school, 2 academies of mining, 2 academies of commerce, 2 high schools of art, 42 theological schools, 91 gymnasia, 18 undergymnasias, 47 *Realgymnasien* of various grades, 61 *Realschulen*, 18 under *Realschulen*, 42 male teachers' seminaries, and 27 female teachers' seminaries. The number of "Bürger-" and "Volkschulen" was, in 1875, 15,166, with 31,196 teachers, and 2,134,683 pupils. There were also in 1877 145 Kindergartens, with 11,663 children.

The total number of periodicals published in 1878 was 1,050, against 1,001 in 1877, 967 in 1876, and 876 in 1875. As regards the contents of the periodicals, there were among them in 1878 330 political periodicals, 32 religious, and 75 educational. The large majority of the pe-

riodicals (717) are published in the German language; next in order follow the Czechic periodicals (122); the Polish (73); Italian (66); Slovenish (17); and Ruthenian (15). The number of dailies is only 81, the number of weeklies 306, and that of monthlies 215.

The population of Bosnia and Herzegovina, according to an official census taken on June 16, 1879, amounted to 1,142,147. Of these, 487,022 belong to the Greek, and 208,950 to the Roman Catholic Church, making a total number of 695,972 Christians. The number of Mohammedans was 442,500, of Israelites 3,426, of others 249. The town of Serajevo, which was supposed to contain 45,000 inhabitants, turns out, according to the English consul Freeman, to have only 22,000, of course without counting military or strangers, of whom about 3,000 are temporary residents. The discrepancy, which is certainly very considerable, may partly be accounted for by the drain on the population during the Montenegrin, Servian, and Russian wars, while others who joined the Mussulman rising have never returned to the town. These absentees, however, could not be more than 3,000 or 4,000 at the most, and it only shows how necessary it is to reduce population estimates to the strict domain of statistics. Not included in these census returns is the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar, the population of which is set down at 61,150 Mussulmans, 101,348 Orthodox Greeks, 49,217 Roman Catholics, 1,340 gypsies, and 65 Jews; total, 223,120. (See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 62.)

In accordance with the political constitution of the Austrian Empire, there are three distinct budgets: the first, that of the delegations for the whole empire; the second, that of the Reichsrath for Austria Proper; and the third, that of the Hungarian Diet, for the kingdom of Hungary. By an agreement, or so-called "compromise," entered into, in February, 1868, between the Governments and Legislatures of Austria and Hungary, the former has to pay seventy and the latter thirty per cent. toward the common expenditures of the empire, not including the interest on the national debt. The accounts of the actual revenue and expenditure of the empire during the year 1878 were published by the Government in 1880. According to them, the ordinary expenditure of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs amounted to 3,318,800 florins*; that of the Ministry of War, 95,700,455; of the Ministry of Finance, 1,896,855; of the Supreme Court of Accounts, 111,924; total, 101,028,042 florins. The extraordinary expenditures amounted to 77,876,767 florins; total of ordinary and extraordinary expenditures, 178,904,809. The surplus from customs apportioned to meet the expenditure for the common affairs of the empire amounted to 3,856,262 florins, leaving 175,048,547 florins to be provided for by con-

* Exclusive of the faculty of evangelical theology.

* One florin = 45 cents.

tributions from Austria Proper and Hungary, according to the compromise referred to above.*

The commerce of Austro-Hungary, compris-

ing imports and exports of merchandise and of bullion, was as follows in each of the years from 1869 to 1876 (value expressed in Austrian florins):

YEAR.	AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN CUSTOMS TERRITORY.				CUSTOMS TERRITORY OF DALMATIA.	
	Merchandise.		Bullion.		Imports.	Exports.
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.		
1869...	420,600,000	438,100,000	39,800,000	26,900,000	8,100,000	7,900,000
1870...	436,000,000	395,400,000	41,000,000	34,100,000	9,200,000	6,600,000
1871...	540,800,000	467,600,000	59,400,000	55,500,000	8,600,000	7,800,000
1872...	618,400,000	834,600,000	36,500,000	66,100,000	9,200,000	6,900,000
1873...	583,100,000	423,600,000	40,900,000	31,100,000	9,700,000	6,100,000
1874...	563,700,000	449,300,000	19,900,000	18,900,000	10,300,000	6,500,000
1875...	552,500,000	504,500,000	15,800,000	18,400,000	13,400,000	10,400,000
1876...	518,000,000	508,600,000	33,600,000	31,300,000	13,500,000	8,200,000
1877...	546,700,000	530,600,000	28,300,000	18,100,000	13,900,000	8,600,000

At the beginning of 1880, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Istria, Dalmatia, and Brody were admitted into the Austro-Hungarian Customs Line.

The following statement shows the strength of the commercial marine of Austro-Hungary on the 1st of January, 1879:

CLASSES OF VESSELS.	Number of vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Sea-going steamers (15,690 h. p.)...	70	56,381	2,162
Coasting steamers (712 h. p.).....	25	1,320	182
Sailing-vessels, including coasters and fishing-smacks.....	7,792	270,028	26,408
Total.....	7,887	327,729	23,752

The army of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy was in August, 1878, composed as follows:

DIVISIONS.	PEACE FOOTING.		WAR FOOTING.	
	Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.
Standing army.....	14,710	257,207	23,637	761,929
Imperial Royal Landwehr...	572	2,782	2,916	118,626
Royal Hungarian Landwehr	1,045	9,288	3,028	127,234
Staffs.....	136	90
Gendarmes and military police.....	24	1,069	24	1,069
Army studs.....	148	5,035	148	5,095
Total.....	16,635	275,531	29,753	1,013,953

The naval forces at the end of the year 1878 consisted of 14 ironclads and 37 other steamers, the majority of the latter of small dimensions, constructed chiefly for coast-defense.

The total length of railways in operation on January 1, 1879, was: in Austria Proper, 11,268 kilometres; in Hungary, 7,002; total, 18,270. The length of the telegraph lines and wires, and the number of stations and messages carried, was in 1878 as follows:

	Austria, 1877.	Hungary, 1878.	Total.
Lines.....	34,087 kil.	14,329 kil.	48,416 kil.
Wires.....	87,535 "	50,072 "	137,607 "
Stations.....	2,418	960	3,378
Messages.....	5,358,544	2,822,259	8,180,803

* For an account of the finances of Austria Proper and of the public debt of the empire, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

The number of post-offices in 1878 was 4,006 in Austria Proper, and 1,980 in Hungary; total in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, 5,986.

On March 7th the Crown Prince Rudolphus was betrothed to Stéphanie Clotilde, second daughter of the King of Belgium. The event called forth great ovations throughout the empire. At Prague, where the Archduke has for some time been residing as a colonel of a regiment, the burgomaster, in offering to him the congratulations of the city, expressed the hope that the Prince after his marriage would continue to reside in Prague. At Vienna, he received the congratulations of the two Houses of Parliament, the corporation of the town, the Ministers, and other high functionaries.

The Austrian Reichsrath reassembled on the 15th of January. The parties in the present Reichsrath are almost equally balanced, as, at the general election in 1879, 173 of the newly-elected deputies belonged to the different Liberal fractions, and 175 to the Conservatives. (See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, article AUSTRIA, p. 64.) The Ministry, presided over by Count Taaffe, consisted in about equal parts of members of the two parties. The moderate elements of both parties seemed generally willing to support the Ministry, while the extremists on either side showed themselves eager to attack it. The debate on one of the first bills that came up for discussion in this session, concerning the administration of Bosnia, proceeded very smoothly, the bill passing without a formal vote being taken. A sort of armistice seemed to have been established between the Ministry and the two parties, the Right having come to the conclusion that it would be inopportune to exercise on this occasion any pressure upon the Minister-President with a view to forcing him to reconstruct the Ministry out of the ranks of their party. The Left or Constitutional party, on the other hand, perceived that it was not in their interest to continue a relentless and uncompromising opposition to the Ministry, and thereby to precipitate a crisis which would probably not end in their favor. Both the Right and the Left were all the more unprepared for a Cabinet crisis, as both were weakened by internal dissensions.

In the Right, which embraces as subdivisions the Feudal, the Clerical, the Czechist, the Polish, and the Slovenish parties, the Poles were openly at variance with the Czechs, and a large number of the Poles with a minority of the Czechs were decidedly opposed to the principles of the Clerical party. In the Left, the two principal divisions of which are the Constitutional party (*Verfassungspartei*) and the party of Progress (*Fortschrittpartei*), the latter informed the former that in consequence of the support given by a large portion of the Constitutional party to certain anti-liberal measures of the Government, the party of Progress deemed it best to recede from a union of the two parties. The latent dissension among the sections of the Right was greatly widened in the beginning of February by a memorandum addressed by the Catholic bishops of Bohemia to the Ministry of Education and Worship, in which they demand the restoration of denominational schools. The memorandum is signed by all the four bishops of Bohemia, and concludes with these words: "The principle of undenominational schools, and therefore of a separation of the school from the Church, blocks the way to any thorough improvement in the educational system. Favors in regard to any secondary provisions, even if they were granted (which hitherto has generally not been the case), can not avert the injury which is inherent in that principle. Nothing is therefore left to the bishops but to request the Ministry to adopt the necessary measures for restoring the denominational character of the schools for the Catholic population, and to secure to the Church her due influence upon the instruction and education of the youth. If the Imperial Ministry should leave this remonstrance of the bishops likewise without answer, or if it should not afford a definite prospect of a speedy and radical improvement of educational affairs, it would be impossible for the bishops to coöperate any longer in the execution of the school laws. They could, in that case, no longer allow any participation of the clergy in the school boards, and they would deem it their duty to remind the faithful of the sacred duties which will devolve upon them if their children can be intrusted to the schools into which they are compelled to send them, not with confidence, but rather not without great detriments." The Czechs as a national party care more for national Czechic than for Catholic schools, and, though the Old Czech party regards an alliance with the Church as desirable, they are loth to subordinate their national claims to the interests of the Church. The "Pókrok," the organ of the young Czechs, openly opposed the episcopal memorandum and the action of the Clericals, and expressed the conviction that the Czech members would leave no doubt as to their views. The Poles desire a more efficient state control than in the case of confessional or national schools, which in Galicia might be claimed equally by the Ruthenes or the Greek Church. On the 3d of

February the two parties in the House of Deputies measured their strength at the election of twelve members of the *Staatsgerichtshof* (State Court), who have to be chosen by the House. The Right succeeded in electing their entire ticket. A partial change in the Ministry took place on February 17th, when Baron Conrad von Eybesfeldt, the Governor of Lower Austria, was appointed to the Department of Education, and Baron Kriegsau, formerly a candidate for the office of Education, to the Ministry of Finance. Neither of the two new Ministers had played a political part, but both had made their way in the administrative career. Baron Eybesfeldt, who was appointed to the post of Governor of Lower Austria when the Constitutional party was in power, is supposed to have a leaning toward that party.

On April 6th the important debate on the budget began. Great preparations had been made for it on both sides, for it was known that the discussion, as is customary on such occasions, would extend to all great questions of the day, political and national. One of the most remarkable speeches made on the occasion was that by Dr. Plener, one of the most gifted among the younger generation of Parliamentary men in Austria. He severely criticised the political and, above all, the financial measures of the Government, and developed a new scheme of financial reform which attracted great attention on all sides of the House. He combated the idea that the equilibrium between the revenue and expenditure could be brought about by any reduction on a grand scale, either in the military expenditure or in the internal administration. On the contrary, he maintained that the improvements which must be made on account of the army, and the outlay which is still necessary in order to complete the means of communication, will tend rather to increase than to diminish the expenditure. The only way to deal with the deficit was to make a thorough reform of the taxation. Dr. Plener went fully into this subject, and showed the general features of such a reform, laying great stress on the income-tax and the indirect taxes on sugar and spirits. He criticised the present system of drawbacks on these two articles upon exportation, the result of which is that, owing to the large sum thus repaid at exportation, the home consumption of these articles is very small as compared with the consumption in France or Germany. If only one half of the quantity consumed in Germany was consumed in Austria, it would make a revenue of over ten million florins, instead of one million which it now makes, net, after the subtraction of the duty repaid on exportation. It is the same with the duty on spirits, a considerable portion of the revenue on which is also returned at the exportation. The reform of the system of taxation on these two articles would be almost sufficient to grapple with the deficit. Instead of initiating such a policy of reform on a grand scale which alone could meet the diffi-

culty, the Government and the party which supports it had taken refuge in paltry measures, increasing the charges of direct taxation without producing any tangible result. Dr. Plener never hinted that he spoke in the name of the constitutional party; still, from the way in which his speech was received on that side, it was inferred that his plan would eventually be accepted by the Constitutional party as their financial programme. The principal speech on the part of the Right was made by Count Clam Martinitz. The debate came to an end on April 13th. The real issue between the two great parties was on the secret-service money. Both fractions of the Constitutional party agreed to refuse the money on the ground that they had no confidence in the Ministry. In the name of the Ruthenes, M. Kovalski declared that they would also vote against the grant, as the Ministry had used the money against the freedom of the elections the previous year. As the Ministry was supported in this question by the Poles, the Czechs, and the Conservatives, it was expected that the grant would be voted, but, to every one's surprise, when the vote was taken, it was lost by 154 votes against 152 years. In view of the small majority against them, the Minister-President and the members of the Cabinet belonging to the Constitutional party did not deem it necessary to resign.

Still more than by religious and financial questions, the Austrian Parliament was disturbed by the interminable nationality question. The conflict of nationalities at the beginning of the year was especially severe in Bohemia. Meetings of the German-Bohemian members of the Reichsrath and the German members of the Bohemian Diet were held in January and February to draw up a memorandum in opposition to a Czechic memorandum by which the leaders of the Czechs had, in December, 1879, expressed their national wishes to the Emperor. The counter-memorandum drawn up by the Germans was presented to the Emperor on February 9th, by Count Mansfeld, Minister of Agriculture in the former Ministry. Count Mansfeld assured the Emperor that the German memorandum was not dictated by any hostility to the Czechs, but was prompted only by a sense of the duty of preserving the unity and power of the state. The Emperor, in reply, stated that the reconciliation of the two nationalities was his most ardent wish. An ordinance having been issued by the Government, in April, placing the Czechic language on the same footing as the German in all political and judicial proceedings in Bohemia and Moravia, Minister Stremayr, on May 5th, explained in the Reichsrath that the Government ordinance, by which the free use of their language was secured to both nationalities, and which merely ordered the authorities to uphold the rights existing in this respect, has kept within the bounds of its authority. The Government, in his opinion, had not deviated from what had

existed before. On May 10th, the German deputy Wurmbbrand moved that the German language be declared the official language of the empire (Reichssprache), but on motion of the Polish deputy Dunajewski, the Reichstag declined, by 158 against 143 votes, to enter into a discussion of the question.

Another reconstruction of the Ministry took place on June 27th, when the resignations of four Ministers, Dr. Stremayr, General Horst, Baron Korb Weidenheim, and Baron Kriegsau, were accepted, and Baron Streit, Baron Welsersheimb, Baron Kremer, and Dr. Dunajewski appointed in their places. The four Ministers who resigned were the representatives of the Constitutional party in the Cabinet; of the new Ministers the three first named are mere functionaries, while the appointment of Dr. Dunajewski was regarded as a new concession to the Autonomist party.

The Diets of all the crown-lands were opened on the 8th of June. Most of their proceedings were not of general interest. The Diet of the Tyrol received a joint protest from the Archbishop of Salzburg and the Bishops of Trent and Brixen against the formation of two Protestant congregations which the bishops say had taken place against the will and by a violation of the most sacred feelings of the Tyrolese people. The bishops at the same time requested the Diet to embody their protest in the minutes. The Diet of Bohemia rejected, by 135 against 79 votes, a proposition made by the Government to change the electoral law of the crown-land. The change proposed by the Government would diminish the German element of the Diet, and the Germans who at present constitute the majority of the Diet did not feel disposed to lend a hand to a diminution of their own influence.

The German Liberals look upon the majority of the Cabinet as hostile to the interests of the German nationality, and as inclined to sacrifice them to the Czechs and the Poles. They are therefore making earnest efforts to perfect a national organization. Provincial assemblies of German members of the Reichsrath and other prominent men of the party were held at Mödling in Lower Austria, at Brünn in Moravia, and at Karlsbad in Bohemia. The Bohemian meeting, which took place in October, was attended by more than 1,800 persons. The Government showed its hostility to this movement by confiscating all the papers containing the resolutions which had been drawn up for adoption at Karlsbad. The Municipal Council of Vienna expressed the warmest sympathy with this German movement, and resolved in October to invite prominent Germans from all parts of Austria to hold a general meeting at Vienna. The meeting took place on November 14th, and was attended by 4,000 prominent men of the German Constitutional party. Resolutions were adopted, amid great enthusiasm, declaring the federalistic tendencies of the Slavs to be dangerous to the unity of Austria,

and to be likely to produce discord among the different nationalities of the empire. It is claimed, by those who sympathize with the German Constitutional party, that at least nine tenths of the wealthy and educated Germans of Austria will actively coöperate with the opposition against the Federalists. Indications are not even wanting that many Germans of Austria, rather than submit to an increasing predominance of the Slavic element, would prefer a dissolution of the empire, and a union of the German provinces with the German Empire. In 1879 a member of the Reichstag, Herr von Schönerer, had even the courage of expressing these views in the Reichstag. At a large meeting of the students of the University of Vienna, held in November, 1880, the same sentiments were expressed by most of the speakers, and Herr von Schönerer was enthusiastically applauded when he said that the Germans of Austria were gravitating, not only toward Vienna, but toward every center of Germanism, and most of all toward that center which was the most German. The German Conservative party, which follows the lead of Count Hohenwart, endeavored to reply to these demonstrations of the Liberals by counter-demonstrations, the object of which was to show that a considerable portion of Germans in Austria by no means share the apprehensions of the Liberals respecting the dangers which threaten the unity of the empire and the legitimate position of the German element from the policy of the present Cabinet, but that, on the contrary, they think this policy tends to consolidate the unity of the empire, by bringing about peace and satisfaction among all the nationalities of Austria.

The delegations met in Pesth on October 19th. The Hungarian delegation elected Louis Tisza, a brother of the Prime Minister, president, and Cardinal Haynald vice-president. By the Austrian delegation, Count Coronini was elected president and Count Czartoryski vice-president. On October 25th the members of the two delegations were received by the Emperor. In reply to the addresses by the presidents of the two delegations, the Emperor said that his Government had united its efforts with those of the other powers for the purpose of removing the difficulties which the execution of some of the stipulations of the Berlin Treaty had encountered; that the propositions sent to the delegations contained, with regard to some branches of the military administration, further claims on their patriotic readiness to make sacrifices; that, in examining these demands, they would direct their serious care to the unavoidable necessities of the security and defense of the monarchy as well as the well-being of the army; that the state of Bosnia was politically a satisfactory one, making it possible once more to reduce the number of troops there, and thus to diminish the cost. The credits demanded by the Government were granted by both delegations, with the excep-

tion of a few inconsiderable deductions from the demands of the Minister of War.

The fact that Bosnia and Herzegovina have been greatly benefited by the establishment of an Austrian administration is generally conceded. The Austrian Government found it, however, necessary to maintain a strong army of occupation. At the beginning of the year it was reported from the sanjak of Novi-Bazar that numerous bands of robbers were traversing the country and harassing the Austrian army. They were, however, soon suppressed. The Government encouraged emigration from Austria and Hungary to Bosnia, and some progress was made in this direction, but it was believed that immigration on a larger scale would not begin until it was definitely settled that Bosnia and Herzegovina would remain for ever a part of the Austrian dominions. An animated and important discussion on the occupation of Bosnia arose in the meeting of the Hungarian delegation. The discussion had not reference to the Bosnian credit demanded by the Government, as it was recognized on all hands that the Minister of War had done his best in reducing the establishment of the army of occupation from 33,000 to 26,000 men. The debate turned on the right of the delegations to have an insight into the revenues and expenses of the Bosnian administration. In the previous discussion of the subject in committee, the common Minister of Finance, who has special charge of the Bosnian administration, had been asked to furnish returns on the subject. He replied that he was not in a position to do so; it was only during the last quarter of the past year that civil administration had been introduced, and this was itself in a state of transition. Only a few months previously, the monopolies of tobacco and salt had been introduced; not even an approximate estimate could yet be formed of the revenue which the customs might yield; and the tithe, which was the main item of direct taxation, was only just beginning to be paid in. The Minister, however, expressed a belief that the revenue and expenditure would balance next year, as they had done this year, and that no contribution would be asked from the delegation. These declarations seemed to cause an impression that the Minister was not disposed to give any explanation, and rather questioned the right of the delegations to examine the financial administration of Bosnia. The Minister denied, however, that he had any such disposition, and promised to give next year an estimate of the revenues and expenditure of Bosnia, as far as this could be done.

The most notable feature in the foreign relations of Austria is the maintenance and confirmation of the *entente cordiale* existing between Austria and Germany. The Governments of both countries took frequent occasions to express the most friendly sentiments toward each other, and the majority of the German Parliament and press warmly sympathized in

this question with their Governments. In the Austrian Reichsrath, however, the Polish deputy Hausner made, on March 12th, a violent speech against the Austro-German alliance, and recommended in place of it a Franco-Austrian alliance. Many of the Polish, Czechic, and Ultramontane members seemed to sympathize with these views. As Hausner's views were violently attacked by the Germans, both in Germany and in Austria, he published in their defense a pamphlet entitled "*Deutschthum und deutsches Reich*" (Vienna, 1880). The author, though a German by name and birth, is in his political sentiments a Polish extremist. The object of his pamphlet is to show that an alliance of Austria with Germany would virtually be a submission to Germany, and would greatly promote the ambitious plans of Bismarck, who, in his opinion, intends to wrest the Baltic provinces and Russian Poland up to the Vistula from Russia and annex it to Germany—an event which he would regard as the greatest calamity for the Poles, who might not be able to resist absorption by the civilized Germans as well as they resisted the uncivilized Russians. A provisional commercial treaty with Germany was ratified by the Reichsrath in May. A new interview of the Emperors of Austria and Germany at Ischl, and the marked attentions shown to Archduke Rudolphus during his visit at Berlin, were regarded as new pledges of the continuance of the German-Austrian alliance. The revival of a triple alliance between the Emperors of Austria, Germany, and Russia was strongly advocated by Baron Hübnér, who was ambassador in France under the Empire, in a meeting of the Austrian delegation on November 2d. Baron Hübnér is afraid that out of the unsettled condition of Western Europe, especially of England, Italy, and France, there may arise a crusade against conservatism all over Europe, and he therefore demanded that steps should at once be taken to insure a combination of the three great conservative powers of Europe. The feeling of a very large portion of the Austrian population continues, however, to be very hostile to Russia. When the Emperor in September paid a visit to Galicia, the demonstrations made by the Polish population were so significant that many Hungarian papers spoke of an approaching restoration of the kingdom of Poland, and of the inevitability of a war against Russia. Public sentiment in Russia showed itself, in return, greatly irritated against Austria, although the Emperor of Austria, in order not to give any cause of irritation, had never used the Polish language on any official occasion, and, in his reply to the leader of the Polish nobility, who emphatically spoke of the "Polish" nobility, had been careful to use the expression, "the nobility of Galicia." It was a noted feature in the proceedings of the delegations in November that no voice was raised against the desirability and the continuance of the Austro-German alliance.

The friendly relations between Austria and the Government of Italy were not interrupted, although they were repeatedly endangered by the agitation of the party of the *Italia Irredenta*, with which a considerable portion of the Italian people expressed an open sympathy, and which, in the opinion of the Austrian Government, was not as energetically suppressed by the Italian Government as it should have been. (See ITALY.) Within the Austrian dominion, the Italian nationality has of late made considerable progress in Dalmatia. The Italians constitute in this province only 9.5 per cent. of the total population, while the Slavs number more than 90 per cent.; but all that has been achieved in the provinces of literature, art, and science, in material and intellectual progress, is due to the Italian element. The Slavs, on the other hand, are still at the lowest stage of mental development. The schools of the higher grade were, therefore, to a large extent under Italian influence. The sympathy which the tendencies of the "*Italia Irredenta*" met with among the Italians of Italy induced the Austrian Government, in June, to change all the Italian middle schools in Dalmatia, especially those in Sebenico, Curzola, Cattaro, Ragusa, and Spalatro, into Slavic schools.

It was for some time feared that the relations between Austria and England might be seriously affected by the triumph of the Liberal party at the English elections. At one of the meetings preceding the elections, Mr. Gladstone had energetically protested against England joining the Austro-German understanding, and converting it into a triple alliance. He had declared that if the Austrian Government wished to shut his mouth, it should abandon its schemes against the freedom of other countries. When the elections resulted in a triumph of the Liberal party, apprehensions were naturally felt that the English Cabinet would be hostile to the Oriental policy of Austria. These apprehensions were, however, dispersed by a letter addressed by Mr. Gladstone to the Austrian ambassador in London, in which the English Premier states that he has no hostile intention toward Austria, and that his animadversions on her foreign policy were founded upon suppositions which, upon the assurances of the ambassador, he now believed to be unfounded. (See GREAT BRITAIN.)

The question pending between Austria and Serbia, relative to the establishment of railway junctions, caused considerable trouble. On January 10th Baron Haymerle, in the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Hungarian delegation, stated that the Serbian Government had originally held the view that both the Porte and Bulgaria would have to take part in the negotiations, but ultimately M. Ristic, the Prime Minister of Serbia, had admitted the justice of Austria's construction of the stipulations of the Berlin Treaty, and a Serbian representative with full powers would shortly arrive in Vienna to effect a final settlement of the question.

Herr von Schwegel, one of the heads of department in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, subsequently gave explanations with reference to the commercial treaty with Servia, stating that it was not the intention of the Government to conclude a treaty on the most favored-nation principles, because they considered it more advantageous to adopt the standpoint indicated in the Treaty of Berlin. The idea of forming a customs union with Servia had been allowed to drop, as the proposal was not favorably received by either side. On April 9th a

treaty between Austria and Servia, concerning the construction of an Austro-Servian railroad, which is to lead from Belgrade by way of Semlin to Pesth, was concluded. New difficulties, however, arose between the two Governments concerning the execution of the treaty, and, in October, the Baron von Haymerle addressed a note to the Austrian ambassador in Belgrade, severely censuring the Servian Government. This note was soon followed by the resignation of the Prime Minister of Servia. (See SERVIA.)

B

BAPTISTS. I. REGULAR BAPTISTS IN THE UNITED STATES.—The following is a summary of the statistics of the regular Baptists in the United States, as they are given in the "American Baptist Year-Book" for 1880:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Churches.	Ordained ministers.	Members.
Alabama.....	1,456	704	94,569
Arkansas.....	1,110	535	47,398
California.....	99	83	8,733
Colorado.....	21	10	946
Connecticut.....	119	180	20,918
Dakota.....	18	11	600
Delaware.....	11	15	1,924
District of Columbia.....	18	28	8,168
Florida.....	297	197	16,569
Georgia.....	2,668	1,553	219,726
Idaho.....	1	1	20
Illinois.....	926	657	63,106
Indiana.....	558	325	40,950
Indian Territory.....	95	75	5,223
Iowa.....	411	250	24,515
Kansas.....	297	255	16,631
Kentucky.....	1,702	1,014	161,190
Louisiana.....	752	419	56,568
Maine.....	263	181	21,165
Maryland.....	51	37	9,970
Massachusetts.....	289	338	48,888
Michigan.....	386	329	27,086
Minnesota.....	140	110	7,026
Mississippi.....	1,580	818	116,185
Missouri.....	1,381	823	88,491
Nebraska.....	126	64	4,226
Nevada.....	3	3	52
New Hampshire.....	86	110	9,127
New Jersey.....	172	194	32,367
New Mexico.....	1	1	20
New York.....	869	773	113,215
North Carolina.....	1,809	1,065	167,699
Ohio.....	622	439	49,040
Oregon.....	73	55	2,916
Pennsylvania.....	531	436	68,458
Rhode Island.....	60	65	10,589
South Carolina.....	1,022	589	130,939
Tennessee.....	1,308	769	110,245
Texas.....	1,460	754	76,857
Utah.....	1	1	16
Vermont.....	114	84	9,876
Virginia.....	1,316	703	205,909
Washington.....	14	14	828
West Virginia.....	350	205	25,138
Wisconsin.....	191	127	11,208
Wyoming.....	3	2	62
Total.....	24,794	15,401	2,133,044

Number of associations, 1,095; number of baptisms during the year, 78,924; number of Sunday-schools, 12,407, with 10,869 officers and teachers, and 922,602 scholars; total amount of benevolent contributions, \$3,815,947.

General tables of Baptist statistics in the "Year-Book" give:

	Associations.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.
North America *.....	1,117	25,652	15,979	2,223,087
Europe.....	60	3,072	2,188	311,825
Asia.....	8	487	312	45,005
Africa.....	..	54	35	2,803
Australasia.....	4	135	85	7,002
Total.....	1,189	29,400	18,594	2,589,172

The anniversary of the *American Baptist Home Mission Society* was held at Saratoga Springs, New York, May 26th. The total receipts of the Society from all sources for the year had been \$213,821, and the expenditures had been \$182,998. The debt had been reduced \$12,229, leaving \$18,373 still owing. About 5,500 Indians were members of Baptist churches in the Indian Territory, and were for the most part served by native pastors. The mission among the Chinese at Portland, Oregon, returned three baptisms and a Chinese Young Men's Christian Association. A new Chinese mission had been opened at Oakland, California. The eight academic and collegiate schools for freedmen returned 38 teachers and 1,191 pupils. Four hundred of the students were ministers, or were studying with the ministry in view. The Society adopted a declaration of its judgment that the Indian question could never be righteously or permanently settled till there should be a full recognition of the Indian's rights to citizenship and to hold personal property, upon the same conditions as prevail in the case of persons of other nationalities; and invited people of other denominations and all good citizens to join it in urging that conviction upon the national Government and the country.

The *Woman's Home Mission Society of the West* received during the year ending in May, 1880, \$9,089 in cash and \$2,551 in goods. Its cash expenditures were \$6,506. It supported 17 missionaries in 7 missions among the freedmen of the South, the Scandinavians of the

* Including the United States, British Provinces, and the West Indies.

Northwest, and the Indians, and had organized 27 Sunday-schools during the year.

The cash receipts of the *Woman's Home Mission Society of the East* for the year were \$6,080 and its disbursements \$5,441. It also received and distributed clothing of the value of \$3,413.

The anniversary of the *American Baptist Publication Society* was held at Saratoga Springs, New York, May 27th. The receipts of the Society for the year had been: in the Benevolent Department, \$68,293; in the Business Department, \$281,270; making in all, \$349,563, or \$14,253 more than the receipts of the previous year. One hundred and thirty-three new publications had been issued during the year, of which 304,000 copies were printed, and 126,000 copies of former publications and 94,500 copies of tracts had been printed. The whole number of publications on the catalogue of the Society on April 1, 1880, was 1,288.

The anniversary of the *American Baptist Missionary Union* was held at Saratoga Springs, New York, May 25th. The receipts of the Society for the year from all sources had been \$314,860, of which \$24,509 had been contributed as additions to invested funds, leaving \$290,351 applicable to the payment of the current expenses of the year. The appropriations, including those for the payment of the debt of the previous year, amounted to \$297,474. The Karen churches of Bassein had contributed \$30,470 toward the erection of a new building for their Normal and Industrial Institute, and were, when the report was made, engaged in raising an endowment fund of \$25,000 for the support of the school. The statistics of the missions are: Burmah, 83 missionaries, 448 native preachers, 433 churches, 21,594 members; Assam, 17 missionaries, 49 native preachers, 13 churches, 1,331 members; Telugus, India, 21 missionaries, 77 native preachers, 11 churches, 15,660 members; China, 24 missionaries, 37 native preachers, 16 churches, 1,426 members; Japan, 12 missionaries, 5 native preachers, 2 churches, 76 members; total in the Asiatic missions: 162 missionaries, 616 native preachers, 475 churches, 40,087 members. The European missions (in Sweden, Germany, France, Spain, and Greece) returned 436 native preachers, 433 churches, and 45,221 members.

The *Southern Baptist Convention* met at Lexington, Kentucky, May 6th. The Rev. P. H. Mell, D. D., of Georgia, was chosen President. The *Home Mission Board* had received during the year \$20,624, and had expended \$14,197. The *Foreign Mission Board* had received \$45,543, or about \$10,000 above its average receipts, and, besides meeting all of its expenses, had reduced its debt by \$2,179, the present amount of indebtedness being \$6,389. The missions of the Board were: in the Yoruba country, Africa; China, where were reported at Tung Chow, Shanghai, and Canton, 396 members, with 71 baptisms, and \$528 of contributions by native members; South America, which had two self-

sustaining churches in Brazil and a Chinese church in Demerara with 172 members; and Italy, where were stations at Rome, Bologna, Milan, Venice, Torre Pellice, Modena, Carpi, Bari, Naples, the island of Sardinia, and other places. It was stated, in behalf of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, that the institution had received a gift of \$50,000 from ex-Governor Joseph E. Brown, of Georgia, and that it would be necessary to increase the amount of its endowment to \$250,000, of which \$100,000 ought to be raised at once.

The sixth Triennial Conference of the *German Baptist Bund* of North America met in St. Louis, Missouri, October 13th; Professor H. M. Schaffer was elected moderator. The affairs of the German Department of the Theological Seminary at Rochester, New York, of the German Baptist Publication Society at Cleveland, Ohio, of the Orphan Asylum in Louisville, Kentucky, and of a proposed theological school in Germany, were considered. Fifteen students had been graduated from the Theological Seminary during the previous three years. An editor had been appointed for the several periodicals of the Publication Society, and an assistant editor was needed. A committee was appointed to secure a new and suitable hymn-book, and instructed to coöperate with a similar committee in Germany and with the Board of the American Baptist Publication Society. The orphan asylum had twenty-six children as inmates.

The Bund is composed of two annual conferences, the Eastern and the Western Conferences, separated by the western boundary of the State of Pennsylvania. The Eastern Conference, at its meeting, October 7th to 11th, considered the subject of a division into three or more conventions or associations, and took measures for the submission of plans for division to the churches. The Western Conference reported 4,470 members—a gain of 305 during the year—\$2,570 of contributions for home missions, and \$1,600 for foreign missions. It decided upon a division into three conferences, the Central, Northwestern, and Southwestern Conferences.

II. FREE-WILL BAPTISTS.—The *General Conference* of the Free-Will Baptist Church was held at Weir's, New Hampshire, July 21st. Representatives were present from all the Northern and some of the Southern States. The Rev. O. B. Cheney, D. D., was chosen moderator. The year being the hundredth year since the organization of the denomination, the proceedings took to a considerable degree the character of a centennial celebration. Historical addresses were made, and steps were taken for the preparation of a "Centennial Volume," to contain an historical account of the Church, and its publishing and literary institutions, accounts of the action of the General Conferences, the historical papers read at the present General Conference, and tables. Centenary offerings for val-

rious purposes were reported, amounting in all to one hundred thousand dollars. Resolutions were adopted deprecating the ordination of ministers by single churches, and advising that the Association or quarterly meeting be consulted and participate in all ordinations; recommending that abstinence from the use of tobacco be made a condition of ordination; declaring it to be "a necessity and a duty for the churches to encourage lay preaching subject to their approval," and requesting all the churches of the denomination that "they admit no minister as a member, or employ him as a pastor, who does not bring letters of recommendation from some ministers' conference, or quarterly meeting or association and church to which he belongs, duly signed by proper and responsible parties."

The "Free-Will Baptist Register" for 1881 gives the following statistics of the denomination:

YEARLY MEETINGS.	No. of churches.	Ordained preachers.	Licensed preachers.	No. of communicants.
New Hampshire.....	115	138	13	9,104
Maine Western.....	68	56	5	4,736
Maine Central.....	100	89	10	6,805
Maine Scot.....	123	74	9	4,514
Vermont.....	57	44	3	2,928
Rhode Island and Massachusetts..	46	62	8	6,058
Holland Purchase.....	85	84	2	2,107
Genesee.....	23	27	2	1,347
Susquehanna.....	34	24	1	1,259
New York and Pennsylvania.....	31	21	2	967
St. Lawrence.....	14	12	1	560
Union.....	15	10	8	903
Central New York.....	36	25	4	2,057
Pennsylvania.....	7	8	1	866
Ohio and Pennsylvania.....	36	30	2	1,673
Central Ohio.....	27	24	1	1,465
Ohio.....	10	13	..	647
Ohio River.....	51	40	9	8,415
Ohio and Kentucky.....	22	13	..	1,171
Indiana.....	7	5	..	324
Northern Indiana.....	20	14	1	806
Michigan.....	98	86	10	4,288
St. Joseph's Valley.....	27	16	1	1,025
Illinois.....	27	16	2	957
Southern Illinois.....	38	25	18	1,838
Central Illinois.....	47	40	8	2,029
Wisconsin.....	54	43	2	1,997
Minnesota.....	19	18	3	746
Minnesota Southern.....	18	16	3	478
Iowa.....	63	45	3	2,264
Kansas.....	10	10	..	264
N. Kansas and S. Nebraska.....	17	16	2	825
Virginia and W. Va. Association..	17	15	3	967
Eastern North Carolina.....	4,000
Kentucky.....	23	11	8	806
Louisiana.....	23	40	3	549
Ontario (Canada) Association.....	10	4	3	554
Bengal and Orissa.....	7	6	..	377
Union Association.....	20	21	4	951
Quarterly meetings not connected.	31	17	1	699
Churches not connected.....	6	10	2	161
Total, 41.....	1,432	1,213	153	78,012

III. THE BRETHREN.—The annual Convention of the Brethren (commonly known as Tunkers) was held at Lanark, Illinois, in June. The attitude of the denomination in respect to conformity to the world was defined in a series of resolutions, which deprecated the disposition to enforce the order of the Church more rigorously than in former years; agreed that the existing form of costume should be quietly maintained, while the labors and principles of the

Brethren should yet be adapted to the wants of the religious world; recognized as offenders those who teach anything contrary to the principles of the Brotherhood; advised, on the expressed ground that "there exists a widespread fear among us that the Brethren's high schools are likely to operate against the simplicity of the gospel," that the principals of the schools adopt rules to prevent any worldly tendency; condemned Sunday-school picnics and excursions; opposed the adoption of unusual means for getting people into the Church; and expressed the opinion that while ministers should not labor in the hope of receiving a salary, and money should not be held out as an inducement to brethren to preach, ministers should, nevertheless, be supported. A plan was adopted for the organization of a Board of Domestic and Foreign Missions. Acts of the annual meeting had hitherto been adopted by general consent, so that it lay in the power of a very small number of members by opposing objections and adhering to them to prevent the passage of any measure. A query was presented to the present meeting asking whether it would not be better for small minorities to accept the will of majorities, and not hinder legislation. The meeting answered in the affirmative, with a proviso that the old rule should prevail when a departure from the general order of the Brethren is attempted. A query whether a sister might not wear a modest hat was answered in the negative. It was, however, declared not to be according to the gospel for a brother who "indulges in the filthy fashion of the world" (the use of tobacco) to reprove a sister for indulging in the vain fashion of dress. It was decided that a brother ought not to accept the office of land-appraiser.

IV. REGULAR BAPTISTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.—The annual meetings of the *Baptist Union* and the affiliated societies were held during the week beginning April 20th. The total receipts of the *Home and Irish Missions* had been £6,280, and the expenditures £6,093, of which £2,513 had been for Home Mission work, and £2,409 for the Irish work. Nineteen agents and two colporteurs were employed. The receipts of the *Baptist Tract Society* had been £1,302. Grants had been made during the year representing 916,317 publications. The income of the *Baptist Building Fund* had been £7,966. With its aid twenty-six chapels had been built and opened for worship, and six other chapels had been enlarged, providing 8,572 additional sittings. The total sum raised in England only for new chapels and improvements had been £47,099, considerably less than the average, while the total debt created had been £27,230, considerably greater than the average. The income of the *Bible Translation Society* had been £2,350; and 43,603 portions of Scripture had been issued from its press. Reports were made at the meeting of the condition of the *Annuitiy Fund* and the fund for the Augmentation of Pastors' Salaries (*Aug-*

mentation Fund). Statements were made to the effect that the last year's accounts of the churches showed an increase of 5,300 members, 30,548 scholars, and 3,427 teachers. A scheme for the constitution of the Union was presented, and laid over to be discussed at the meeting of the body in the spring of 1881.

The receipts of the *Baptist Missionary Society* during the year ending March 31, 1880, for general purposes, amounted to £45,233, and, including contributions for special funds, to £50,351. The amount of general income was the largest ever received in one year, except in the Jubilee year of the Society. The condition of the missions in India, Ceylon, China, Japan, West Africa, Central Africa (Congo), the Bahamas, San Domingo, Trinidad, Jamaica, Norway, Brittany, and Italy, is reviewed in the report of the Society. In all, so far as was reported, the missions included 82 missionaries, 309 other laborers, 407 stations, 33,805 members, 5,141 day-scholars, 166 teachers, and 4,346 scholars in Sunday-schools. The income of the *Zenana Mission* amounted to £3,658. Twenty-seven ladies and forty-six native teachers were employed in connection with the mission, about 700 children were instructed in the Zenanas, and 1,100 women listened to the reading of the Bible. A Home for the Ladies in Delhi was ready to be occupied, and £2,300 had been promised toward the erection of a home in Calcutta.

V. GENERAL BAPTISTS.—The *General Baptist Conference* met at Nottingham, England, June 22d. The Rev. James Maden, of Macclesfield, presided. The Secretary reported an increase of 452 members, making the whole number of members in the home churches 24,455, and, including the mission churches of Orissa, 25,449. Petitions to the House of Commons were adopted in favor of the closing of the public-houses on Sunday, and of the abrogation of the enactments by which the opium-trade between England and China is made lawful. A resolution was adopted approving of the recognition and application by the Prime Minister of the principle that no religious views which a man might have should disqualify him from holding high office under the Crown.

The receipts of the *General Baptist Foreign Missionary Society* for the year ending in May, 1880, were £8,727, and its expenditures £8,538. Fourteen English missionaries were employed in India, and another missionary had been accepted for service in the same field.

BAROMETERS, WATER. The specific weight of mercury being 13·596, a hydraulic barometer in which a column of water about 10 metres high counterbalances the mean pressure of the atmosphere, instead of the mercurial column of 76 centimetres, shows much finer variations of pressure than the ordinary barometer. The simple contrivance of Babinet, consisting of a long, thin tube of glass inserted in the neck of a tightly closed bottle, in which

the water had been forced up the tube, enabled him to observe the minute variations of atmospheric pressure during a small space of time; but the observations were vitiated by the effect of variations of temperature in vaporizing the water and dilating or contracting the mass of the water and the air. Another French physicist has constructed a permanent water barometer in which all the inequalities caused by temperature are avoided or compensated, and which is, therefore, as precise as it is sensitive. A reservoir of air is sunk in the floor of a closed cellar, in which the temperature is practically the same at all times of the year. In the reservoir is placed a large demijohn, in which a tube is inserted, which is carried up to the chamber in the floor of the building where it is desired to observe the barometric variations. The capacity of the reservoir can be from one to 100 litres or more, and can serve for a number of different barometers if desirable. In the Institute there are three connected with the same vessel of water, of a capacity of 85 litres. The copper pipe which connects with the glass tube, on which the rise and fall of the column of water is indicated by a scale, can be carried up from the demijohn at any inclination. The glass indicator need be no more than a metre in length to allow for the height of the vessel in which the tube terminates, and show the extreme variations of barometrical pressure, which fall within 70 centimetres of the scale. The barometer of the Société de l'Encouragement has a copper tube 16 metres long with an interior diameter of 3 millimetres ending in a glass tube with 8 millimetres' interior diameter. Just 13 millimetres on the scale correspond to the millimetre divisions on the scale of the quicksilver barometer, the deviation from the exact ratio of 13·596 between the specific weights of quicksilver and water representing the allowance to be made for the sinking of the level of the water in the reservoir answering to the rise of the column in the tube and that due to the compression of the air in the reservoir, and also to the increase in the specific gravity of the water by the admixture of glycerine, or sometimes sulphuric acid, which is necessary to keep the water in the pipe from freezing if it is exposed to frost. In the building of the Société de l'Encouragement no preventive against freezing is needed, but a tincture of fuchsine in the water reduces the height of the column about one millimetre. The water is forced up the pipe by successive blasts through a tube inserted in the cork of the demijohn, which dislodge portions of the air in the tube, the globules of air driven out through the mouth of the pipe making way for the ascending column of water which is held up by the pressure of the atmosphere. When the summit of the column has nearly reached the point on the scale corresponding to the reading of a good mercurial barometer, it is brought into exact agreement by pouring into the vessel a sufficient quantity of water, or taking water out if the level of the column

has risen above the point of normal pressure measured on the scale. To guard against evaporation of the water in the reservoir, the outer air may be admitted only through a minute puncture, or, better still, through a capillary tube. The exact degree of atmospheric pressure is indicated by the readings of the water barometer without the necessity of any reduction or calculation of errors. The range of errors does not exceed the variation of pressure measured by one millimetre on the scale of the ordinary barometer, an amount which may be disregarded, since in the usual barometric readings the depression due to capillarity in the mercury-tube is seldom taken account of, while that caused by the tension of the mercurial vapor must exceed one millimetre, and the expansion of the confined air occasions an equal variation. The indicator tube may be inclined to any angle with the perpendicular, and the delicacy of the indications proportionately increased. One which has been put up in the Grenelle Gasworks has a scale on which 70 millimetres correspond to one millimetre on the mercurial tube, and which reveals minute undulations of barometric pressure of which ordinary barometers give no suspicion. The water-barometer can be constructed with little expense. It will afford valuable data for the study of rain and the other aqueous phenomena of the atmosphere. If such barometers were set up in the public places of towns, they would be a useful means of popularizing the knowledge of phenomena attended by variations of atmospheric pressure, and would prove of great practical utility by indicating the approach of rain and storms.

BAYARD, JAMES ASHETON, ex-Senator of the United States from Delaware, died at Wilmington, Delaware, on June 18th, at the age of eighty-one. He was a descendant of a distinguished French family who embraced the Huguenot faith. During the persecutions following the massacre of St. Bartholomew they fled to Holland, where Samuel Bayard married the sister of Peter Stuyvesant, then Governor of New Amsterdam, and his three sons emigrated with their uncle, landing in New York, May 11, 1647. Peter Bayard, the youngest of these three brothers, removed to Maryland, and from him descended the subject of this sketch. He was the second son of James A. Bayard, member of Congress from Delaware, and a leader of the Federal party. In 1812 the elder James Bayard was selected by President Madison as one of the commissioners to arrange the treaty of peace with Great Britain which was signed at Ghent. He was envoy to St. Petersburg at the time of his death, in 1815. His eldest son, Richard Bayard, represented Delaware in the United States Senate until his appointment as Minister to Belgium. He was succeeded as Senator by his brother, James Asheton Bayard, in 1850, who was reelected in 1856, and again in 1862. Mr. Bayard entered public life early, having

been elected to Congress by the Democratic party as early as 1828. He filled many public offices with unquestioned integrity. The Republican committee of investigation in regard to the *Crédit Mobilier*, in their report to the House of Representatives, mentioned with praise Senator Bayard's letter in response to an offer of some of this stock, written in 1868, before the character of that operation was known, in which he said, "I take it for granted that the corporation has no application to make to Congress on which I shall be called upon to act officially, as I could not consistently with my views of duty vote upon a question in which I had a pecuniary interest." As a lawyer Mr. Bayard was eminent. His clear intellect and close logic fitted him for the profession which he chose and adorned. Among other important positions which he filled, he was for a long period chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary of the United States Senate. His opinions on constitutional questions and his reports are weighty and authoritative. Under the Van Buren Administration he was United States Attorney for Delaware. In 1862, on his third election to the Senate, the "iron-clad" oath was required of him. Grown old in the service of the nation, he keenly resented this indignity. After an eloquent protest against its constitutionality, he took the oath and immediately resigned his seat. The Hon. George R. Riddle was elected in his place, but, dying soon after, Mr. Bayard consented to serve through his own unexpired term. His son, Mr. Thomas F. Bayard, was elected Senator; and in 1869 both father and son sat in the Senate, the only instance of the kind on record. After his retirement from public life, Mr. Bayard lived in Wilmington.

BELGIUM, a kingdom of Europe. Leopold II., King of the Belgians, born April 9, 1835, is the son of King Leopold I., former Duke of Saxe-Coburg, and ascended the throne at his death, December 10, 1865. He was married August 22, 1853, to Marie Henriette, daughter of the late Archduke Joseph of Austria (born August 23, 1836), who has borne him three daughters. The heir-apparent to the throne is the brother of the King, Philip, Count of Flanders, born March 24, 1837, Lieutenant-General in the service of Belgium, who was married, April 26, 1867, to Princess Marie of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen (born November 17, 1845), and has two sons, Baldwin, born July 3, 1869, and Albert, born April 8, 1875. The oldest daughter, Princess Louisa, born February 18, 1858, was married on February 4, 1875, to Prince Philip, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

The area of this kingdom is 29,455.16 square kilometres (1 square kilometre=0.386 square mile) or 11,373 square miles. The population, according to the census of December 31, 1876, was 5,336,189, and in December, 1878, according to a calculation based upon the movement of population, 5,476,939. The following table

exhibits the population of each province at the close of 1878:

PROVINCES.	Pop. in Dec., 1878.
Antwerp.....	560,020
Brabant.....	978,071
Flanders, West.....	693,580
" East.....	879,682
Hainault.....	975,252
Liège.....	650,801
Limburg.....	209,343
Luxemburg.....	208,405
Namur.....	321,885
Total.....	5,476,989

The population of the principal cities on December 31, 1878, was as follows: Brussels, 167,693; Antwerp, 159,579; Ghent, 130,671; Liège, 119,942; Bruges, 44,968; Malines, 40,586; Verviers, 39,278; Louvain, 34,664; Tournay, 32,508; Courtrai, 26,672; Saint-Nicolas, 25,628; Namur, 25,627; Seraing, 24,888; Mons, 24,791; Alost, 21,399.

The movement of population from 1872 to 1878 is shown in the following table:

YEAR.	Marriages.	Births,		Deaths,	Still-born children.	Surplus of births.	Total population on December 31.
		Inclusive of still-born.					
1872.....	40,084	174,985	127,768	7,558	47,267	5,175,087	
1873.....	40,598	178,491	120,656	7,788	57,885	5,258,821	
1874.....	40,328	181,728	117,245	7,750	64,383	5,336,634	
1875.....	39,059	183,301	130,229	7,749	53,072	5,408,006	
1876.....	38,228	184,845	124,717	7,980	60,128	5,336,185	
1877.....	36,962	183,122	122,314	8,045	60,808	5,422,791	
1878.....	36,669	180,451	125,462	7,721	47,579	5,476,989	

Almost the entire population is connected with the Roman Catholic Church. The number of Protestants is estimated at 15,000; that of Jews at 3,000. The larger portion of both live in the provinces of Antwerp and Limburg. Of the 5,336,185 inhabitants, according to the census of 1876, 2,256,860 spoke French, 2,659,890 Flemish, 340,770 French and Flem-

ish, 38,070 German, 22,700 French and German, 1,790 Flemish and German, 5,490 these three languages, 7,650 foreign languages, and 2,070 were deaf and dumb.

The immigration into Belgium has since 1871 always exceeded the emigration from the country, as will be seen from the following table:

	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.
Immigrants.....	15,789	15,792	16,762	15,872	14,416	15,075	14,325
Emigrants.....	11,040	7,981	8,217	10,157	13,124	11,847	11,646
Surplus of immigrants.....	4,749	7,811	8,545	5,215	1,222	3,228	2,679

The budget for the years 1878 and 1879 estimated receipts and expenditures as follows (in francs):

I. RECEIPTS.	1878.	1879.
1. Direct taxes.....	44,008,000	44,418,000
2. Indirect taxes.....	102,955,000	102,735,500
3. From means of communication (railroads, telegraphs, post, etc.)...	100,652,500	108,922,600
4. Miscellaneous.....	9,772,000	10,101,000
5. Reimbursements.....	2,921,360	3,263,160
Total receipts.....	260,338,860	264,435,260
II. EXPENDITURES.		
1. Public debt.....	74,785,815	77,990,229
2. Dotations.....	4,535,308	4,693,475
3. Ministry of Justice.....	16,272,849	15,901,169
4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs.....	1,903,535	2,073,110
5. Ministry of the Interior.....	20,371,424	14,254,599
6. Ministry of Public Works.....	81,354,389	84,240,352
7. Ministry of War.....	41,063,000	44,040,000
Budget of the gendarmerie.....	2,920,000	3,410,000
8. Ministry of Finance.....	15,274,950	15,242,110
9. Reimbursements and outstanding debt.....	1,126,000	1,187,000
Total expenditures.....	259,606,765	272,344,317

The members of the Chamber of Representatives are elected at the rate of one member for every 40,000 inhabitants; the members of the Senate at the rate of one member for every 80,000 inhabitants. The number of members of both Chambers is, therefore, constantly varying, as will be seen from the following table:

YEAR.	Number of members in	
	Chamber of Representatives.	Senate.
1831.....	102	51
1839.....	95	47
1847.....	108	54
1859.....	116	58
1866.....	124	62
1878.....	132	66

The most important events of the year related to the discussions of the laws concerning the schools and their operation; to the controversy between the Government and the bishops, ending in the withdrawal of the Belgian legation from the Vatican; to the elections for the renewal of one half the Chambers; and to the celebrations of the fiftieth anniversary of Belgian independence.

The Chamber of Representatives met after the conclusion of the Christmas vacation, January 21st. The debate on the budget of instruction was taken up and continued till February 6th. The budget was adopted, February 17th, by a vote of seventy in favor of it to fifty-seven against it. On the last day of the debate, M. Frère-Orban, the Prime Minister, defended the Government, contending that more liberty was nowhere given to the clergy than in Belgium, and that they were complaining because the Government refused them

privileges which it did not grant to anybody else. The Government, he said, would know how to make the laws respected; and the struggle of the Right against the secularization of public instruction—adopted as it was now in all civilized countries—would only expose them to the ridicule of all Europe. M. Malon, the leader of the opposition, announced the intention of his party, in case it should regain power, to abrogate the new law of public instruction and substitute the confessional school subsidized by the state for the neutral and lay school. A proposal was adopted on the 23d of March for the appointment of a Parliamentary commission of inquiry into the state of elementary instruction. A commission of eight Clerical and seventeen Liberal members was selected on the 5th of May to pursue the designated inquiry. The members of the Right declined to serve upon the commission, and the appointment of members to fill their places was thrown upon the officers of the Chamber. The commission, having been organized, published a statement in June, defining the scope of its inquiry, and inviting all persons who could assist it with evidence to coöperate with it, and proceeded to its work.

The question of maintaining the legation at the Vatican was discussed in March. The Premier on the 3d assured the Chamber that no concession had been made, and no particle of the rights of the kingdom had been alienated by the continued residence of its envoy at the Holy See. The Minister of Foreign Affairs declared on the 9th that no foreign government had made any communication to him on the subject, and that it was well understood that the Chamber would have to pronounce upon the matter every year, and that no decision definitely committing the country could ever be made respecting it. The Chamber decided in favor of maintaining the legation by a vote of ninety-seven yeas to eight nays and two abstentions. Several Liberal members voted for the measure in order to avoid dividing their party.

The bill to prolong the existing law relative to the treatment of foreigners in Belgium was adopted in May, and was accepted by the Senate on the 12th. During the debate upon it, M. Bara, the Minister of Justice, said that the line of conduct of the Government toward the French Jesuits, should they come to Belgium, would be precisely the same as had been adopted toward the members of religious bodies expelled from Germany. The laws of the state would be enforced as toward them. If they did not trouble the internal and external security of the country, no measure would be taken against them; but, if they came to Belgium to do what was forbidden to them in France, the Government would prevent them.

The Cardinal-Archbishop of Malines and the Bishop of Bruges had made provision before the year began for giving religious instruction to the pupils of the communal schools

within their dioceses. The Archbishop of Malines, in his pastoral for Lent, condemned the public schools, and advised the faithful not to send their children to them. The bishops afterward, upon consultation, decided to allow the children to take their first communion, without raising any objections with reference to the schools they might attend, and to instruct the parish priests to further the religious instruction of the children in their parishes. The Cardinal-Archbishop received a letter from the Pope, in April, approving the position which the bishops had assumed, and commending their efforts to open and found new Catholic schools, "in order to prevent, or at least to diminish, the disastrous consequences of the new school law, which is completely opposed to the principles and prescriptions of the Catholic Church." When asked the meaning of this letter, the Pope replied that he had not in it intended any hostility to the Belgian Government. The payment of salaries from public funds to the curates of parish priests, whose nomination had not been submitted to the Minister of Justice for approval, was suppressed. The expressions of the bishops became more moderate, and their opposition to the secularized schools assumed a less decided form after the elections for the renewal of the Chamber in June, and they appeared desirous to avoid the rupture between the Government and the Vatican which was threatened. Orders had, however, already been sent, on the 5th of June, to the Baron d'Anethan, the envoy, to give notice to Cardinal Nina that the Belgian legation to the Holy See was withdrawn. In his letter conveying the orders the Premier said: "The maintenance of the Belgian legation was possible, and even useful, so long as the Pope remained neutral in the conflict created in Belgium by the opposition of the clergy to the laws and institutions of the country, and so long as his Holiness used his influence to moderate the struggle. The legation, however, became useless from the moment that the Pope encouraged resistance to the laws of the state. After declaring the measures taken by the bishops, with regard to the educational law, to be excessive and inopportune, the Pope, by an unheard-of change of attitude, approves the instructions given by the bishops to the clergy. Under these circumstances the Government considers it to be its duty to recall the legation." The Belgian envoy left Rome immediately after receiving his recall. Notice of the rupture was given to the Papal Nuncio at Brussels on the 28th of June. A memorandum respecting the difficulty was published by the Holy See, which began by stating that the rupture of diplomatic relations had produced so painful an impression on the minds of Catholics, and had attracted so greatly the attention of all parties, that the Pope felt it a duty imposed upon him by his dignity to make a clear and public exposition of the facts which preceded it. The Belgian Minister of Foreign

Affairs addressed a circular, on the 17th of July, to the Belgian diplomatic representatives abroad, in which, on the evidence afforded by letters from the Primate, and a bishop, he accused the Papal Nuncio of having, at a time when it was pretended at Rome that nothing was known of the resolutions of the Belgian bishops, taken part in the framing of political manifestoes containing direct attacks on the Government. He also, upon the same evidence, accused the Pope and his Secretary of State of having approved and praised, but with the most absolute secrecy, the measures which they declared to the Government of the King they were ignorant of and were unable to prevent. Cardinal Nina replied to the circular, July 25th, defending the action of the Vatican, and accusing M. Frère-Orban of having premeditatedly broken off relations with the Holy See. The Premier replied with a review of the course and letters of the Cardinal.

The elections to the provincial councils were held on the 24th of May, and resulted on the whole favorably to the Liberal party.

The biennial elections for the renewal of one half the members of the second Chamber were held on the 8th of June. The Chamber, as it was constituted previous to the elections, consisted of one hundred and thirty-two members, sixty-one of whom belonged to the Right and seventy-one to the Liberal party. Of the sixty-six members who were to retire, and whose places were to be filled at the elections, forty-three were of the Right and twenty-three of the Liberal party. The elections, when they were completed, resulted in a net gain of two members to the Liberal party. The single Liberal member from Antwerp was lost, all the candidates of the Right being returned; but two Liberal members were gained in the province of Luxemburg, and all of the fourteen Liberal deputies from Brussels were reelected.

The Chamber having been called in extraordinary session to participate in the national festivals, terminated the validation of the elections, and constituted its bureau, August 5th. M. Guillery was reelected President.

The National Exhibition in connection with the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of Belgian independence was opened at Brussels, on the 16th of June, in the presence of the King, the Queen, and the Count of Flanders. The festivities proper in honor of the anniversary were begun on the 18th of July, when the ten thousand civic guards of Brussels and five thousand civic guards representing the provincial towns, the troops of the garrison of Brussels, and the divisions which had gone through the manoeuvres at the camp of Beverloo were reviewed by the King. A statue of King Leopold I, which was erected with the proceeds of a national subscription that was opened after the death of that King, was unveiled in the new public park at Laeken, on the 21st, by the King. The Minister of the Interior delivered an address, reciting the events which had led to the

erection of the statue, and the Governor of Brabant spoke in the name of the subscribers to the monument fund. On the same day a *Te Deum* was sung in the church of St. Gudule, Brussels, in commemoration of the forty-ninth anniversary of the accession of Leopold I to the throne. The festivities were continued through the rest of July, the whole of August, and a part of September, at the capital and in the principal cities of the kingdom, with meetings, exhibitions, horse-races, boat-races, shooting-matches, concerts, military festivals, cavalcades, illuminations, fireworks, and flower-shows. On the 15th of August both the Legislative Chambers met in the hall of the Chamber of Representatives to receive three of the surviving members of the Provisional Government and of the National Congress of 1830 and 1834. Of the three surviving members of the Provisional Government, one, M. Rogier, was still a member of the Chamber; nineteen members of the National Congress were still living, two of whom, M. Rogier and Canon de Haerne, were members of the Chamber, and one, Baron Nothomb, was Belgian envoy to Berlin. After the reception, the members of the Chambers proceeded in procession to take part in a patriotic festival in the Exhibition building. Deputations attended from numerous associations, from the army, from private societies, and burgomasters and deputations from the councils of every municipality in the kingdom. Several speeches were delivered, after which the King spoke at considerable length, expressing his gratitude to those to whom Belgium owed its admirable Constitution, describing the progress which had been made by Belgium since 1830, and adding that the country could not forget to pay a just tribute of thankfulness to the five great powers. A grand historical cavalcade, symbolical of the past and present of the Belgian nation, took place on the 17th.

Forty-two petitions, demanding the reestablishment of a duty on imports of agricultural products for the protection of agriculturists against the competition of importations from America, were referred by the Chamber of Deputies to the Permanent Commission of Industry. The commission in its report on the petitions advised against the reestablishment of the duty, but called the attention of the Government to various means which might be adopted for the improvement of agricultural industry, such as measures to prevent inundations, and the revision of the railway transport tariff.

An International Congress on Education was held in Brussels in the later days of September. Delegates from France, Germany, Spain, Portugal, Russia, Holland, and Chili, took part in the several sessions.

The International Congress of Freethinkers met in Brussels at the beginning of September, and was numerously attended. Reports were read on the historical development and present literature of rationalism in various countries. A committee was appointed on the subject of

a universal federation of freethinkers, the General Council of which, it was resolved, should have its seat in London. An International Congress of Commerce and Industry was opened at Brussels on the 6th of September. The King was present. The purpose of the Congress was explained by M. Dansaert, member of the Chamber and President of the Congress, and by M. Sainetelette, Minister of Public Works.

The Parliamentary session was opened November 9th. The King, in his speech from the throne, thanked the people for the manifestations of loyalty which they had given during the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the independence of the nation; said that the condition of the Treasury had improved; and expressed a hope that the budget of 1880 would show a balance between revenue and expenditure. The rupture of diplomatic relations with the Vatican formed one of the most prominent topics of discussion. M. Frère-Orban, the Premier, in an address which occupied several hours on November 30th and December 1st, said that in his long political career he had always been in favor of the secularization of public education, and against the maintenance of diplomatic relations with the Papal See. He reviewed his negotiations with the Vatican, and contended that the Belgian Cabinet had acted with the greatest straightforwardness, and that the Vatican had been guilty of duplicity unexampled in diplomatic annals. The speech was cheered by the majority, and by the visitors who thronged the Chambers. The debate was continued, and the Premier, speaking during the following week, rebuked the clerical side for having dragged the name of the King into the debate, as if a private correspondence of the King with the Pope, or anybody else, was a matter of common concern. He denied that Leopold I had ever solicited from Pope Gregory XVI a cardinal's hat for the Nuncio Pecci (the present Pope) at Brussels, and stated that documents had been carried off from the archives of the Belgian Foreign Office under former ministries, notably those relating to the missions of the Nuncio Pecci. He also attacked the policy of the Clerical party in opposing amendments to the new Public Education Law, which would have rendered it more acceptable to them. The Liberal party gained one seat in the Senate by the election, in October, of M. de Kerckhove, from Ghent, to fill a seat which was formerly occupied by a member of the Clerical party. An election for one deputy was held in Brussels, November 29th. Five candidates were in the field, all advanced Liberals. Professor Vanderkindere, Rector of the University of Brussels, was chosen. He is an advocate of the movement called "the Flemish movement," the object of which is to secure for the Flemish language in the Flemish provinces equality of consideration with the French language.

Major-General Gratry was appointed Minister of War in November. He was formerly

director of the Engineer Department in the Ministry of War, and had lately been in military command of the province of Brabant.

Twelve persons were condemned, December 6th, to imprisonment for different terms on charges of participation in the traffic in English girls for immoral purposes. Since the case concerned English girls chiefly, the proceedings were watched by an English solicitor on behalf of the British Government.

BENEDICT, ERASTUS CORNELIUS, LL. D., Chancellor of the University of the State of New York, was born at Branford, Connecticut, March 19, 1800. His family removed to New York when he was three years of age. In 1821 he graduated with the highest honors from Williams College, Massachusetts. He taught school in various parts of the State of New York until he was admitted to the New York bar, in 1824. His interest in all that concerned public education remained undiminished through his legal career, although he attained a large practice, and for half a century was considered a leader in admiralty cases. He held no office until 1840, when he was chosen Assistant Alderman for the Fifteenth Ward. In 1850 he became a member of the Board of Education, of which body he remained the President until his resignation in 1863. He systematized the whole educational system of New York, and under his nurturing care the Free Academy developed into the College of the City of New York, of which he may be justly called the founder. He was a member of the Assembly in 1848 and 1864. In 1872 he was sent to the State Senate in the interest of reform. He had been made a member of the Board of Regents of the University of New York State, and, on the death of Chancellor Pruyn, in 1878, he was chosen his successor. He was also a trustee of Williams College, and endowed his alma mater with a fund for "Benedict prizes." An elder in the Dutch Reformed Church, he was widely connected with religious and charitable organizations. He was a manager of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and Governor of the New York State Woman's Hospital. He published in 1850 what has become a standard legal authority on "American Admiralty." In 1860 he wrote a slight volume of European travel. He was the author of many lectures delivered before the Geographical and various historical and scientific societies of which he was a member. He made three distinct translations of the "Dies Iræ." The first is remarkable as being expressed entirely in words of Gotho-English derivation. The second is very successful from its nearness in words and rhythm to the original. Perhaps the most lasting monument of his elegant and facile pen is the translation of the "Hymn of Hildebert and other Mediæval Hymns" (1868). He excelled in metrical translation, and has left many scholarly renderings of French, German, and Latin poems. He received the degree of

LL. D. from Rutgers College in 1865. In his legislative career he was chairman of the Senate Committee on Literature. He induced the passage of an act for the revision and consolidation of the acts relating to public instruction. In 1872 and '73, while in the Senate, he was appointed a member of the Court of Impeachment, in which the corrupt judges were tried. After a long life of eminent services as lawyer, legislator, and instructor, he died suddenly, in New York City, on the 22d of October.

BERNHARDT, SARAH, a French actress, was born in Amsterdam, about 1847. Her father was a Frenchman, and her mother was Dutch, both parents belonging to the Hebrew race. While a young girl her father placed her in the convent-school at Grand Champ, near Versailles. When she had completed the course of studies taught in the seminary, on expressing a choice for the dramatic profession, she underwent a brief preparation for the entrance examination of the Conservatoire. She owed her acceptance as a pupil of the Conservatoire, it is said, to the expressive and attractive manner in which she recited the tale of "Les deux Pigeons," by La Fontaine, not being provided with a tirade from the dramatists such as it is usual for the candidates to declaim, drawing upon herself the attention of Auber, who was one of the examiners, by her graceful rendering of that simple poem. She entered the Conservatoire in 1861, becoming the pupil of Beauvallet, the famous actor. She was so successful in her studies that she gained a prize for tragedy, winning the right to a *début* at the Théâtre Français. Her appearance in "Iphigénie" with the company of the Comédie Française was praised by some critics and considered full of artistic promise, but was not a professional success. She also played in Scribe's "Valérie," but did no better. Bernhardt next essayed less ambitious rôles upon humbler stages, serving the dramatic apprenticeship which the most gifted actor seldom escapes, and acquiring theatrical experience and routine by performing comedy and burlesque parts in the theatre of the Porte St. Martin, after undertaking and then breaking off an engagement at the Gymnase; and afterward at the Odéon, where she advanced into the front rank of dramatic artists. Her engagement at the Gymnase was to perform in one of Labiche's comedies. She disappeared after the second night's representation, writing a characteristic note to the author, the import of which was that the part assigned her was not satisfactory. At the Porte St. Martin she appeared in a fairy piece under an assumed name. "I have been turned away everywhere; but try me, for I assure you there is something there," is said to have been the phrase which she used in applying to M. Duquesnel, who was associated with M. Chilly in the management of the Odéon; pointing, as she said it, to her heart instead of to her head. Chilly declared that she was only fit for tragedy; but Duquesnel engaged her in opposition

to his partner's judgment. At first she made no distinct impression; but when given the leading part in Alexandre Dumas's "Kean," though the play was coldly received, she herself was enthusiastically applauded.

During the siege of Paris Mlle. Bernhardt left the mimic stage to take a leading part in the patriotic work of nursing the sick and the wounded, tending the ambulances until the end of the war laboriously and devotedly. On the 2d of February, 1872, she reappeared on the boards as Marie de Neubourg in "Ruy Blas," achieving a complete artistic triumph, and gratifying the author not less than the public. This success induced the Comédie Française to not merely receive Bernhardt as an associate, but to press her to become a member of that famous and unique society of dramatic artists by whom the rich traditions of the French stage are sacredly conserved, and invigorated by the constant assimilation of the genuine artistic developments of the modern French theatre. In the Comédie Française Bernhardt could not take the preëminent position which an artist of her powers usually assumes in ordinary companies. Associated with a group of players, all of them of the highest rank, she did not obtain an opportunity to display her talents at first, being unfortunate in the rôles assigned to her. She earliest showed her higher powers in the characters of Andromaque and Junie; but it was not until March, 1874, when the "Sphinx," was brought out, with Bernhardt as Berthe de Savigny, that she became the great favorite of Paris audiences, and began to be spoken of as the foremost tragedienne of the age, and the successor to the laurels of Adrienne Lecouvreur, Dumesnil, Clairon, and Rachel Félix. Bernhardt has had few opportunities to create new characters. Other parts in which she is most admired are Phèdre and Zaïre of the classic French drama, and Adrienne Lecouvreur and Marguerite Gautier, the heroine of the younger Dumas's "La Dame aux Camélias," of the modern realistic drama.

Bernhardt, though of feeble frame and far from physically vigorous, possesses a fund of nervous energy which she is able to call forth in the passionate moments of a play with thrilling effect. She is an assiduous and tireless student in her profession, searching types and suggestions often in the scenes of real life. She shows a wonderful power of dramatic impersonation and imagination in the lifelike manner in which she projects herself into the character assumed in each play. The remarkable delicacy of her perception of character is the result of indefatigable studies. At the production of "Hernani," in 1870, Bernhardt took the part of Donna Sol, a character which had been identified with Mlle. Mars, who made it famous. The novel and sympathetic reading of Bernhardt was declared by Victor Hugo to correspond completely to his poetic ideal. Her praise in this rôle was repeated by the critic Sarcy and echoed by all Paris.

Sarah Bernhardt has cultivated other arts besides the one in which she has won celebrity. After posing for a bust, in 1869, it occurred to her to try her hand at modeling; and since then she has produced several pieces of sculpture which have been praised for their merit. She has also painted in oils with more than an amateur's skill. The subjects which she chooses for her sculptures and paintings are oftenest of a somber and funereal character. She is an accomplished performer upon the harp and the piano. She is known as a graceful and spirited writer for the press, and was at one time art critic of the "Globe" newspaper. She has made several ascensions in balloons, and written descriptions of her aeronautic experiences. A picturesque and elegant villa on the Parc Monceau was built for her after her own plans and drawings.

In the summer of 1879 Mlle. Bernhardt played in a series of French dramas presented by the company of the *Comédie Française* in London, where she was singled out from the company for popular favor and praise in a still more decided way than in Paris. She exhibited her plastic and pictorial creations while there, and gave rehearsals in the houses of the leaders of fashionable English society, requiring to be paid at the rate of a hundred guineas for each performance. The following year Bernhardt returned to London; but she was not this time supported, as she had been the season before, by the strength of the famous company of which she was a member. At this time a difficulty occurred between Mlle. Bernhardt and Émile Augier, the director of the *Comédie Française*, in consequence of which she resigned her position and severed her connection with the company. She was afterward sued for breach of contract, and ordered by the civil tribunal to pay one hundred thousand francs damages to the company. The cause of the rupture with the *Comédie Française* was her want of success in the play of "L'Aventurière," she attributing her failure to the want of time for proper preparation and an insufficient number of rehearsals.

A contract was signed by Sarah Bernhardt with Henry Abbey, of Booth's Theatre, in New York, on June 9, 1880, by which Mlle. Bernhardt engaged to make the tour of the principal cities of the United States, the manager agreeing to pay her one thousand dollars for each performance, with a share also of the profits.

Mlle. Bernhardt arrived in New York toward the end of October, 1880, and in the second week of November commenced her engagement in Booth's Theatre, playing through the series of her most famous rôles. After concluding there, she gave them next in Boston, and then in Philadelphia, playing to very large houses in each city, and winning admiration and applause from the public, and obtaining the highly appreciative, though sometimes qualified and measured, praise of the dramatic critics.

BOLIVIA (REPÚBLICA DE BOLIVIA). For area, territorial division, population, etc., reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1872 and 1878, and, for a retrospective view of Bolivian statistics and Bolivia's relations with the neighboring states, see our volume for 1879.

The President of the Republic is General Narciso Campero (June, 1880); the first Vice-President is Dr. A. Arce; and the second Vice-President, Señor Belisario Salinas. In December, 1880, the Cabinet was composed of but two Ministers: Señor J. M. Calvo, Minister of Justice, Public Worship, and Public Instruction, and acting Minister of the Interior, and of Foreign Relations; and Señor Belisario Salinas, Minister of War and acting Minister of Finance.

The regulation strength of the army in time of peace is 3,000, as follows: 8 generals, 1,012 subaltern officers, and 2,060 men, maintained, it would appear, at an annual expenditure of \$2,000,000, or about two thirds of the entire revenue. As stated in our article for 1879, the force was raised to 20,000 men accustomed to fighting and the use of arms, after the commencement of the war with Chili. In October, 1880, however, the Bolivian army had, by Chilian reports, been reduced to two battalions.

Information concerning the Bolivian revenue has always been difficult to procure from official sources, and can now be obtained only through indirect channels. The figures of the following table, said to emanate from ex-Minister Don Julio Mendez, give no signs of decreased yield in the usual sources of income, and refer to the period between the declaration of war and December 31, 1879—that is to say, about ten months:

Second half-year, Indian tax.....	\$691,248 70
Tithes, first fruits, etc. (paid almost exclusively by the Indians).....	252,016 00
Coca contribution.....	250,000 00
Bullion from the interior.....	380,000 00
Negotiation with "Banco Nacional".....	600,000 00
Forced loan (collected).....	500,000 00
Joco nitrate-works (saved).....	50,000 00
Southern custom-houses.....	60,000 00
Total.....	\$2,788,264 70

The war expenses, on the other hand, are reported to have been as follows:

Bolivian army in Peru.....	\$1,018,929 00
Fifth division, Campero.....	450,000 00
Total.....	\$1,568,929 00
Balance against the Treasury.....	1,219,835 00
Total.....	\$2,788,264 70

From this table it is apparent that the Indian population, who furnish the tillers of the soil and the fighting element of the country, are also the chief support of the national exchequer.

The national debt was estimated to amount to \$30,000,000 in June, 1879, comprising a home debt of \$21,500,000 contracted by the Government of the republic at various periods, as the forced loan of 1879 to equip the army for the Chilian campaign, and a foreign debt

contracted in England in 1872* for the purpose of constructing a railway. The railway for which it was incurred has not yet been built. The works, commenced in 1872 under British auspices, suffered "unanticipated detentions" until 1877, when they were resumed under American contractors, Messrs. P. and T. Collins, of Philadelphia, several chancery suits having intervened in the course of the five years' interval. The firm just mentioned deposited, states Colonel George Earl Church,* £40,000 as a caution-fund for compliance with their contract to complete the road from end to end. They sent several large ocean-steamers directly from Philadelphia to the northern terminus of the road at San Antonio on the river Madeira, where there are now (April, 1880) about fifty miles of railway material and contractors' plant. In a short time they had a thousand men at work, and a locomotive running over the first and worst five miles of the road. They cleared fifteen miles of forest, cut large quantities of sleepers, employed four large corps of engineers actively in the field, and thoroughly demonstrated the perfect practicability of the work. As this was thus again being vigorously pushed forward, the bondholders filed a new bill in chancery, March 2, 1878, alleging the revocation of the Bolivian concession and the impracticability of the railway. The trustees were again prevented from applying the trust fund. As in the previous suit, the plaintiffs resorted to every imaginable device to delay the trial. It finally took place before Mr. Justice Fry, April, 1879, who, after hearing their witnesses, dismissed the bill, with costs. Their own engineers gave evidence proving the perfect practicability of the road. The bondholders appealed from the decision. The appeal was heard by the Lords Justices in May, 1879. These held that, owing to the lapse of time, the seven years during which the plaintiffs, the bondholders, had succeeded in preventing the construction of the railway, the burden of proof of its practicability rested upon the defendants, the Navigation and Railway Companies. These gave ample engineering evidence, by their engineers, as to the physical feasibility of the road and its ease of construction. The Court of Appeal gave judgment in May, 1879, to the effect that, "no doubt the scheme was a great one, and one which, if there had been funds and other means for carrying it into effect, would probably produce the revenue which would afford a security for the bondholders"; and then decided that "the railway was impracticable in a business sense," ordering the trust fund, £850,000, to be distributed, *pro rata*, among the bondholders, and the Bolivian bonds to be surrendered and deposited in the Bank of England,

and declaring, moreover, that "the loss of the £850,000 makes the scheme impracticable." The defendant companies appealed to the House of Lords, and the Lords, while eulogizing the magnitude of the enterprise, and lauding the good faith of Colonel Church and its other promoters, confirmed the decision of the Court of Appeal. Bolivia is thus placed in a unique position, continues Colonel Church. Her own bondholders submit her to a relentless litigation of six years, preventing the opening of the commercial route for which they subscribed the loan. Even pending litigation, up to 1875, she paid interest on the loan, and now she finds herself without the money, without the railway, without her bonds, and, by judgment of the Court of Appeal, confirmed by the House of Lords, is told, practically, that an unauthorized act of her diplomatic agent* is more powerful than her Congressional decrees. The following extract from a letter to the London "Times," by its Philadelphia correspondent, in May, 1880, shows how the interests of the American contractors have been affected by the foregoing decision:

The House of Lords, in affirming the decision of the Court of Appeal in reference to the Bolivian loan, deprived the American contractors for the Madeira and Mamoré Railway of Bolivia, and Brazil of any chance of getting payment for work already done and materials furnished. These contractors, Messrs. P. and T. Collins, of Philadelphia, and their creditors, have presented a petition for relief to Congress. They request the passage of a resolution by Congress, asking the President to bring the matter alleged in their petition to the attention of her Majesty's Government, and also instructing the Secretary of the Treasury to give public notice that the United States bonds now in the Bank of England, being the trust fund for the construction of the Madeira and Mamoré Railway, will not be paid by the United States until the rights of the petitioners to the fund are respected. They also ask for such other relief as may be due to them by reason of the fact that, as American citizens, their rights and property are being jeopardized by the hostile action of the Government of Bolivia, in attempting to withdraw the concession and grant of money, upon the faith of which the contractors agreed to build the railway, and have already expended their money. This petition was presented in the Senate by Senator Bayard, and in the House by Speaker Randall. The contractors and their creditors have expended nearly \$1,000,000 on the work, the Philadelphia and Reading Railway, which is mainly owned in England, having furnished large quantities of materials, and being a principal creditor. The numbers of the \$3,727,900 United States bonds in the trust are in the possession of the contractors, and will be furnished to the Secretary of the Treasury. The petitions have been referred to appropriate committees by Congress, but their contemplated action has not yet transpired.

As observed in our volume for 1879, no reliable returns of Bolivia's exports and imports have ever been published by any of the Government departments; hence the impossibility of all but conjecture as to the aggregate value of the foreign trade of the republic. The sub-

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 81.

† The instigator of the enterprise, and to whom, as the result of a treaty between Brazil and Bolivia, both countries made concessions, having for their object the opening of a commercial outlet for Bolivian products to the Atlantic through the Amazon River, and its great tributary the Madeira.

* The Bolivian Minister, who, in June, 1876, addressed a letter to Colonel Church, assuming to declare the concessions of the navigation company to be null and of no value. No evidence appears to have since been produced of his authority for the act.

joined table shows the total value of the imports from and exports to Great Britain in the quinquennial period 1874-'78, according to British returns :

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
1874.....	\$271,905	\$1,713,185
1875.....	481,440	2,309,895
1876.....	991,830	2,065,595
1877.....	484,690	1,882,260
1878.....	366,975	3,005,130

Copper, nitre, and guano were the commodities chiefly shipped to Great Britain, whence the articles imported are for the most part cotton, linen, and woolen manufactures and machinery. Bolivia being cut off from direct communication with the Pacific seaboard since the commencement of the war with Chili, her foreign trade must of necessity be very limited at present. Nor will any one be surprised to learn that imports are subject to a very high rate of duty, particularly on some articles from the United States. For example, 100 lbs. of soap, costing in New York \$4.57, pay an import duty equal to \$2.75 United States money; a gallon of kerosene with the tin containing it, which costs in New York thirteen cents pays a duty equal to nine and a quarter cents of the same money; and, besides these enormous duties, Bolivia permits Peru to charge five per cent. additional for transit across her territory, from the port of Arica. Nevertheless, the products of Bolivia are admitted into the United States free of duty of any kind. "We can not understand," writes a merchant established in La Paz, "why the United States Government maintains at great expense a Minister in this republic who does nothing to forward the interests of American manufacturers in this matter. Nothing could be more simple than to induce Bolivia to enter into a reasonable commercial treaty on a reciprocal basis."

Nothing could well be more deplorable, in a political point of view, than the picture presented by Bolivia in the course of the past year. Immediately after the reverses of the allied Peruvian and Bolivian arms, which precipitated ex-President Prado's determination to seek safety in flight, General Daza abandoned his post of Chief Magistrate of Bolivia, and fled to escape being assassinated. In Bolivia all is bitterness, writes a journalist from Valparaiso, in February, 1880; everybody wants to be President, and we can not say who is governing; Minister Jofré is in Oruro; General Campero has accepted the Presidency provisionally; Camacho is in command of the Bolivian army stationed at Tacna; and, lastly, Daza has withdrawn to the interior, with the evident intention of provoking a reaction in his favor. General Campero was duly invested with the power in constitutional form in June, and lost no time in appointing a Cabinet, and taking such steps as he deemed most urgent for the continued maintenance of troops at the seat of war. Early in September, the Bolivian Con-

gress issued a decree for a forced loan from all the departments of the republic to the amount of \$500,000, with interest at ten per cent., the bonds to be received in payment of taxes. The Congress further authorized the Government to make new emissions, if necessary, and determine the guarantees for their payment. By another decree of the Congress, \$200,000 in small money, of from one to ten cents, was to be coined in nickel, copper, or other metal.

Yet governmental energy, zealously seconded by individual patriotism, for the enthusiasm for the war had not diminished in Bolivia, was insufficient to grapple successfully with the ever-increasing difficulties of the situation. The National Convention, already called into existence, lent efficient aid to the Executive in devising and carrying out plans for the creation of resources with which to continue the struggle without truce and regardless of sacrifices. The following decree, issued on February 21st, will serve to illustrate the spirit and determination of that body:

ARTICLE I. The National Convention of Bolivia has ordered the sale by public auction of the property of all the convents and monasteries of the republic, except the eighth part, which is destined for the support of the religious communities.

ART. II. The sale is also ordered of the treasures of the churches, including the ornaments of the images, the sacred vessels being alone excepted.

ART. III. The product of the sale shall be applied to defraying the expenses of the war, such as the purchase of ships, the levying of troops, etc.

ART. IV. Priests who in the pulpit or in any other place, and laymen who in the press or in public meeting, oppose the execution of this law, either pacifically or by promoting public disturbances, shall be tried as traitors to the country.

Prior to the date of this decree, the forced loan, already alluded to as forming part of the national revenue for 1879, had been ordered and collected to the amount of \$500,000; and other measures of like character were resorted to later. Still, the Bolivian army was but an insignificant factor at the seat of war; indeed, at the end of June, telegrams (from Santiago, the capital of Chili) announced that it was completely disbanded, the men receiving neither pay nor food, and selling their arms and accoutrements to obtain temporary relief. "In the four corners of the republic," exclaims a leading journal of La Paz, in July, "dismay and dejection seem to threaten the destruction of our nationality, and, in the midst of the awful confusion, what means of salvation remains to us? Shall we yield to the conqueror? No, a thousand times no! However great our effeminacy be, or however deep the grief brought upon us by the disasters of San Francisco and of the Alianza, it is our duty to look up to Heaven for that strength which the earth denies us, and set about the grand work of defending our country. Savages in their miserable condition do not bow under defeat, but perseveringly defend their huts and their families, and are we to triumph by tears and cowardly inaction? Do we not blush at the thought of our

children learning hereafter of our selfishness and our moral and physical degradation? In this deplorable state of things, let us renew our efforts to arouse the slumbering spirit of our countrymen to reconstruct Bolivia, prepare for the national defense, and gain the victory over Chili, cost what it may. To that end the National Convention should, we think, continue for at least six months longer its labor of reconstructing our demoralized national administration. Let the representatives be paid, for no labor is more worthy of remuneration than theirs. Exactions can lead to no practical or useful end. The members of the Convention have hitherto manifested an unusual degree of self-denial in the service of their country. Many of them will continue to do so; but such can not be expected to constitute the rule. It is but fair that those who devote their time and energy to the cause of Bolivia, and thereby neglect their own private concerns, should be remunerated. In the trying times through which we are now passing, it is not prudent to expect everything of the Executive. Chili, in making war against us, has had the counsel and guidance of her people's representatives, while we intrusted everything to the Government. What has been the result? Daza's Government plunged us in ruin; and the present Government, spite of all its patriotism, will at no distant day lose its prestige, for of professional malcontents there is, unfortunately, no lack in Bolivia. The wise direction of public affairs requires the energetic coöperation of the Parliament with an honest Government like that of the illustrious General Campero. Our country's wounds need the firm hand and determined treatment of a National Convention, and a National Convention alone. Lastly, Bolivia, like the phoenix, must find within her own breast the secret of her regeneration. The Assembly, by the light of their understanding, the Executive by patriotic action, and the people by unceasing labor in the cultivation of the fruits of the earth, must raise up the nation from the depths to which she has fallen, and carry our arms to the retrieval of honor lost and soil usurped." A confederation between Peru and Bolivia, accepted by the people of the first country in June, and to be decided upon by a *plebiscitum* in the second, appears to have been favorably considered by the National Convention at La Paz, and the question even submitted to the President for Executive sanction in October. (The leading incidents of the war will be narrated in the article PERU.)

BRAZIL (IMPERIO DO BRAZIL). (Statistics concerning area, territorial divisions, population, etc., will be found in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878.) The commissioners appointed to determine the limits of the empire with the neighboring republic of Venezuela were reported to have made satisfactory progress. At latest accounts the Brazilian section had advanced as far as Maroa, a Venezuelan village

situated on the Rio Negro and above San Carlos; while the Venezuelan commissioners were at Javita, one day's journey beyond that point.

According to the latest official returns, the number of slaves in Brazil was 1,368,254; but as these figures were taken from registers reaching only to the end of 1878, the number must at present be several thousand less, allowing for deaths, and for public and private emancipation. The distribution of the accumulated emancipation fund (about \$2,204,940) was, however, based on the same returns; and the following table shows the number of slaves in, and the share of said fund allotted to each of the provinces at the close of the year above referred to:

PROVINCES.	No. of slaves.	Amount.
Município Neutro.....	43,409	\$71,391
Rio de Janeiro.....	259,239	475,683
Pernambuco.....	91,992	166,292
Maranhão.....	63,164	103,880
Amazonas.....	974	1,632
Pará.....	30,923	50,383
Rio Grande do Sul.....	75,937	124,887
Sergipe.....	26,881	43,886
Santa Catharina.....	12,829	21,098
Rio Grande do Norte.....	10,123	16,969
Piahy.....	21,216	34,802
Espirito Santo.....	21,216	34,892
Alagoas.....	30,397	49,091
Paraná.....	10,088	16,540
Matto Grosso.....	7,051	11,596
São Paulo.....	168,550	277,858
Bahia.....	116,109	190,953
Minas Geraes.....	289,919	476,806
Goyaz.....	6,663	11,451
Parahyba.....	25,696	42,095
Ceara.....	25,773	42,370
Total.....	1,368,254	\$2,204,940

It is stated that, in virtue of a recent revenue law, the emancipation fund will be doubled in the fiscal years 1881-'82, and be probably about \$1,000,000.

In the matter of immigration, Brazil has been particularly unfortunate, notwithstanding the many sacrifices she has made with a view to attracting useful colonists to her shores. Recent experiments with Russians have been attended with results so unfavorable as to discourage the Government from further attempts of the kind. Indeed, it would appear that the abandonment of state immigration has been resolved upon, and that recourse will hereafter be had to the more practical plan of reforming the land laws so as to facilitate grants, sales on credit, and leases, thus affording to small holders easy terms and security from former trammels. Notice is stated to have been transmitted to Europe that the "assisted passage" system would be discontinued, except in the case of already existing contracts; and on the 7th of May all Government lodging-houses were to be closed. Frequent allusion has been made in the British and in the Brazilian press to the disadvantage of allowing large tracts of land to be held on a nominal tenure, yet lying neglected and uncultivated; and it is hoped that the remedial measures just mentioned, together with others in con-

temptation, will not only remove old evils, but afford a free scope to labor, encouraging useful industry, and offering to settlers the incentive of being enabled to benefit their future condition by terms of equality. The subject of Chinese immigration has been mooted, with the assurance that experiments in that direction might prove eminently successful. As examples of the efficiency of Chinese labor, California and Australia have been alluded to; but in both of these the prevailing conditions were different from those characterizing Brazil, where the only desideratum is not competition for labor but hands to cultivate the soil.

The Emperor is Dom Pedro II, born December 2, 1825; proclaimed April 7, 1831; regency until July 23, 1840; crowned July 18, 1841; married September 4, 1843, to Theresa Christina Maria, daughter of the late King Francis I of the Two Sicilies.

A change of Ministry occurred early in the year, but did not result in a change of party, the Liberals continuing in power. The new Cabinet was made up as follows: Minister of the Interior, Baron Homem de Mello; of Justice, Councilor M. P. S. Dantas, Senator; of Foreign Affairs, Councilor P. L. Pereira de Souza, Deputy; of Finance, Councilor J. A. Saraiva, Senator, and President of the Council of State; of War, Viscount de Pelotas, Senator; of the Navy, Councilor J. R. Lima Duarte, Deputy; of Public Works, Commerce, and Agriculture, Councilor M. Buarque de Macedo, Deputy.

The Council of State was composed of the following members in ordinary: the Princess Imperial Donna Isabel; Prince Gaston d'Orléans, Count d'Eu; the Senators—Viscount d'Abaeté, Viscount de Muritiba, Viscount de Bom Retiro, Viscount de Jaguary, Viscount de Nietheroy, Viscount de Araxá, J. P. Dias de Carvalho, and J. J. Teixeira; Vice-Admiral J. R. de Lamare; Dr. P. J. Soares de Souza; and of six members extraordinary: Senators—J. L. C. Paranaçu and M. P. S. Dantas; Councilors—Martin Francisco and B. A. de M. Taques; Viscount de Prados, and Dr. J. C. de Andrade.

The President of the Senate, which comprises fifty-eight members elected for life, is Viscount de Jaguary; and the Vice-President, Count de Baependy.

The President of the Chamber of Deputies, with one hundred and twenty-two members elected for four years, is Viscount de Prados; and the Vice-President, F. de Almeida.

The Presidents of the several provinces were as follows:

Alagoas.....	Dr. C. Pinto da Silva.
Amazonas.....	Baron de Maracá.
Bahia.....	Dr. A. Aragão Buleao.
Ceará.....	Dr. J. J. de Albuquerque Barros.
Espirito Santo.....	Dr. E. S. Martins.
Goyaz.....	Dr. A. S. Spínola.
Maranhão.....	Dr. L. O. Lino de Vasconcellos.
Mato Grosso.....	Dr. J. J. Pedrosa.
Minas Geraes.....	Dr. M. J. G. Rebello Horta.
Pará.....	Dr. J. C. da Gama e Abreu.
Paraguayba.....	Dr. U. M. Pereira Vianna.
Paraná.....	Dr. M. P. S. Dantas Filho.

Pernambuco.....	Dr. A. de Barros Cavalcante.
Planhy.....	Dr. J. P. Belfort Vieira.
Rio Grande do Norte.....	Dr. R. L. Marcondes.
Rio de Janeiro.....	Dr. A. M. Marcondes de Andrade.
Santa Catharina.....	Dr. A. A. Oliveira.
São Paulo.....	Dr. L. A. de Brito.
São Pedro (Rio Grande) do Sul.....	Dr. F. Pereira da Silva.
Sergipe.....	Dr. T. F. dos Santos.

The Archbishop of Bahia, N——, is Primate of all Brazil, and there are eleven bishops: those of Pará, São Luiz, Fortaleza, Olinda, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Porto Alegre, Marianna, Diamantina, Goyaz, and Cuyabá.

The Brazilian Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary to the United States is Councilor A. P. de Carvalho Borges, accredited October 9, 1871; and the Brazilian Consul-General (for the Union) at New York is Senhor Salvador de Mendonça.

According to the law of February 27, 1875, military service is obligatory for all Brazilian citizens; but numerous exceptions are admitted, and substitution is allowable. The period of service is six years in the regular army, and three in the reserve. The regulation strength of the army in time of peace is fixed at 13,000 men; though the actual strength in 1880 was 15,804, of whom 1,743 were officers. The strength in time of war was to be fixed at 32,000. The arms were distributed as follows: Infantry, twenty-one battalions, eight garrison companies, and one dépôt company for drilling recruits; cavalry, five regiments, one squadron, and five garrison companies; artillery, three mounted regiments, and five foot-battalions; sappers and miners, one battalion; gendarmes, 8,340 men, of whom 931 were at Rio de Janeiro. The National Guard had been disbanded, and was to be reorganized on completion of the new census.

The navy, in 1880, consisted of nine iron-clad steamers, six steam-corvettes, sixteen steam-gunboats, and six steam-transports; and three sail of the line (one corvette and two smaller craft); with an aggregate of 3,758 men, and a total armament of 166 guns. There were, besides, five iron-clad ships, one gunboat, one school-ship, and one brig for midshipmen, all without armament; and there was a gunboat in process of building. There were in the navy 14 general staff-officers, 340 first-class officers, a sanitary corps 73 strong, 17 almoners, 88 accountants, 57 guardians, and 185 engineers; an imperial marine corps 2,695 strong; a naval battalion, 286, and 1,229 apprentices; total, 4,984 men.

The financial position of the empire may in general be considered to have improved, owing mainly to increased productions, the coffee-crop alone promising to fall little short of 300,000 tons (or 672,000,000 pounds)! The issue of gold bonds has proved a financial success—these obligations being largely held in England and in Brazil, and regarded as a favorite investment.

In a non-official report published in July, 1880, the revenue for the fiscal year 1878-79

was set down at \$115,302,355, and the expenditure at \$90,178,304, with a consequent surplus balance of \$25,124,051 for the year 18,9-'80.

In the budget for 1881-'82, the revenue and expenditure were respectively estimated as shown in the subjoined tables:

REVENUE.	
General receipts (ordinary and extraordinary)....	\$58,029,000
Emancipation fund.....	450,000
Total.....	\$58,479,000
EXPENDITURE.	
Ministry of the Interior	\$4,001,107
of Foreign Affairs	431,452
of Finance	29,735,877
of Justice	3,360,143
of Agriculture	9,538,830
of War	6,806,573
of the Navy.....	5,269,166
Total.....	\$59,143,378
Deficit	\$664,378

Later returns, however, published in September, 1880, gave the estimated revenue at \$57,129,000, and the expenditure at \$57,073,423, whereby, instead of a deficit, as above, there would be a surplus of \$55,577.

The total amount of the customs receipts at Rio de Janeiro, for 1879, was \$20,877,663, against \$20,339,380 for 1878, as follows: Import duties for 1879, \$15,977,499, against \$16,072,746 for 1878; export duties for 1879, \$4,900,164, against \$4,266,634 for 1878. The receipts at the same custom-house bid fair to show a still further increase for 1880, having amounted in the first three quarters of that year to \$15,772,151, against \$15,718,395 for the corresponding period in 1879.

A report was current in July, 1880, that the Brazilian customs tariff was again to be revised, and that the Minister of Finance had appointed a committee for that purpose. Such intelligence is far from gratifying, observes a Rio journal, as tariff revisions in Brazil have become synonymous with "tariff elevations." As stated in a previous volume,* the merchants of Rio de Janeiro, on the occasion of the last revision, were invited to take part in the work. After bestowing much time and labor on the question, they found that their suggestions had been uniformly acted upon when favoring an increase of duty, and disregarded when urging the necessity of a reduction. The tariff went into operation on January 1, 1880, and the short period of six months was sufficient to demonstrate that it was based on wrong principles: continual conflicts between the mercantile community and the custom-house officials, diminished importation and sale of certain kinds of commodities, enhanced cost of all means of living for the working-classes, new difficulties in the collection of duties, multiplied complaints of the people, and a general decrease of receipts (spite of the promising state of things at the Rio custom-house, as above

referred to)—such were the results produced by its application.

The subjoined table exhibits the amount and branches of the national debt of Brazil on March 30, 1880:

Foreign debt, at five per cent. interest, payable in gold.....	\$75,538,666	
HOME DEBT.		
Payable in paper money, at four, five, and six per cent.....	\$768,753,550	
Payable in gold, at six per cent.....	37,055,500	
		205,812,050
FLOATING DEBT.		
Debt prior to 1827.....	\$160,365	
Orphans' and other funds.....	25,438,829	
Treasury notes (at two, four, and six months).....	6,166,350	
Paper money (Government notes*)	94,399,795	
		126,365,839
Total.....		\$407,716,065

The following extract from a British financial journal will be found to contain interesting remarks on the Brazilian home debt, and Brazilian credit generally:

In September, 1879, Brazilian five per cents. of the 1865 issue had a medium quotation of 93: in the third week of September, 1880, the corresponding price of these bonds was 96. Some allowance must be made for the fact that all securities have been gradually hardening in price of late in consequence of the cheapness of money; but, even allowing for this, we think it must be admitted that Brazilian credit has improved during the past twelve months. When foreign bonds fell into general discredit, four or five years since, on the collapse of Paraguay, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Honduras, Turkey, Peru, etc. (to say nothing of the partial defaults of Spain, Egypt, and Uruguay), Brazil found her credit seriously weakened, and she became unable to negotiate further loans in London. Under these circumstances, she adopted probably the best and most sensible course which she could pursue—she raised a considerable loan at home. Although the rate of interest attached to this internal loan did not exceed 4½ per cent. per annum, the operation proved completely successful, and while it placed the Brazilian Treasury in funds, it had the further advantage of showing that Brazil possessed such ample resources at home that she really could afford to dispense with English assistance. The 4½ per cent. internal loan concluded by Brazil in 1879 marked, indeed, a new era in Brazilian finance, and reestablished Brazilian credit. The result has been an advance of three per cent. in Brazilian five per cents. of 1865, and a still greater hardening in the securities of railways guaranteed by Brazil. There certainly appear to be order, regularity, and good faith in the financial administration of Brazil. In the bonds of Brazil issued in London the Emperor of Brazil pledges his "imperial and sacred word" that the conditions of the various Brazilian loans shall be scrupulously adhered to; and thus far his Majesty's "imperial and sacred word" has certainly been found to be thoroughly reliable. In her present Emperor Brazil is blessed with a wise and beneficent ruler, distinguished by tendencies at once conservative and liberal. Brazil is deeply indebted to Dom Pedro Segundo.

The long-pending British claims against Brazil have again come to the surface, and hopes are entertained of their settlement through the mediation of Mr. Ford, now accredited as British Minister to Brazil, and whose name was associated with the famous fishery question between England and the United States.

* Exclusive of the notes of the Bank of Brazil and of the banks of Bahia, Pernambuco, and Maranhão, the aggregate amount of which in circulation in 1879 was about \$13,500,000.

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878.

The foreign trade of the empire for the year 1878-'79 was of the total value of \$183,782,150, of which \$102,029,250 were for exports and \$81,752,900 for imports.

The annexed table exhibits the names and values of the chief staples of export for the year just mentioned:

Commodities.	Values.
Coffee.....	\$56,740,950
Sugar.....	10,906,050
India-rubber.....	3,450,400
Raw cotton.....	4,593,150
Tobacco.....	3,589,550
Skins.....	4,176,250
Maté (Paraguay tea).....	1,357,800
Gold (ingots and dust).....	1,111,150
Diamonds.....	472,250

The imports from Great Britain in 1878 were of the value of \$27,889,760, against \$29,793,275 in 1877; and the exports from Brazil to Great Britain in 1878 were of the value of \$23,252,425, against \$31,724,805 in 1877. A marked decrease is here observable; and, indeed, the trade between these two countries has been steadily declining since 1874, in which year the imports from, and the exports to,

Great Britain were of the values of \$38,392,265 and \$35,015,650 respectively.

Of all the articles of production in Brazil, and of all the Brazilian export staples, coffee is by far the most important, and the chief shipping ports for the staple are Rio de Janeiro and Santos. From the following table it will be seen that while the quantity exported from Rio in the year ending June 30, 1880, was nearly 20 per cent. less than in the year immediately preceding, it closely approximated the average of the past six years. The Rio average is at present about 173,000 tons,* while that for Santos has risen to 55,000 tons, the exports from the latter port having been, however, considerably above that average in the past two years. The total average shipments of coffee from Brazil for the past five or six years closely approximate 225,000 tons; but in 1878-'79 they reached 280,000 tons, and there is every prospect of a crop of 235,000 tons from the Rio district in 1880-'81, and as much as 60,000 tons from Santos, or a total approaching to 672,000,000 pounds!

Coffee Shipments from Rio de Janeiro for the Six Years from July 31, 1874, to June 30, 1880.

DESTINATION.	1874-'75.	1875-'76.	1876-'77.	1877-'78.	1878-'79.	1879-'80.	Annual average for six years.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Channel, Germany, and England.....	29,672	27,887	24,016	20,847	31,991	25,924	26,728
Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Baltic.....	2,272	3,270	2,071	1,141	921	1,402	1,846
Havre, Bordeaux, and Antwerp.....	19,933	3,411	15,350	16,287	24,239	12,157	16,901
North of Europe.....	51,877	44,568	41,067	38,275	57,151	39,483	45,470
Mediterranean.....	20,089	17,160	21,963	17,186	20,799	14,632	18,633
Europe.....	71,966	61,498	63,430	55,461	77,950	54,115	64,168
United States.....	103,632	98,529	90,056	88,319	121,966	116,210	102,144
Cape of Good Hope, and elsewhere.....	5,980	4,771	5,822	6,215	10,545	8,592	6,947
Total.....	151,623	163,028	159,808	149,995	210,461	172,777	173,199

It is reported that jute is to become an article of export from Brazil, and that a privilege has been granted to the Messrs. Steel for the production of it on waste lands, particularly in the vicinity of Rio de Janeiro. Judging from what it has done for East Indian exports, it is fair to presume it will prove a valuable accretion to the Brazilian staples.

The projected establishment at Rio of a permanent exhibition for American manufactures was much talked of in the past year.

The shipping movements at the various ports of the empire in 1878-'79 were as follows:

VESSELS.	Number.	Tonnage.
ENTERED.		
Ocean.....	2,368	2,414,985
Coasting.....	5,946	1,529,752
CLEARED.		
Ocean.....	3,057	2,863,554
Coasting.....	5,746	1,176,006

The Brazilian Government has contracted with Mr. William Darley Bentley for a monthly

line of mail-steamers between Rio de Janeiro and Halifax, N. S., calling at Bahia, Pernambuco, Ceará, Maranhão, Pará, and St. Thomas, W. I., making the trip from Rio in twenty-nine days, and from Halifax in twenty-eight days, with privilege of calling at Montreal, at the option of the contractor. The vessels are to be of at least eighteen hundred tons burden (gross), with accommodations for forty first-class and one hundred steerage passengers. The subsidy is 100,000 milreis currency per annum, and the contract is for ten years. The service is to commence on October 1, 1881. In case of the repeal by Canada of the favors of the revenue law of 1879, the Brazilian Government may cancel the contract, giving six months' notice. The contractor was to furnish a guarantee of 10,000 milreis within three months of the date of the contract.

The Amazon Steam Navigation Company is spoken of as an enterprise highly creditable to Brazil.

At the end of 1879 there were in the empire 1,911 miles of railway, and 4,340 miles of telegraph, with 123 offices, the number of dispatches having been 232,022. Brazilian progress

* Of 2,240 pounds each.

is in a great measure due to the development of the railway system of the empire. A seven per cent. imperial guarantee is now given in the case of all lines having a Government sanction. Most of the lines have been constructed with British capital and by British contractors, and the main offices of some are situated in London. Some concessions have, however, been obtained and the necessary capital raised by local contractors; and a new line from the port of Paranaguá to Coritiba, the capital of the province of Paraná, and inaugurated in April last by his Majesty Dom Pedro II, is due to the enterprise of a French company, who also provided the required capital. Many of the civil engineers engaged on the native railways, and some of those on the English-built lines, are Brazilians, engineering being a profession high in favor at present in Brazil.

An important event in Brazilian submarine telegraphy was the concession, in October last, to the Western and Brazilian Telegraph Company, to extend their cable from Pará to Cayenne, their intention being to establish communication at the latter point with the United States cable.

Among the more important improvements during the past year may be mentioned the construction of water-works for supplying the city of Rio de Janeiro.

Here follows the Emperor's speech on the occasion of closing the legislative session ordinary of 1880, and opening the session extraordinary, on October 5th:

AUGUST AND MOST WORTHY REPRESENTATIVES OF THE NATION: The meeting of the General Assembly is always an event productive of lively satisfaction.

It is pleasant to me to inform you that good relations of friendship continue between Brazil and the foreign powers; but I am unable as yet to have the pleasure of announcing to you the cessation of the war between the Republic of Chili and those of Peru and Bolivia.

Public order has suffered no alteration.

Thanks to Divine Providence, copious rains have terminated the drought which devastated some of the northern provinces.

I thank you for the solicitude with which, while diminishing the burdens of the nation, you have adopted adequate measures for the production of an equilibrium of the public expenditure and revenue.

The imperative need of giving a definite solution to electoral reform has induced the convocation of the extraordinary session.

August and most trustworthy representatives of the nation:

I expect from your patriotism the decretal of a law securing freedom of voting.

The ordinary legislative session is closed, and the session extraordinary is open.

The first clause of the long-discussed electoral bill was adopted by the Senate in the month above alluded to; it was regarded as the most important, as being pregnant with elements of much-needed reform, such as direct election, instead of the obsolescent system of indirect election; but, unfortunately, it was sent to the Senate shorn of its brightest adornments—provision for the admission to Parlia-

ment of naturalized citizens and citizens of all creeds.

BRIGHT, JOHN, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster in the new Cabinet of Mr. Gladstone, was born November 16, 1811, at Greenbank, near Rochdale. His father, Jacob Bright, was a cotton-spinner and manufacturer of Rochdale, and belonged to the Society of Friends. John entered his father's business at the age of fifteen, and devoted his leisure hours with great zeal to the study of the best works on history, politics, and national economy. After his return from a journey on the Continent of Europe, he made his first appearance in 1831 as a political speaker in the agitation against Church rates. He became widely known by the prominent part he took in the Anti-Corn-Law League, which grew out of an association formed in 1838 to obtain the repeal of the corn-laws. He won so great distinction as a political speaker, that the League, which extended its operations over all England, appointed him, in 1839, one of its official agitators. In April, 1843, he was the candidate of the League for the city of Durham, but was defeated. In July, 1844, he was, however, returned for the same city, which he represented until 1847. In union with Cobden, Milner Gibson, Fox, and others, he was one of the foremost speakers of the League until its victory was decided in 1846. In 1847 he was returned for Manchester, and was now regarded in every respect as one of the leaders of the Manchester party. He particularly cooperated with Mr. Cobden in the movement which the latter sought to create in favor of financial reform. He demanded efficient relief measures for Ireland, an investigation of the condition of India, and a reduction of the naval and military establishment of the kingdom. He opposed, in 1850, Lord Russell's Ecclesiastical Title Bill and Lord Palmerston's Continental policy. When, two years later, the Derby-Disraeli Cabinet threatened a restoration of the protective system, he actively contributed to its overthrow. Thus far, Mr. Bright's reputation and influence had steadily grown, but the decided opposition which he made to England's participation in the Eastern War alienated many of his former friends, and in the general election following Lord Palmerston's appeal to the country, in 1857, both he and Mr. Milner Gibson were rejected by a large majority. When, a few months later, a vacancy occurred at Birmingham, Mr. Bright was invited to become a candidate, and he was elected in August, 1857. He has continued to represent Birmingham ever since. Mr. Bright's name, during the last twenty years, has been prominently identified with the extension of the right of suffrage and the reform of the electoral laws of England. During the civil war in the United States, he warmly sympathized with the North. He visited Ireland in 1866, and was entertained in Dublin at a public banquet; but, on the whole, his reception was not as enthusiastic as his English friends

had anticipated. In 1868 the city of Edinburgh presented him with the freedom of the city. In the same year Mr. Bright became for the first time a member of the Cabinet, being appointed President of the Board of Trade in Mr. Gladstone's first Cabinet. Illness compelled him to relinquish this office in December, 1870, and he did not again take office until 1873, when he was appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. He held that post until February, 1874, when the Liberal Cabinet went out of office. Selections of his political speeches have appeared under the titles: "Speeches on Parliamentary Reform" (London, 1867); "Speeches on Questions of Public Policy" (edited by Rogers, 2 vols., London, 1869); and "Speeches on the Public Affairs" (London, 1869). A "Life of John Bright" has been published by Mr. Gilchrist (London, 1868).

BROCA, Dr. PAUL, French Senator and scientist, died July 9th. He was born in 1824, at Sainte-Foy-la-Grande, Gironde; studied medicine under his eminent father, graduated from the Paris Faculté de Médecine in 1844, and became an assistant in the hospital. He won several prizes, became demonstrator of anatomy and prosecutor, and in 1849 took his degree of M.D. In 1852 he published a thesis on the "Pathological Anatomy of Cancer." In 1853 he passed as surgeon, and became successively surgeon of the Bicêtre, the Salpêtrière, the Saint Antoine, and Professor of Surgical Clinics at La Pitié. He published works on "Abdominal Hernia" (1856); "Aneurisms" (1856); "Surgical Hypnotic Anæsthesia" (1859); "Fractures and Osseous Regeneration" (1859); "Resuscitating Animals" (1860); "Animal Hybridity in General and Human Hybridity in Particular" (1860); and "Treatise on Tumors" (1865). He was conjoint author with Bonamy, Beau, and Hirschfeld, of "The Descriptive Atlas of the Anatomy of the Human Body," an invaluable work. He was also a frequent contributor to the bulletins of various societies. He was a member of the Anatomical, Biological, Philomathic, and Surgical Societies, and a corresponding member of the leading foreign scientific associations. He was the principal founder of the French Anthropological Society. He was the director of the School of Anthropology and of the Anthropological Laboratory of the École des Hautes Études. His anthropological researches resulted in the publication (1865) of a manual in regard to the best mode of conducting them, followed by "The Physical Character of Prehistoric Man" (1868), and "The Comparative Anatomy of Man and the Primates" (1869). He contributed important articles to the "Encyclopædic Dictionary of the Medical Sciences." Dr. Broca was one of the earliest adherents in France to the Darwinian theory. His advocacy of these views prevented at first his election to the Senate. He was a moderate republican in politics, and in 1880 he was elected life-senator in the place

of Count Montalivet. He was President of the Congress of Anthropology held in Paris at the Trocadéro, during the Universal Exposition of 1878.

BROUGHAM, JOHN, an American playwright, actor, and scholar, was born in Dublin, Ireland, May 8, 1810. He graduated with honor at Trinity College, Dublin. Charles Lever was one of his classmates, and Brougham is said to have been the original of "Harry Lorrequer." He studied medicine, but never became a surgeon. He made his *début* as an actor in 1830 in the extravaganza of "Tom and Jerry," played at a small theatre in Tottenham Court Road, London. As "general utility man," in 1832 he joined the company under the management of Madame Vestris, first at the Olympic and afterward at Covent Garden. In 1840 he undertook the management of the Lyceum Theatre, London. He then began his career as playwright, his first work being "Life in the Clouds." To retrieve his fortunes he came to the United States in 1842, and made his *début* at the Park Theatre, New York, as *Tim Moore* in "The Irish Lion." He became a favorite, and his popularity as an actor never waned during his long career upon the American stage. His misfortunes were due to his attempts as manager, for which position he was unfitted. He founded Brougham's Lyceum (afterward Wallack's), tried the Bowery Theatre, and finally leased Fisk's Fifth Avenue Theatre, all of which proved as unlucky as his first venture in London. He produced many plays, the well-known burlesques "Metamora," "Columbus," and "Pocahontas"; an adaptation from "Dombey and Son," which held the stage for many seasons; "The Haunted Man," "Gold Dust," and numerous others. The best of his comedies, "Playing with Fire," was played in New York, and afterward in London, with marked success. His well-known adaptation from Féval's "Le Bossu," called "The Duke's Motto," was written for Fechter, of whose company he was then a member. In 1861 Brougham went to London and played at the Lyceum and Princess's Theatres. He returned to America and resumed his theatrical career. The failure of a banking firm swept away his fortune; broken in health but not in spirit, he spent his last days in the city with which he was identified. A benefit organized by his fellow-players produced over ten thousand dollars, with which an annuity was purchased. He died in New York on June 7th, aged seventy. He left an autobiography, and an unpublished play called "Home Rule."

BULGARIA, a principality of Southeastern Europe, which was created in 1878 by the Treaty of Berlin, as a dependency of Turkey. Reigning Prince, Alexander I,* elected in 1879; area, 63,865 square kilometres (1 kilometre=

* For a biography of Alexander I, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, article ALEXANDER I; for an account of the history of the race, of the progress of education, of newspapers, of industry, and of the Bulgarian Church, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878, article BULGARIA.

0-386 square mile): population, 1,859,000. The capital, Sophia, has about 18,000 inhabitants. The population of the other principal cities—Tirnova (formerly the capital) 12,000, Widdin 19,000, Rustchuk 23,000, Varna 16,000. The only railroad in operation was that from Rustchuk to Varna, 224 kilometres. The National Assembly consists of the Exarch or head of the Bulgarian Church, of one half of the bishops, one half of the Presidents and members of the Supreme Court, one half of the Presidents of the district courts and of the commercial court, and of deputies of the people—one member representing 20,000 persons.

Prince Alexander has sought, by making visits of friendship and courtesy to Russia, Servia, and Roumania, to strengthen the relations of Bulgaria with the states allied to it by sympathies of race and neighborhood. The efforts of the Government to perfect measures for efficient administration and the consolidation and development of the resources of the country have been hindered by the excess in the amount of obligations to which the principality was committed, and the cost of necessary works over the available revenues. The popular movement in favor of the annexation of East Roumelia has been strong, and has tended to become stronger. The obligations of the Government were stated previous to the meeting of the National Assembly, in April, to consist of £1,200,000 due to Russia, £130,000 to railway companies, and the tribute to Turkey, the amount of which, as well as the amount of the general Turkish debt that would be allotted to Bulgaria to bear, was not yet fixed. To meet these obligations, the revenue of the year was £760,000, or about half the sum which the Turks had raised annually from the provinces constituting the principality, and the whole of that sum had been spent on the army, the civil service, and other ordinary objects. The Government had, furthermore, undertaken to complete the railways from the frontier of Roumelia to the frontier of Servia, a distance of between 60 and 70 miles, at a cost which was estimated at £500,000. At a later date, M. Camille Farcy, in an article published in the "*Nouvelle Revue*," supposing that the tribute would be fixed at the amount which Roumania had paid before the war, or £40,000, and that the principality would be called upon to bear one twentieth part of the Turkish debt, showed that Bulgaria would start with a national debt of £12,000,000, imposing an annual charge of £800,000. Adding the amount that the state had engaged to pay on account of the railways, at least £1,000,000 sterling of an annual revenue, which it was estimated could not amount at its maximum to more than £1,600,000, was appropriated in advance by the Treaty of Berlin. The problem of meeting the treaty engagements of the country and carrying on its administration was thus one which might puzzle men more versed in statesmanship than the untrained deputies of the National Assembly.

The budget, published in July, showed a deficit of £560,000, while the annual expenditure was estimated at £1,800,000, of which amount the Minister of War would require £25,000.

The National Assembly was opened April 4th, by Prince Alexander in person. In his speech from the throne, which was delivered in the Bulgarian language, the Prince referred in terms of satisfaction to the visit he had recently made to Russia, and to the friendly reception which the Czar had given him, and expressed gratification at the especial interest which his Majesty took in the welfare and national development of Bulgaria. He announced that bills would be introduced to promote education, to establish an efficient police, and to impose a land-tax. All of the members of the diplomatic body were present. The new Ministry was constituted as follows: M. Zancoff, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign affairs; M. Caraveloff, Minister of Finance; M. Stoganoff, Minister of Justice; M. Ticheff, Minister of the Interior; M. Gazelev, Minister of Public Instruction; General Ehrenroth, Minister of War. The Ministers were all educated in Russia, and were understood to favor the immediate annexation of East Roumelia. A bill to require all Bulgarians dwelling in Roumania and Servia to be naturalized as subjects of the Bulgarian Principality, which was introduced into the Assembly, was objected to by the Roumanian Government, on the ground that it would interfere with its territorial rights, and was withdrawn upon its representation of the case.

The agitation for the incorporation of East Roumelia with Bulgaria was kept up actively, in both the principality and the province. It was promoted by the gymnastic societies, peculiar organizations of Bulgarians, whose proceedings had rather the character of military drills and exercises of volunteers than that implied by their names. Care was taken, by requiring that admission to the societies could be gained only by election, to prevent the possibility of Turks and Greeks joining them, and embarrassing them in the prosecution of their political objects. The Governor-General of East Roumelia ordered the societies to be suppressed in February, and a considerable number of the most fervid agitators left the province and came into Bulgaria. In July, the Porte received information that the Bulgarian Committee were concerting a plan of action in the event of a rupture between Greece and Turkey. The excitement on the subject was kept up by frequent incursions from Bulgaria over the border, conflicts with Greeks and Turks, and reports of the importation of arms and the formation of military companies, and the agitation for union was fed by numerous wild rumors. Emissaries from Sophia were said in July to be traversing Macedonia and proclaiming to the Bulgarian peasants that the empire of Alexander the Great was to be restored, and to be instigating the formation of

committees in the towns and villages, and the gathering of contributions in support of the movement. Considerable numbers of Russian arms were imported into Bulgaria, and an extraordinary number of Russian officers were said to be entering the Bulgarian military service. A denial of the unfavorable significance attached to these circumstances was published in the "Journal of St. Petersburg," which explained that the Russian officers were going to replace others who were leaving the Bulgarian service, and that the purchases of arms were designed to replace the inferior arms of old patterns which the militia had been obliged to use, with new weapons of a better pattern, and that they were made in Russia because the Bulgarians found the most favorable market there. The arms and ammunition were bought and landed openly. An approaching union with East Roumelia was spoken of in Bulgaria during the summer, but the movement would be delayed, it was declared, by those who talked of it, until late in the fall or winter, when the Turks would not be able easily to occupy the passes of the Balkans. Reports at the beginning of August indicated that the movement might be more comprehensive than had been expected, and might embrace also the forcible annexation of the Dobrudja. An address was presented to Prince Alexander by a deputation of the Bulgarians of Macedonia, declaring that they looked to their liberated brethren to procure for them a speedy deliverance from the Ottoman yoke, and expressing an anxious desire for union with Bulgaria, according to the provisions of the Treaty of San Stefano, which the Prince was conjured not to forget. The Prince was said to have given the deputation an encouraging reply. Colonel Wilson, a European officer who made a tour of official inspection in East Roumelia, reported on his return that he had ascertained that preparations were being made by the Panslavists with a view to union in the event of a war between Greece and Turkey. Several reports were circulated to the effect that Russian vessels were secretly landing arms at places on the Danube, all of which were declared to be false. On the 10th of September a semi-official statement was published at Berlin to the effect that "there is reason to believe that Russia is disposed at the present time to look coldly upon the agitation in favor of the formation of a Great Bulgaria. The Russian Government appears to deprecate any reopening of the Eastern question, although it may not be disposed to make a distinct avowal to that effect." On the 2d of October Prince Alexander addressed a letter to the Czar, announcing his satisfaction with the results of his inspections of the troops and the military establishments, and thanking his Majesty "for having allowed Russian officers to come and organize the Bulgarian army, and to make it worthy of the great objects it is called upon to pursue. Those officers have fully and entirely justified the confidence which

I have shown in them from the beginning, and have thereby rendered a great service to their own country." He also asked to be permitted to thank the Russian officers, on behalf of the Czar, by an order of the day.

The second session of the National Assembly was opened November 1st, by M. Zancoff, the President of the Council, representing Prince Alexander. In the speech from the throne the Prince again referred to the strong interest which the Czar had shown in the welfare of the country during his visit to Russia, and to the marks of good-will he had received during his visits to Servia and Roumania. Bulgaria also enjoyed the sympathy and good-will of the other powers of Europe. The condition of the troops was declared to be excellent. As regarded other branches of administration, Bulgaria had need of constant and earnest activity in order to secure for itself its proper development and to fulfill its mission in the Balkan Peninsula.

Prince Alexander made a visit to Russia during the winter, stopping on the way for two days at Bucharest as the guest of Prince Charles of Roumania. He was entertained by the Czar at the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg, and was engaged in conversation with his Imperial Majesty at the time the explosion in the palace took place, February 18th. The results of his visits at both courts, as represented by the Prince in his addresses to the Assembly, were favorable to Bulgaria, and of a character to encourage the hope of a continued friendship between the two nations. In October the Prince made a visit to Servia, with the understood purpose of conferring with Prince Milan about matters of common interest to the two countries. He was met on the frontier at Radajevatz by General Leschjanin and staff, who had been commissioned by the Prince to welcome him, and was received on his arrival at Belgrade by Prince Milan and the Ministers of State.

The geodetic and astronomical survey of the Balkan Peninsula, which was begun by the Russians in 1877, has been nearly completed. In June, 1880, the trigonometrical network of the observations and measurements covered the whole of Bulgaria and East Roumelia, and a part of the Turkish territory, and had been connected with the Russian and Austrian surveys.

BURMAH,* a kingdom in Farther India. Area, 470,000 square kilometres (190,000 square miles); population, 4,000,000.

The events of the year in Burmah most worthy of notice were those connected with the efforts of the Government to resume diplomatic relations with England and the European powers. After the withdrawal of the British *chargé d'affaires* from Mandalay in October, 1879, an embassy, composed of persons who it was supposed would be acceptable to the Brit-

* For a fuller geographical account, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, article BURMAH.

ish, was dispatched to negotiate with the Indian Government. The envoys were detained at the frontier by order of the Viceroy, and were informed that they would not be allowed to proceed unless they bore authority to assent to stipulations which would render the position of a British Resident at Mandalay tolerable. During the delay to which the legation was thus subjected, the chief of the body applied to the British Deputy-Commissioner at Rangoon, asking for copies of the Penal Code and the Code of Civil Procedure, and other works illustrating the character of English laws and institutions, saying in explanation of his request that he wished to employ the opportunity that was given him in making himself acquainted with the British legal system. The "Mandalay Gazette" of February 22d published an announcement that the King contemplated sending a mission to visit England, France, and Italy, for the purpose of studying everything connected with the mode of government among European nations, including their criminal and civil codes, their revenue systems, and their military regulations; with the aid of the information thus obtained, he designed selecting the best features of administration in each country for adoption in his own kingdom. The English believed that the real object of this scheme was to negotiate a treaty with another power than the British, and to seek aid in the construction of railways. The embassy, which was waiting at Thyetmayoo for the permission of the Indian Government to proceed, in time exhibited a royal order defining its powers, and authorizing it to negotiate a new treaty with England. Mr. Aitchison, the British Deputy-Commissioner, replied to the new application of the envoys, that the credentials they had presented were not sufficient, since they failed to confer plenary powers, and added that, while he would gladly wait for the result of a fresh application to Mandalay for powers, it was desirable that the embassy should go back, unless there was good reason to hope that substantial overtures would soon be made. Visits of courtesy were afterward exchanged between the Deputy-Commissioner and the members of the embassy. During April the envoys submitted propositions for a treaty, embodying provisions that residences should be established at Rangoon or Calcutta and at Mandalay; that Burmah should be allowed to send a consul to London; that criminals should be tried by the laws of the country in which the crime was committed; that political offenders taking refuge in the residency of either government should be given up to the power to whose laws they were answerable; that the monopolies in petroleum, teak, and rubies should be continued, and other goods should be sold at former rates; that the Burmese should be permitted to import arms and munitions of war subject to the approval of the Chief Commissioner, who should not be authorized to re-

fuse his consent if friendly relations prevailed; and that all other provisions of former treaties should continue in force. The draft was not acceptable to the British, because it contained no provisions for a guard for the residency, or for the relaxation of the humiliating etiquette which the sovereign of Burmah imposed upon the representatives of foreign powers, and which practically forbade the Resident from having interviews with the King, and thus left the principal grievances that had been complained of unredressed. The embassy was, therefore, dismissed, the Deputy-Commissioner assigning as an additional reason why it could not be entertained any longer, that as a change in the Government of India was imminent, it would be necessary to postpone the negotiations for the present, so that the new Viceroy should not be hampered in his action.

The frontier was troubled by raids and disorders which the Government professed to be unable to prevent. An irruption was made in the spring upon the territory of the Rajah of Manipoor. The Governor of Sillemyo detained the mail-steamer Yonan, and was arrested for the offense and taken in irons to Mandalay by the embassy returning from Thyetmayoo. An order was afterward issued to the *Woons* along the river, instructing them not to summon the captains of steamers ashore, but to go on board the vessels if they had business, with not more than five unarmed followers. In May an insurrection broke out near the British frontier, in the interest of Prince Nyoungoke, who had been residing at Calcutta. The Prince escaped from British surveillance, crossed the border, and took the lead of a small force of rebels, to which numerous accessions were soon made. The insurgents were successful in the first engagements, but having neither arms nor money, were incapable of affording a steady opposition to the royal troops, and were defeated and scattered after a few conflicts. Prince Nyoungoke fled to British territory, where he was taken prisoner and held by the British. Late in August the apartments of King Thebaw were entered by a Ponghee, designing to assassinate the King, but he and his design were betrayed by a dagger falling from his garments. The Ponghee had twelve accomplices associated with him, one of whom, his nephew, and himself, were put to death.

The Burmese made a demonstration against the British frontier early in October, with two bodies of troops, one consisting of seven hundred and fifty, the other of three hundred men. It was believed to be the purpose of the King to demand an indemnity for the damage which the kingdom had suffered from the insurrection of Prince Nyoungoke. The British admitted that a color of justification existed for such a demand, for the Indian Government, after having given the Prince refuge from the pursuit of the King, had permitted him to escape and make war upon his territory, and had

again afforded him protection after he was defeated and obliged to fly from the consequences of his offense. It might be proper, they reasoned, to give satisfaction upon a proper diplomatic representation of the case, but it could not be regarded as expedient in the presence of a threat. The British Chief Commissioner represented, a few days after the demonstration occurred, that the accounts that had been given of it were exaggerated, that there was no continued cause for alarm, and he did not anticipate trouble; and that he had directed the Deputy-Commissioner to provide better means for securing information, so that the troops should not be harassed and the public disturbed by overdrawn reports. The Burmese accounted for the demonstration by explaining that the troops had been collected as a precautionary measure in consequence of the number of *dakooties*, and of a rumor that Prince Nyoungeke had escaped from Calcutta.

BUTLER, GENERAL WILLIAM ORLANDO, was born in Jessamine County, Kentucky, in 1791. He was of Irish ancestry, his grandparents having immigrated before the Revolution. His grandfather, father, and four uncles fought through the struggle for independence with such distinction that Lafayette said of the five brothers, "When I want a thing well done, I order a Butler to do it." General William O. Butler was a not unworthy scion of the stock from which he sprang. He was a nephew of General Richard Butler, of Pennsylvania, who was killed at St. Clair's defeat, and son of General Percival Butler, of Revolutionary fame. His parents removed in his infancy to Mayslick, Bullitt County, Kentucky, where he passed his boyhood. He graduated at Transylvania University in 1812, and was studying law under Robert Wickliffe at Lexington, when, at the breaking out of hostilities with England, he left his office, enlisted as a private, and hastened to the relief of Fort Wayne. Promoted ensign in the 17th United States Infantry, he was at the two disastrous battles of January 18th and 22d, 1813, at Raisin River. He distinguished himself in the second engagement. The Indians, sheltered in a farm-building, were pouring a murderous fire into their assailants, when the American commander exclaimed, "Will no one burn that barn?" Ensign Butler seized a torch, and, crossing alone through a concentrated shower of rifle-balls, applied it to the hay and dislodged the enemy. He was afterward wounded and taken prisoner. His sufferings from cold, hunger, and the inhumanity of his captors were unparalleled. Paroled at Fort Niagara, amid perils and hardships he traversed the country to Kentucky. Commissioned a captain, he raised a company which was attached to the 44th Infantry, and under its daring commander did good service at Pensacola. He was ordered to New Orleans, where on the night of December 23, 1814, while in command of four companies on the left wing, he attacked and repulsed General Sir Edward

Packenham. This check gave time for the construction of defenses at Chalmette, which on the 8th of January enabled the Americans to repel a force double their own and win a decisive victory. For his conduct on the 23d, he was made brevet major; while his bravery on the 8th is thus mentioned in General Jackson's report: "He displayed the heroic chivalry and calmness of judgment in the midst of danger, that distinguish the valuable officer in the hour of battle." In the following year he succeeded his brother, Major Thomas Butler, as aide-de-camp to General Jackson. He remained always a friend to that soldier, and made a brilliant defense of him before the courts in the endeavor to obtain the remission of a fine of one thousand dollars imposed upon General Jackson for military acts at New Orleans.

In 1817 he resigned from the army, and resumed the practice of the law. Although not a candidate, he was elected in that year to the Legislature, and served through three consecutive terms. In 1839 he was sent to Congress by the Democratic party. In 1841 he was again returned, and subsequently declined a third nomination. He was a member of the House of Representatives during a period when the act abolishing imprisonment for debt to the United States, that establishing the sub-Treasury, the celebrated Tariff Act of 1842, and other important bills were passed. In all these debates General Butler took a leading part. He was undoubtedly the most popular Democrat in his State, and during the Whig ascendancy he was induced to accept the nomination for Governor, with no hope of election, but with the effect of reducing the majorities of the rival party from twenty-eight thousand to less than five thousand. His success at the bar was very marked, but the breaking out of the Mexican War again induced him to join the army. In June, 1846, he was appointed major-general of volunteers. He reported to General Taylor, and in Texas and northern Mexico he bore a prominent part. At the siege of Monterey, September 24th, he charged a battery, was wounded in the leg, and was sent home. He rejoined the army of General Scott the following year, and was at the capture of the city of Mexico. In 1848, being senior major-general, he succeeded General Scott in the chief command, and was holding that position when peace was signed, May 29, 1848. His distinguished services were recognized at home. Kentucky presented him with a sword in testimony of his "gallantry in the desperate charge at Monterey," and Congress voted him another sword, which bears a similar inscription.

In May, 1848, the National Democratic Convention at Baltimore nominated General Butler for Vice-President, on the same ticket where Lewis Cass, of Michigan, held the first place. This ticket was defeated by the schism in the party, and the nomination in New York of Free-Soil candidates, Van Buren and Adams.

General Butler remained in private life after

this election. He refused a nomination to be Governor of the Territory of Nebraska in 1855. Once only he reappeared on the public stage as a member of the "Peace Congress" which in 1861 met at Washington City, composed of able and prominent men who sought in vain to avoid the evil of civil war which then threatened the country. He was a poet of no mean rank, a man of liberal education, of a command-

ing personal appearance and courteous manners, of unblemished character, of comprehensive patriotism, unalterably attached to the Union of the States. After a life of devotion to right and truth, and an old age spent in deeds of charity and words of wise counsel, the scarred hero sank to rest at his home in Carrollton, Kentucky, on Friday, August 6th, in the ninetyeth year of his age.

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CALIFORNIA. The Legislature met January 5th, and closed its sessions April 16th. It was the first Legislature after the adoption of the new Constitution, and had the heavy task to perform of revising the political and criminal codes, the organization of county governments, and the laws of taxation and revenue, so as to make them conform to the alterations in the fundamental law. The Republican majority in both Houses was disposed to place the most conservative possible construction on many of the provisions of the Constitution. An active and aggressive minority, with more radical views, took a prominent part in the introduction of bills, and disputed warmly many of the measures proposed by the other side. The debates were spirited, sometimes stormy, and on a few occasions disorderly. Many bills were introduced upon pressing questions in which all the parties favor some degree of reform, such as the regulation of the mining business and speculation in mining stocks, the protection of farm-lands, rivers, and harbors from *débris* washed into the cañons in hydraulic mining and swept into the valleys by freshets, changes in the land laws to restrict the accumulation of vast landed estates, etc.; but a reaction against the spirit of innovation which has marked recent Californian politics ruled in the minds of the majority, and the projected laws on these subjects were defeated after a long contest, excepting one on the urgent *débris* question, upon which several bills were discussed, and one was finally framed which became a law, the most important act of the session excepting the Revenue Bill. In hostility to the Chinese all factions were in harmony. A number of anti-Chinese bills were passed without much opposition, of the constitutionality of which many admitted doubts; but, borne out by the requirements of the State Constitution and their electoral mandates, they felt it incumbent upon them to satisfy the general popular sentiment as to the kind of legislation required, leaving the question of its validity to be determined by the courts. There was a determination, in view of the amount of business to be transacted, to question the literal construction of the clause contained in the new Constitution which requires that all bills should be read through three times in each House. The Judiciary Committee of the Assembly declared that the Constitution

required that a bill should be read at length once only. The subject, by vote of the House, was brought before the Supreme Court, but the question whether bills read by title only, but entered as duly read on the record, were valid, still remained open.

Of the bills introduced which failed to become laws, among the most prominent were the bills to regulate the sales of mining stock, intended to reduce the business in mining stocks to a cash basis, forbidding brokers to sell or hypothecate stock belonging to others, making operations on margins a penal offense, and imposing other severe restrictions. A law was passed enabling shareholders owning a majority of stock in mining corporations to remove the company officers and elect new ones.

A land bill was brought in the Senate, requiring heirs to large estates to sell all beyond 5,000 acres within five years, and forbidding any one in the future to acquire real property exceeding in area that limit. Other limits proposed were 640 and 1,280 acres, and 5,120 acres for grazing-lands. None of these bills were passed.

A bill was passed forbidding games of cards to be played in saloons for drink.

A bill was passed providing for the appointment of a State Mineralogist and the establishment of a Mining Bureau.

A law regulating the organization of county governments was hastily enacted in the last days of the session. This act was decided by the Supreme Court in September to be in conflict with the Constitution. The revision of the civil and criminal codes was elaborated in committee; it necessitated the passage of a great number of separate acts.

In framing the Revenue Bill under the new Constitution, the Legislature showed great reluctance to carry out the provisions of the instrument. The Constitution defines property as including "moneys, credits, bonds, stocks, dues, franchises, and all other matters and things, real, personal, and mixed, capable of private ownership." All property, except growing crops, school and other public property, is declared subject to taxation, unless exempt by the laws of the United States. The Legislature is enjoined to levy taxes on all descriptions of property at its "full cash value." The Republican Legislature sought to shape

the law in such a way as to avoid double taxation. The bill framed by the majority of the joint Committee on Revenue and Taxation preserved this principle, and did not include in taxable property shares in corporations doing business in the State, or money on deposit with savings and loan corporations. The minority of the committee presented a bill drawn up more completely in accordance with the directions of the Constitution. The revenue law, finally adopted after a prolonged contest over the policy and right of taxing joint-stock company shares, bank deposits, certificates of indebtedness, and mortgages, and over the principle of assessing property at its market value, was drawn up in accordance with the principles embodied in the minority bill and plainly prescribed in the Constitution. Real estate and improvements are assessed at their estimated market value. Mortgages held against real property are deducted from the valuation of the property affected, and that proportion of the tax is assessed against the mortgages. Joint-stock companies are assessed according to a valuation of their property and assets, and a tax upon the market value of their shares in excess of this valuation is imposed upon the individual stockholders. Depositors are taxed upon their deposits in the banks, and the latter are taxed upon their property, mortgages, unsecured credits, and other assets. In taxing credits the evil of double taxation can no more be avoided than in subjecting bank deposits to a separate taxation. Every solvent creditor is assessed upon the amount of unsecured solvent debts due him in excess of his own liabilities. Debts due outside of the State are, however, not reckoned as an offset; and in the assessment of stocks a like discrimination is made, the holders of shares in outside corporations being taxed according to their selling value, without deducting the value of the taxable property held by the company according to the rule applied to Californian corporations.

The tax levy made by the Board of Equalization pursuant to the new revenue law is based on a total valuation of \$666,183,320, an increase of \$118,660,551, or about 18 per cent., over the valuation of 1879. The tax-rate was also raised, the new rate being 74 cents on the hundred dollars, instead of 62½ cents. The valuation of the county of San Francisco was \$243,552,276, an increase of about \$26,000,000 over the valuation of 1879. The valuation of real estate, with mortgages separately taxed as an interest in the realty, was within a million dollars the same in both years. The increase was in personalty, which was assessed \$68,774,195 in 1880, against \$43,570,856 in 1879. About \$5,400,000 of the increased valuation consisted of stocks, and nearly \$6,000,000 of unsecured solvent credits.

In reply to a delegation of savings-bank managers, who requested Governor Perkins to veto the Revenue Bill, the Governor declared that the session was too far advanced to allow

a new law to be framed, and that the public sentiment outside of the cities was in favor of the bill. He expressed the conviction that the Executive has no right to interpose the prerogative under the Constitution in the case of a bill of such a character, unless it is unconstitutional, or unless it would produce some great public calamity. In his message approving of the bill the Governor made the following protest against this feature of the law:

Failing to find in it any constitutional inhibition to justify the interposition of the Executive veto, and not deeming myself at liberty to disagree with the Legislature on a question of merely public policy as involved in a revenue bill, especially when the sentiment of the people appears to favor the measure (for I heartily subscribe to that which has been so pertinently said by another, that the Executive should have no policy or plan to enforce against the expressed will of the people), I have, therefore, reluctantly given the bill my official signature. It is indisputable that taxation, as it has for years existed in this State, produced well-founded dissatisfaction among those upon whom the burdens of State support fell so inequitably; that the citizen of moderate means, whose all was invested in a homestead, paid his forced contribution under protest, because his neighbor, having cash assets, was not named on the assessment-roll at all. Herein we find a demand for a change in the fundamental law and the controlling motive for the public approval of the present Constitution.

The former Constitution was construed by the Courts to prohibit the taxation of mortgages and solvent debts, thus withdrawing from assessment large volumes of wealth, and necessarily increasing the rates to be borne by tangible property. The present Constitution renders it possible and makes it our duty to correct the unjust system heretofore existing. It ought to be, and doubtless is, a pleasure for every one clothed with the authority to aid in equalizing the burdens of government.

My objection to the present bill (and I sincerely hope the objection will be avoided by supplemental legislation) is based upon those provisions which more directly relate to savings-banks and the deposits in those institutions.

The report of the Board of Bank Commissioners to the present Legislature contains the statement that there are upward of 80,000 depositors in the savings-banks of this State, with an average of \$672.53 to the credit of each, aggregating more than \$50,000,000 of money. Nearly all this large sum is loaned upon real-estate security. These securities will be taxed in the name of the several banks holding them. The banks have issued to each depositor a pass-book showing the amount to his credit, and this will be taxed in the name of the holder of the pass-book.

No refining of language can deduct any other interpretation from the provisions of Bill No. 404; and while it may be upheld by the Courts as constitutionally permissible, it is inexcessably inequitable and unjust. It imposes upon the industrious and economical classes, the many of small means, more than their just proportion of the public charges. It exacts tribute from their savings which are secured by mortgages held by the banks, who are acting, as it were, but as the agents of the depositor.

If the party had loaned his money on mortgage in his own name instead of that of the bank, even under this bill, the mortgage only would be assessed. The average deposit, as we have seen, is \$672.53—a sum so small that great difficulty would be experienced in finding for it a safe and secure investment. But several combine their means, and thus both borrowers and lenders are accommodated. Should, then, a penalty be attached to established and favorite modes of doing business?

The act making it a felony to incite riots, passed two years previously, was repealed by a large majority. A bill was proposed by members belonging to the Labor party for unseating and punishing members of legislative bodies who violate pledges given to political conventions. A projected law, emanating from the same quarter, proposed that newspaper writers should be obliged to print their signatures at the foot of editorial articles. Another proposed to deduct \$500 from the assessed valuation of each tax-payer's property, and others to exempt homesteads of less than \$5,000 or \$3,000 value from forced sales for taxes. A more complete mechanics' lien law than the existing one was enacted. A bill giving laborers employed about thrashing-machines a lien on the grain thrashed was defeated. A bill was passed authorizing railroad corporations deriving their charters from other States to do business on an equal footing with California companies. Another bill compels companies to keep their lines in operation. The Board of Railroad Commissioners demanded by the Constitution was created, consisting of three commissioners, with \$4,000 salary each, and traveling expenses paid by the State. The McClure charter for San Francisco was bitterly opposed in the Assembly by most of the members from that city, but was carried through by a united Republican vote. The act authorizing San Francisco to provide public water-works was repealed. A new insolvency law was enacted. The principal anti-Chinese bills were one prohibiting corporations to employ Chinamen, one authorizing the authorities of municipalities to remove Chinese residents beyond the city limits, one forbidding the award of licenses to Chinamen, and one forbidding them to fish in the waters of the State. A bill was introduced disqualifying Chinamen from testifying in the courts, but this was defeated in the Senate. In these bills the phrase by which the Chinese are designated, in order to conform technically to the constitutional inhibition of special and class legislation, is "aliens incapable of becoming electors."

The validity of the law prohibiting the employment of Chinese by corporations was tested in a case brought in the United States Circuit Court. Tiburcio Parrott, under arrest for violating this law, was brought before Judges Hoffman and Sawyer on *habeas corpus*. It was argued that the law was in contravention of the treaties of the United States Government with China, and of the Civil-Rights Bill and the Fourteenth Amendment. Attorney-General Hart, for the people, argued that the law was not directed against the Chinese, but against corporations, and that the Legislature possesses the power to amend or modify the charters of corporations of its own creation. The Court held that the right of the State to control corporations did not extend so far, and that the law affected the Chinese and deprived them of personal liberties accorded by the

United States Constitution and guaranteed by the treaty with China. The Burlingame treaty also invalidated the law against the use of the State fisheries by Chinamen.

The engineering aspects of the *débris* question were treated of in detail in the report of the State Engineer, W. H. Hall, made to the Governor, January 10th. Mr. Hall recommended a system of public works of a scope and on a scale to comprehend the drainage of the bottom-lands, the reclamation of waste and swamp-lands, the irrigation of dry lands, the improvement and preservation of navigable channels, and the protection of the valleys, river-beds, and harbors from mining *débris* and other detritus. He criticises the methods of irrigation heretofore in practice in the upper valleys as wasteful; and the irregular, fragmentary manner in which levees have been constructed in the lower valleys, under the policy of granting the swamp lands to any one accomplishing their reclamation, he declares to be often wrongful and mischievous in its consequences, since the improvement of the drainage in the upper portion of a river-valley may cause the submersion of marginal lands farther down. The Sacramento Valley is the portion of the State which especially stands in need of drainage-works at the present time. The main drains of the valley are the Sacramento River and its tributary, the Feather. During the era of hydraulic mining the whole character of these rivers has been altered through the accumulation of sediment, filling up the pools and forming bars. The unmethodical and imperfect construction of levees has hastened the process, reducing the scouring capacity of the streams by allowing a portion of the water to be diverted into secondary channels through breaches and crevasses, and facilitating the formation of bars by producing irregularity of flow. The rise of the low-water level in a river indicates the extent of the average deposit of sediment in its shoal parts. The plane of low water has risen since 1862 from five to five and a half feet in the Sacramento River at Sacramento, three to four feet at its confluence with the Feather, thirteen to fifteen feet at the junction of the Feather and the Yuba, and five to six feet in the Feather at Oroville. The accumulation of drift in the Sacramento River opposite Sacramento, and in other deep parts, has been much greater. The channel has been filled up as much as 15.2 feet on the average at Sacramento since 1854, and in some places the bed has been raised twenty-five feet. Owing to the filling up of the deep channels and pools the flood-level has been raised much higher than the low-water level, so that the riparian lands, which were formerly safe from inundation except in the years of extraordinary floods, and then were not injured, are now threatened with an annual overflow and their fertile soil with obliteration by deposits of sand, gravel, and *slickens*, and are rendered only partially secure by building the levees higher and higher each year.

Not only are the agricultural bottom-lands in these valleys threatened with destruction by submersion or detrital deposits, and the harbor and river-channel in danger of being choked up and rendered unnavigable, but, if the sedimentation is allowed to continue, in not many years the sites of Sacramento and Marysville will lie below the high-water level, and no river-walls will be sufficient to save the cities from their consequent doom. The State Engineer considers that the rivers can be soon restored to their condition of twenty years ago by the elaborate system which he proposes. This embraces the widening of the channels in some places, the deepening of them and the removal of bars in others, the deflection of some of the creeks into a new outlet, improving the channel of the lower Sacramento so as to obtain the maximum effect of the tidal scour, a relief-canal in the lower basin to divert a portion of the flood-waters for the security of the delta islands, and the construction of a uniform system of levees along the river-banks which shall be higher than the present ones and capable of confining the waters of the ordinary annual winter freshets, though not intended to hem in the extraordinary floods which occur at intervals of about ten years. None of these works would be of effective and permanent utility without first solving the *débris* problem and finding means to prevent the constant silting of the river-bed with mining detritus. A part of his plan was to dam several of the more heavily charged rivers, notably Bear and American Rivers, at different points in the valleys below, and spread their waters over the low swamp-tracts, where the sediment which is injuring the river-channels would be arrested and precipitated at all times of the year, except in the freshets, thus answering the useful purpose of building up ground in these extensive sinks, and rendering their now worthless area ultimately productive and valuable.

A report of Lieutenant-Colonel Mendell to the Chief of Engineers at Washington recommends a similar system of dams and storage reservoirs for the preservation of the navigable channels of the rivers fed by mining streams. The most convenient place for such dams he thinks is in the foot-hills, where the material for their construction is at hand. He estimates the quantity of *débris* washed annually from the mines into the Yuba at from fourteen to fifteen million cubic yards. The quantity now lying in the beds of the Yuba and its branches between Marysville and the mines, ready to be swept down into the valleys by the next great flood, is estimated at 143,551,864 cubic yards. The accumulations in the bed of the Bear River are estimated at 148,248,000 cubic yards, of which 86,160,000 yards are in the bed of the stream above the foot-hills, and 62,088,000 in the plains below. The quantities of tailings which are being dumped into the cañons every year are so great that the mining streams change their channels almost yearly. The bed of the

Yuba has been filled with this material at Smartsville to a depth of one hundred and twenty-five feet, and about fifteen feet at Marysville, increasing the slope of the river between the two places by one hundred and ten feet, about doubling the original fall. By the increase in slope in the upper mountain-streams, the gravel is rolled farther and farther down, and will in time be washed into the Feather and Sacramento Rivers, and form obstructions which will destroy navigation and the alluvial valleys. The quantity of workable auriferous drift on the Yuba is estimated at 700,000,000 cubic yards. The quantity of silt which has already been washed down into the plains, and deposited in the beds of the rivers, is calculated at 40,000,000 cubic yards in the Feather, and 100,000,000 in the Sacramento to below the mouth of the Feather. The fine sand and clay, or *slickens*, is not precipitated on the river-bottoms, but is carried on by the current into the outer bay or ocean. Colonel Mendell recommends the construction of nine dams in the Yuba to stop the drift of detrital matter into the river-channels. He suggests that Congress make an appropriation of \$250,000 to commence the improvement, which will cost altogether nearly four times that sum.

The area of the Sacramento Valley is 4,769 square miles, of which 2,331 square miles are high plains situated above the reach of overflow, 755 miles are hill-lands and rolling country adjacent to the foot-hills, and the remainder consists of low alluvial bottom-lands, swamp-lands, delta islands, lands covered with *débris*, and all other land subject to annual flooding. The area under water after the March freshet of 1879 along the Feather and Sacramento Rivers was 847 square miles. The area of good farming-land in the valley which has already been destroyed by mining *débris* is estimated by Mr. Hall at 43,546 acres.

Four or five different bills for *débris* relief were drafted, in accordance with the suggestions of the State Engineer, and discussed in the Legislature. The question whether the expenses should be raised by general taxation, or whether only the districts immediately benefited should be taxed, was the chief point of difference. The Young bill, which was finally passed in an amended form, imposes a general and equal tax of five cents in the hundred dollars for this object, and lays a special tax of a maximum rate of \$3 per acre upon overflowed lands which are benefited by the drainage-works, graduated according to the extent of the benefit received, and levies another on the miners, which will yield an amount equal to about one quarter of the general State tax, by taxing the quantity of water used in hydraulic mining.

Captain Eads afterward visited the country, and, in consultation with Colonel Mendell, offered some new suggestions to the Washington authorities. He approved in the main of the plans of Mr. Hall, but opposed the division

of the current and the construction of an outlet canal, either at Grand Island, as proposed by the State Engineer, or above, as had been favored by other experts. He proposed planting willows in the mud of the river-beds near the mines, to form screens to check the descent of the heavier *débris*, instead of the construction of expensive stone dams to impound the *débris*. This he thought would afford a sufficient guard against the coarser material of the tailings, while the scouring action of the current, if the channels of the Sacramento and Feather were rectified and graded, would keep the river below clear of deposits of the finer detritus. He regards the danger to the harbor of San Francisco as imminent, unless steps are taken to prevent the silting of the bay from this source.

According to the decision of District Judge Keyes, in the case of Keyes against the Little York Gold Washing Company *et al.*, farmers whose land is flooded by mining tailings are entitled to relief by the common law for the damage done. The plaintiff was a farmer in the Sacramento Valley, and the defendants were hydraulic mining companies, whose works were situated about sixty miles distant in the Sierra Nevada Mountains, and nearly three thousand feet above the defendant's farm, which lies along the banks of Bear River. The effect of the *débris* law enacted by the Legislature is not to debar the farmers from the rights of recovery from the miners which they possess at common law.

The report of the Fish Commissioners states that, since the organization of the commission, 13,150,000 young salmon have been hatched and placed in the Sacramento River, and that 2,500,000 must be added annually to keep the canning establishments supplied, unless the close season is strictly observed. An attempt was made in the Legislature to substitute a close time between Saturday morning and Sunday night throughout the year for the close season between August 1st and September 15th. The fishermen, who petitioned for the change, alleged that the close season was not observed; that the American fishermen were disposed to respect it, but that the Greek and Portuguese fishermen would not. They declared that they would compel all to observe the close season during Saturday, Saturday night, and Sunday. The bill was objected to by Fish-Commissioner B. B. Redding, who was present during the discussion. A petition was presented at the same time regarding the protection of small fish in the Bay of San Francisco. Mr. Redding stated that the subject was of great importance. There are a large number engaged in catching shrimps, mostly Chinamen. They use a net in the shape of an inverted stocking, which is sometimes thirty or forty feet long. The Chinamen go along the shores of the bays and use a net so fine that a lead-pencil only will pass through it, and catch immense quantities of not only shrimps, but every kind of small fish, which they put through a

process of salting in brine, and then drying on the ground, after which they rub their feet over them and break off the shells, etc., a portion of which is used for food and the balance as a manure for fertilizing the worn-out tea-fields of China. In one year there was shipped to China of these products about \$600,000 worth, and the average per year is about \$300,000. The Portuguese and Greeks are also destroying the small fish in a similar mode by using small, fine-mesh nets, but they make no use of the small fish, and leave them on the ground. On account of their destruction of fish in San Francisco Bay, the law protecting seals and sea-lions was repealed. Mr. Redding stated that these animals destroy more fish than are caught in the nets of the fishermen. Acts were passed by the Legislature providing for the removal of obstructions in the streams so as to greatly extend the area of the spawning-grounds of the salmon. The annual catch of salmon in the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers has been as follows: In 1874, 5,098,781 lbs.; 1877, 6,493,563 lbs.; 1878, 6,520,768 lbs.; 1879, 4,482,250 lbs. The falling off in the latter year was due to a quarrel about prices between the fishermen and the canners, which lasted a large part of the fishing season, during which time no salmon were canned. Catfish, introduced into the ponds and streams from Eastern waters a few years ago, are now so plentiful as to be a common article of food. Shad and white-fish have been planted in large numbers, and are succeeding; but brook-trout from the Atlantic coast do not thrive in California.

The returns of the State census give as the entire population of the State 864,836, a gain of 304,589 in ten years. The counties of Alameda, Colusa, Humboldt, Lake, Lassen, Los Angeles, Merced, Mono, Shasta, Tehama, and Tulare have increased their population over one hundred per cent. Among the agricultural counties, Alameda has shown the most remarkable growth, from 24,237 inhabitants to 63,639; but this increase is largely due to its vicinity to San Francisco. Owing to mining discoveries, Mono has increased its population from 403, the smallest of any county in 1870, to 5,416. Tuolumne, Mariposa, and Alpine Counties have receded in population. San Francisco has advanced from 149,473 to 233,066.

Funds were appropriated for the completion of the branch prison at Folsom, the building of which had been two or three times begun since the purchase of the grounds in 1858. But, owing to the failure of contractors and changes of plan, the work is not yet complete, though \$300,000 have been expended upon it. The accommodations at the State's prison of St. Quentin had long been of the most imperfect description. In 1874 there were 941 convicts, confined in only 444 cells. The prison was gradually enlarged, until in 1879 there were 696 cells; but the requirements for sleeping space increased with a like pace, the

number of inmates having grown to 1,564 in July, 1879. The reason for locating the new prison at Folsom was to enable the prisoners to be employed in the State granite-quarries in the vicinity. The cells at Folsom average 480 cubic feet in size. The cell-space in the older portion of the St. Quentin building is only 298 cubic feet. There are 324 cells in the branch prison, which is expected to relieve St. Quentin of 500 of its inmates. The contract for the labor of 350 convicts for five years in the quarries, at fifty cents a day each, can not be completed under the Constitution, which prohibits letting out the labor of convicts to private individuals or companies by contract after January 1, 1882. Governor Perkins suggested that one field in which their labor could be employed without competing with free labor might be in the manufacture of burlap sacks for grain, of which 25,000,000 are annually required for the handling of the crops of the State. The cultivation of the jute, of which material these sacks are made, if the lands in any part of the State are adapted for its growth, would prove a new remunerative employment for husbandmen, and the manufacture of the sacks in the prisons might lessen their cost to the farmers, whose supply now comes principally from abroad. A bill for encouraging the planting of jute was accordingly passed by the Legislature.

The Normal School at San José was destroyed by fire February 10th, and an appropriation was made for its reerection.

The policy of the Land-Office at Washington has been altered with respect to tracts of land, valuable for agricultural purposes, hitherto designated as mineral lands, though containing minerals only in a few places. According to a circular from Washington, issued June 2d, settlers upon such lands are not required to bring proof that they contain no minerals, as formerly; but these are open for preëmption to settlers, and, if miners desire to locate mineral claims upon lands thus settled, they are obliged to bring evidence that they contain minerals. This order applies especially to the foot-hill belt in California. The vexations to which settlers upon this tract have often been subjected under the law, which allows miners to prospect for minerals anywhere within the belt, has prevented the development of an immense extent of valuable agricultural land. The land has also been despoiled of its timber, and the abuse of occupying mineral lands on a fraudulent agricultural entry has been practiced, it is thought, as often or oftener in the past than is likely to occur when the region is open to unrestricted settlement.

Congress has passed an act setting apart for park purposes certain lands in California on which are growing "redwood" or "big trees." The largest group of these gigantic coniferæ yet known, the Calaveras South Grove, has passed out of the possession of the Govern-

ment, having been included in the agricultural grant to the State University, and by it sold to a Mr. Sperry, who has made of the grove a resort for tourists. There are other groves known to exist on Government lands, notably one north of Visalia, in which the trees are as fine as those in the Mariposa grove. The Legislature passed an act for the care and preservation of the latter grove, and of the Yosemite Valley.

The southern counties of California desire to secede and organize a separate State government. The proposition was laid before the Legislature by a member from Los Angeles. The slow development of their portion of the State, and the feeling that they are inequitably taxed for the benefit of the north and ignored in the railroad improvements, furnish the grounds for this agitation.

A sanguinary conflict over contested land titles occurred upon a tract granted by Congress to the Southern Pacific Railroad in Tulare and Fresno Counties. The title of the railroad company to the land took effect upon its filing a map of the route in 1867, being derived from an act of Congress passed the preceding year, but the patents were not applied for until 1877. A large number of settlers had squatted upon the tract called the Mussel Slough District between 1867 and 1877, and had established farmsteads and villages there. When the company proposed terms of sale to the occupants, incensed at being subjected to the hardship of having to pay the value of the improvements that they themselves had made, they formed a land league for the object of resisting the claims of the railroad to exact more than the price of wild lands. The dispute was carried into the United States courts, which decided the case against the settlers. The league were none the less determined to retain possession of their homes and to resist all attempts to dispossess them. In 1878 the company conveyed certain parcels of the land to two purchasers, upon which the test suit was brought, which was decided adversely to the settlers in December, 1879. In May, 1880, the company applied to the Court to put these purchasers in possession. Writs were issued and given to United States Marshal Poole to serve upon the settlers. Accompanied by the grader of the railroad lands in this district, the Marshal and the two men who had purchased from the railroad company and established their title at law proceeded to the district. They dispossessed one family in the absence of the man of the house, setting the household effects in the road, and drove to another farm to take possession. Here they were met by a band of armed and mounted men, who demanded of the Marshal and the surveyor that they should surrender, which they did. The squad then rode forward to the carriage containing the others, and made the same demand. They leaped to the ground and fired at the leaguers, killing five of them, and being finally

shot themselves. The settlers continued in quiet possession of the lands after this fatal encounter, the Government refusing to employ troops to eject them.

The effect of the new Constitution upon business in San Francisco was in many ways injurious. The business of the Mining-Stock Exchange was in great part transferred to other cities, and the loan market, building trade, and other branches whose activity betokens the general prosperity of a community, suffered under the effects of laws in which novel discriminations are made against capital. The deterrent influence upon enterprise of the innovations already accomplished and of anticipations of further legislation in the same direction, and the locking up and withdrawal of floating capital, began to affect the interests of small tradesmen and other classes who had regarded the agitation of the Workingmen's party with sympathy or indifference. The indignation against the Sand-lotters became quite general, and when a Citizens' Protective Union was formed, the hope was frequently expressed that they would put an end to the agitation, by unlawful measures, if lawful means were insufficient. The effect of the new laws upon capital had thrown many laborers out of employment, whose presence in the city, together with the order of the health authorities condemning the Chinese quarter, and the question of the validity of the act forbidding the employment of Chinese by corporations, pending before the Supreme Court, afforded the Sand-lot agitators material for their extravagant oratory. The vaguely menacing tone of the Sand-lot and ward-club speeches was resented by the citizens of San Francisco and denounced by the press of the country, and the leaders of the Workingmen were freely charged with having produced the depression in San Francisco by their incendiary bearing. There were rumors of impending riots, and the fact that such fears could arise was alleged as an excuse for breaking up the obnoxious agitation by violent means. The Council of Two Hundred of the Citizens' Union had no intention, however, of exceeding the provisions of the law. Their first measures were to strengthen the resources of the city for the suppression of riots by providing the police with firearms, increasing the stock of weapons in the armories, and improving the discipline of the militia. The Workingmen in turn procured arms and practiced military drill; but it soon became apparent that they were determined, like their opponents, to keep strictly within the limits of the law. After several weeks of watchful inactivity, Kearney, the leader of the Labor party, was arrested at the instigation of the Council on the charge of having broken certain of the city ordinances by using profane and threatening language in an invective against a manufacturer named Spreckels, a member of the Council of Two Hundred. He was tried by Police-Justice Rix, and, having waived a

jury, was found guilty of the misdemeanor by the Judge, March 16th, and sentenced to six months' imprisonment in the House of Correction and to pay a fine of one thousand dollars, this being the extreme penalty of the law. The sentence was confirmed when brought up before the full bench on a writ of *habeas corpus*, the Court holding that it could not review the decision of one of its members. Kearney had been convicted under an ordinance of the Board of Supervisors making it a misdemeanor to "address to another or utter in the presence of another any words, language, or expression having a tendency to create a breach of the peace." The case was carried before the State Supreme Court, sitting in full bench, May 27th, on a writ of *habeas corpus*, and the decision of the Police Court was reversed. The Court declared, in its opinion, against the doctrine of any judge or jury by ordinance being allowed to say what they deem language calculated to create a breach of the public peace, and that such doctrine infringes constitutional right and the liberty of speech. It held that while the reasonableness of the ordinance is in doubt, its want of harmony with general State laws is also a serious question. It held that the Police Court of San Francisco is an inferior court, and that all jurisdictional facts must appear in its records affirmatively. It was the intent of the ordinance, even if all other objections to it be waived, that the words which constitute the offense shall be uttered, not only of another, but in his presence. In this case it is not averred that the words were uttered in the presence of the person denounced.

The next manifestation in the movement was the impeachment of Rev. I. S. Kallach, Mayor of the city, who had been elected the preceding year on the Workingmen's ticket, by the Board of Supervisors. The charges were all of a vague and general import, specifying nothing which legally amounts to malfeasance. The Superior Court was, therefore, obliged to dismiss the case without argument, on the same day on which Kearney obtained his release.

In the mean time the Citizens' Union had organized a political party in opposition to the Workingmen, and placed a ticket for city officers in the field, which, in the charter election, held in April, defeated the Workingmen's nominees. There was a question raised as to the legality of the count, owing to the fact that the Citizens' ballots differed somewhat in the thickness and color of the paper from the Workingmen's, which had been procured from the State Secretary, when the Constitution requires uniformity; but the election was not contested. In the Presidential campaign a division occurred in the Workingmen's party, a part of them following Kearney, who identified himself with the Greenback party, while a larger number, including Mayor Kallach, voted with the Democrats. A sequel to the attempt to assassinate Kallach in the preceding year by

the editor De Young was the murder of the latter by Kalloch's son.

The Board of Health in February declared the quarter of San Francisco inhabited by Chinese, and called Chinatown, to be a public nuisance. The Health Officer of the city, Dr. J. A. Meares, issued a proclamation, February 24th, declaring that at the expiration of thirty days the officers of the law would be called upon "to empty this great reservoir of moral, social, and physical pollution, which is constantly extending its area, and threatens to engulf, with its filthiness, the fairest portion of our city." A difficulty was anticipated in enforcing the sanitary regulations on account of the great number of the Chinese, there being about twenty-five thousand in the city, as it was expected that many of them would have to be arrested and provided with jail accommodations. There was no necessity, however, of invoking the power of the law, as it turned out, because the Chinamen immediately set about renovating and purifying their dwellings; and the only houses which remained uncleansed at the end of the thirty days were the property of white men who neglected to carry out the law.

The new charter for the city of San Francisco, elaborated under the auspices of the Committee of Two Hundred, and adopted by the vote of the Legislature, was rejected by the people in the municipal election, held September 8th. The vote against the McClure charter was overwhelming, nearly nineteen thousand votes out of the total vote of twenty-three thousand being cast for its rejection. A second indictment was brought against Mayor Kalloch, on account of threatening language used with regard to the action of the Judge, in impaneling a jury for the trial of his son on the charge of murder.

The Republican State Convention met in Sacramento, April 29th, to nominate delegates to the National Convention in Chicago, and adopted the following resolutions, instructing the delegates to vote for the nomination of James G. Blaine:

The Republicans of California, in State Convention assembled at Sacramento, April 29, 1880, as expressive of their views, do hereby resolve:

1. That they reaffirm their adherence to the Republican national platform of 1876 and the California Republican State platform of 1879.
2. That the policy of resumption, which has made the greenback of war days equal to gold in days of peace, should be maintained.
3. That the amendments to the Federal Constitution, and all laws passed in pursuance thereof, should be sacredly and jealously maintained and enforced, so that every citizen of the United States, regardless of color or condition, shall be protected in all his rights, and a full, free, and fair election be held in all the States of the Union.
4. That the free public schools should be guarded and fostered by all the appliances within reach of the State and national Governments, to the end that the children of all may be educated to know, and thereby to enjoy and perform, their full duties and privileges as American citizens.
5. That all peaceful measures should be used to pre-

vent the further immigration of Chinese into the United States, and to rid the country of those now here.

6. That we will cordially support the nominees of the Republican National Convention, whoever they may be; but we know that the six electoral votes of our State are certain to be given for the Republican ticket if James G. Blaine be nominated, wherefore we do hereby instruct our delegates to the Republican National Convention to vote as a unit, first, last, and all the time, for James G. Blaine, and to use all honorable means to secure his nomination for President of the United States.

The Democratic Convention to nominate delegates to the Cincinnati National Convention met at Oakland, May 19th. The following platform was adopted:

The Democracy of California, by their representatives in convention assembled, resolve:

1. We reaffirm our fidelity to the principles enunciated by the Democratic Convention of St. Louis in 1876.
 2. We denounce the fraud by which Rutherford B. Hayes and William A. Wheeler were declared President and Vice-President of the United States, and the fairly elected candidates, Samuel J. Tilden and Thomas A. Hendricks, counted out.
 3. We declare that among the leading issues of this campaign are the vindication of the right of the people to self-government; the condemnation of the crime against the ballot committed four years ago; resistance to imperialism; the maintenance of the reserved rights of the States, and opposition to Chinese immigration.
 4. That the drift of the Republican party toward empire, through the oppressive concentration of capital, is a fraud upon the voting masses, and an insult to the men who carry the guns in defense of our liberties.
 5. We affirm our devotion to the Union, deprecate all sectionalism, hold the Republican party responsible for the agitation of dead issues, and regard the preservation of local self-government as necessary to the perpetuation of the republic.
 6. That we regard with alarm the doctrines of centralization recently announced by the Republican majority of the Supreme Court of the United States as having been made in the interest of party, and intended to blot out the last vestige of State rights, and change the Federal Union to an empire.
 7. That we favor continual lawful agitation of the subject of Mongolian immigration to this country, until the Federal Government is moved to modify our treaties with the Chinese Empire so as to prohibit it, and thus save those of our fellow-citizens who depend upon labor for support from unjust and degrading competition. We condemn and denounce the veto of Rutherford B. Hayes of the bill limiting Chinese immigration, and declare that there is no relief from the scourge except through a Democratic Administration.
 8. That the labor of this country is its capital, and deserves the protection and guardianship of our Governments, State and Federal.
 9. We impose no instructions upon our delegates to the Convention to meet at Cincinnati, save and except to vote for the retention of the so-called "two-thirds rule" in nominating candidates for President and Vice-President.
- The Workingmen's party of California, in their Convention at San Francisco, adopted a platform denouncing subsidies, national banks, and monopolies, and favoring greenbacks, advocating female enfranchisement, compulsory education, a public fund to assist the poor to settle on Government lands, direct ballot for President and Vice-President, and the election of postmasters. A split occurred between the

Greenback and Democratic factions in the Convention, and the latter organized separately.

The returns of the United States census make the total population of the State 864,686, showing an increase in ten years of 304,439 in the population, which the last census gave as 560,247. The male population is 518,271, the female 346,415. The number of inhabitants in the State of foreign birth is 292,680; of American birth, 572,006. The white population numbers 767,266; the colored, 97,420. The population of San Francisco is given as 233,956. Oakland contains 35,010 inhabitants against 10,500 in 1870; Sacramento has grown in population in the ten years from 16,283 to about 23,000; Los Angeles from 5,728 to 11,050; San José from 9,089 to 12,635.

CAPE COLONY AND BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.* By an official declaration, dated January 8, 1879, the Whale Bay was annexed to the Cape Colony. In consequence of the conflicts between the English and the natives of Caffraria, the remnant of independent Caffraria, Pondoland, was in 1878 occupied by the English. Chief Umquikela was declared to have forfeited his land, and on August 31, 1878, a military post was erected by the English on the left bank of the St. John River or Umzimvubu. Including these new annexations, the area and population of the British dominions in South Africa are as follows (area expressed in kilometres; 1 kilometre = 0.386 square mile):

TERRITORIES.	Square kilometres.	Population.
Cape Colony.....	517,849	720,934
Basuto land.....	21,794	127,701
Griqualand West.....	45,300	45,277
Transkei districts (Caffraria).....	40,334	400,500
Transvaal.....	294,981	315,000
Natal.....	48,560	356,517
Total.....	968,418	1,965,000

Of the population of Cape Colony proper 236,783 belong to the white race, and 484,201 to the colored. Of the former more than one half (143,000) is connected with the Dutch Reformed Church; next in order are the Anglican Church (26,000), Roman Catholics (8,600), Methodists (7,900), Lutherans (6,200), Presbyterians (3,400), Independents (2,500), and Baptists (2,100).

The present Constitution of the Cape Colony vests the executive power in the Governor and an Executive Council, composed of certain office-holders appointed by the Crown. The legislative power rests with a Legislative Council of twenty-one members, ten of whom are elected for ten years, and eleven for five years, presided over *ex-officio* by the Chief-Justice; and a House of Assembly of sixty-eight members, elected for five years, representing the country districts and towns of the colony. The qualification for members of the Council is pos-

sessed of immovable property of £2,000, or movable property worth £4,000. Members of both Houses are elected by the same voters, who are qualified by possession of property, or receipt of salary or wages, ranging between £25 and £50 per annum. There were 45,825 registered electors in 1878. The Governor is, by virtue of his office, commander-in-chief of the forces within the colony. He has a salary of £5,000 as Governor, besides £1,000 as "her Majesty's High Commissioner," and an additional £300 as "allowance for country residence." The administration is carried on, under the Governor, by a Ministry of five members, called the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Treasurer-General, the Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, and the Secretary of Native Affairs.

The revenue of the colony is derived mainly from import duties, which produced, on the average of the five years from 1874 to 1878, not far from a million pounds sterling per annum. Comparatively little is derived from rent or sales of public lands, although vast districts are waiting to be cultivated. The greatest part of the expenditure is for interest on the public debt. The estimated revenue of the year 1879 was £2,309,000, and the expenditure £2,226,164. The colony had a public debt of £10,500,000 on the 31st of July, 1879. The debt dates from the year 1859, when it amounted to £80,000. The interest in 1879 amounted to £483,365. The debt is under promise of repayment by installments extending to the year 1900. The imports were valued in 1877 at £5,158,348, the exports at £3,634,073. The commercial intercourse of the colony is mainly with the United Kingdom, and the value of the wool shipped annually from the colony to Great Britain constitutes alone nearly nine tenths of the total exports. The railway lines had, in June, 1879, an aggregate length of 580 miles, and 420 miles were in the course of construction. The number of post-offices was 248; the revenue of the department amounted to £57,870, and the expenditures to £151,220. The telegraphs in the colony, which were constructed entirely at the expense of the Government, comprised, in 1878, 3,380 miles of wire, with 92 offices. The number of messages sent was 183,120.

The Right Honorable Sir HERCULES GEORGE ROBERT ROBINSON, G. C. M. G., who was appointed Governor of the Cape of Good Hope, December, 1880, was born in 1824, and educated at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst. He held for some years a commission in the Eighty-seventh Foot, but retired from the service in 1846, and was employed in various capacities in the civil service in Ireland until 1852. He was in 1854 appointed President of the Island of Montserrat in the West Indies, and in 1855 Lieutenant-Governor of St. Christopher. He succeeded Sir John Bowring as Governor of Hong-Kong in 1859, when he received the honor of knighthood, was promoted to the

* For a statistical account of the races and religious denominations of the Cape Colony, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, article CAPE COLONY.

governorship of Ceylon in January, 1865, and to the governorship of New South Wales in March, 1872, which position he held until 1878. In August, 1874, he proceeded to the Feejee Islands for the purpose of settling matter between the British Government and the native power. On October 15th he accepted the unconditional cession of the islands, annexed them to the British Empire, and hoisted the British flag. For some time he remained at the head of the provisional government which he established for the islands. For the services rendered on this occasion he was in January, 1875, created a Grand Cross of the Order of Sts. Michael and George. From 1879 to 1880 he was Governor of New Zealand. In 1880 he was "Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Good Hope and her Majesty's High Commissioner for South Africa."

The colony of Natal, formerly an integral part of the Cape of Good Hope settlement, was erected in 1856 into a separate colony under the British Crown, represented first by a Lieutenant-Governor, and since 1879 by a Governor. Under the charter of constitution granted in 1856 and modified in 1875 and 1879, the Governor is assisted in the administration of the colony by an Executive and a legislative council. The Executive Council is composed of the Chief-Justice, the commandant, the Colonial Secretary, the Treasurer, the Attorney-General, the Secretary for Native Affairs, and two members nominated by the Governor from among the deputies elected to the Legislative Council. The latter is composed of thirteen official members and fifteen members elected by the counties and boroughs. The budget of the colony shows a steadily increasing revenue and expenditure, as will be seen from the following table:

YEARS.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1874.....	£247,259	£254,402
1875.....	260,271	307,025
1876.....	265,551	261,938
1877.....	272,473	288,825
1878.....	369,388	387,067
1879.....	473,478	491,888

About one fourth of the revenue is derived from customs, and the rest from miscellaneous sources of income, among them a "hut-tax" on natives, the impost being fixed at 14s. per hut. In 1878 there were 85,714 huts thus taxed. The largest items in the list of expenditures are those for police and the administration of justice. The public debt consists of six loans, all at six per cent., three of them contracted for harbor-works, two for coolie immigration, and the last, raised in 1876, for the construction of a line of railway. The total debt of the colony was £1,631,700 at the end of 1879. The colony has a seaboard of 150 miles, but the extent of some of the districts is all but unknown. As to race there were in 1877 22,650 persons of European descent and 12,823 coolies; all the remainder were natives of Africa. In the two

towns of the colony, Pietermaritzburg and Durban, the European and native population were nearly equal in numbers. Comparatively few immigrants arrived in recent years, the former government aid to this effect having been discontinued. The commerce of Natal is almost entirely with Great Britain. The staple article of export is sheep's wool. The amount of wool exported to Great Britain was valued at £400,672 in 1874, at £514,310 in 1875, at £379,079 in 1876, at £518,379 in 1877, at £568,111 in 1878, and at £502,539 in 1879. Next in importance to wool stand hides, the exports of which were of the value of £67,405 in 1879; and raw sugar, of the value of £13,111, in the same year. Many of the exports of the colony, particularly wool, come from the neighboring Dutch settlements, which also absorb more than one third of the imports. Cotton was first grown in the colony in 1866. The exports of raw cotton to Great Britain were valued at £18,559 in 1870, and rose to more than £29,000 in 1871, but have rapidly declined ever since until 1876, when they amounted to only £197. From 1877 to 1879 no raw cotton was exported. The chief articles of British imports into Natal in 1879 were apparel and haberdashery, valued at £341,317; and iron, wrought and unwrought, of the value of £94,272. The Government in 1875 made a contract for the construction of a railway system which is to comprise 345 miles of a single line, to be constructed at a cost of £1,200,000.

Major-General Sir GEORGE POMEROY COLLEY was appointed Governor of Natal, February 19, 1880. He was born in 1835, entered the army in 1850, and served in the Ashantee and other wars.

The Basutos, who in 1880 attracted great attention by their revolt against English rule, have, to a large extent, been civilized and Christianized by Protestant missionaries from France. The missionaries were invited into the country by King Moshesh, who steadfastly aided all the efforts for spreading education and civilization until his death, although he never became a Christian himself. The majority of the Basutos were in 1880 still pagans, but the Christian minority, excelling by education, industry, and wealth, already has a controlling influence. The churches have had since 1872 a synodal organization after the model of the Reformed Church of France.

The Colonial Parliament was opened, May 7th, by Sir Bartle Frere, who announced in his opening speech that bills would be presented for convening a conference on the confederation of the South African colonies, for sanctioning the annexation of Griqualand West, for extending the system of railways and improving harbors, and for dealing with the detention of Cetywayo and Secocoeni. The proposal for a conference of the colonies on confederation was brought up in June. A stronger opposition was manifested against it than had been anticipated; and, after three days of discussion,

the Premier stated that in the face of the evenly divided feeling of the House on the subject, the Government would not feel justified in advising the convening of a conference, and the matter would therefore be dropped. The Governor, in his address on the prorogation of the Parliament, July 30th, attributed the failure of the conference to the unsatisfactory settlement of Zoolooland and the annexation of the Transvaal.

The annual budget was presented in the Parliament, June 7th. The revenue for the coming year was estimated at £2,549,000 and the expenditure at £2,516,091, against a revenue of £2,509,216 and an expenditure of £2,494,397 for the year that was expiring. The total expenses for war from 1877 to the present date were £1,181,715.

A party among the Boers of the Transvaal continued to manifest discontent over the annexation of that country to the British dominions, and to agitate for the reversal of the act. Mr. Bok, secretary of a committee of a meeting of Boers, which was held in December, 1879, to demand independence, and Mr. Pretorius, formerly President of the Transvaal Republic, chairman of the committee, forwarded to Sir Garnet Wolseley a letter containing the resolutions passed at the meeting, and on account of their prominence in the movement were arrested for connection with a treasonable project. Mr. Bok was released on bail. Sir Garnet Wolseley endeavored to come to an understanding with Mr. Pretorius without success. The ex-President refused to accept a seat which was offered him in the Transvaal Executive Council. The Government had already taken pains to dispel any hopes the people of the Transvaal might entertain that the annexation would be repealed, Sir Garnet Wolseley having embraced the opportunity of a public dinner at Pretoria to announce that the country would hereafter be regarded as a Crown colony, and to declare that it was considered unsafe to trust the Boers with executive functions. A communication was sent to the British Colonial Office on the subject, and a reply was received in March from Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, the Colonial Secretary, explicitly declaring that the Government was not able to entertain any proposal for the withdrawal of the Queen's troops from the Transvaal. In April, Mr. Krüger, the designated leader of the Boers, and Mr. Joubert, were deputed to visit the Government of the Cape Colony to urge the claims of their constituents and seek a satisfactory arrangement. A memorial was addressed to Mr. Gladstone, asking him to use his influence in favor of the reversal of the annexation. On the other hand, a petition against reversal received a considerable number of signatures. To these applications the British Government replied that, whatever might have been the merits of the question in the first instance, it would not be wise or safe to undo the annexation at present. Mr. Gladstone added the

expression of his desire that the "white inhabitants of the Transvaal should, without prejudice to the rest of the population, enjoy the fullest liberty to manage their local affairs."

A proclamation was issued about the first of February, summoning the Basutos to surrender their arms. The Basutos were a pastoral and agricultural tribe, who had made some progress in civilization, and had not been involved in any difficulties with the Government. Their loyalty was unsuspected, and a body of them had rendered services of great value and importance in the Zooloo war. They claimed to possess firearms by virtue of a special and distinct recognition of their right to do so, and had not thought that the attempt would be made to deprive them of them. The policy of disarming them was doubted by many people in the colony and in England; Sir Garnet Wolseley advised against it, and wrote from the Cape, on the 10th of March, that it would be "incurring a most serious risk for an incommensurate object," and would array the native sentiment in every part of South Africa against the British. Letsea, the son of the chief Moshesh, asked for a delay in the enforcement of the order, to enable him to prepare a petition to the Colonial House of Assembly, and to the Queen, against it. Delay was granted, and the time for carrying out the order was extended first to June 21st, afterward to July 12th. The Peace Preservation Act was proclaimed in Basutoland early in April. A deputation of Basutos arrived in the colony early in June, to represent the cause of their people. The House of Assembly, at the beginning of June, refused by a majority of nine to pass a vote of censure on the Government for ordering the disarmament and proclaiming the Peace Preservation Act, and on the 23d of July again rejected a similar motion. The Legislative Council by a large majority adopted a resolution supporting the Government. An appropriation of £30,000 was voted to compensate the Basutos for the arms which they gave up. When the appeal to the Queen had been denied, and the Assembly had sanctioned the policy of the Ministers, Letsea, as paramount chief, ordered his people to obey the commands of the Government. Many of the Basutos brought in their arms; others, with the chief Masupha, determined to resist the disarmament, and opposed by force those who took steps to submit to it. Letsea collected a force of loyal Basutos, proceeded against the insurgents and besieged the discontented chief Masupha at Thababosigo. He, however, retired from the siege without having accomplished anything, not venturing to exercise his authority by force. The chief Lethorodi declined to accept the terms offered by the Government, and with six hundred followers attacked the force of Colonel Carrington at Mafeteng. His men were routed and followed for several miles. A second attack was made on Mafeteng, September 21st, by a force of seven thousand Basutos, and was repulsed after a contest which continued through all the day, with

a heavy loss to the assailants. Twelve hundred Basutos attacked Mohales Hoek, where the magistrate had a small garrison, on the 20th of September, and were beaten off. The attack was renewed on the 21st, and was again repelled. The position was relieved, a few days afterward, by the arrival of colonial troops under Colonel Southey. The situation in Basutoland had become by this time very grave. The area of the rebellion was increasing, and the discontent, which had at first been confined to eastern Basutoland, broke out in the country west of the Drakenberg. An English commissioner and two magistrates, with about one hundred men, had gone up to pacify the people of the latter district, but without success. The situation had become alarming in East Griqualand, and the Pondos and Galekas were restless. An attack was made by the Basutos on Maseru, which was held by Colonel Bayley with about five hundred men, October 10th, and was continued from morning till midnight. The rebels advanced in great force after dusk, and reached to within seventy yards of Fort Gordon and to within thirty yards of the residency. The Government office and barracks, the church, schoolrooms, dwellings, and stores were burned, after which the enemy retired, still holding Colonel Bayley shut up. Lethorodi had in the mean time been concentrating his forces near Mafeteng, and had succeeded in isolating Colonel Carrington, who was there with a rather smaller force than that of Colonel Bayley at Maseru. A body of sixteen hundred and sixty men and officers, one thousand of whom were mounted, with two guns, was collected at Wapener, in the Orange Free State, under Brigadier-General Clark, who had taken command of the colonial forces, and marched October 19th, and relieved Mafeteng on the next day. The Basutos opposed a more vigorous resistance to the relieving force than had been anticipated, and compelled an active contest, but were finally repulsed on every side. The principal disaster to the British was suffered by the First Regiment of Yeomanry, which was charged upon by a large body of Basutos, and lost forty-two killed and wounded. The relief of the post was effected opportunely, for the provisions of the garrison were running short. After this success, a proclamation was issued by the Government, offering protection to all rebels who would surrender with their arms and ammunition. Lethorodi's village was captured by Colonel Carrington on the 22d of October. Mr. Hamilton Hope, magistrate at Qumbo, and his two clerks, were treacherously murdered by Pondos under Umhlonhlo, who, professing loyalty, surrounded and stabbed them under pretense of performing a war-dance, and then destroyed the telegraph station. Other Europeans at the place escaped. The Europeans at Tsolo, with the magistrate, were threatened, but were relieved with the assistance of friendly Pondos. General Clark, having burned the village of the chief Moletsane, successfully

stormed his mountain stronghold on the 31st of October. While this action was going on, a large body of natives attacked the small number of colonial troops holding Lethorodi's village and compelled them to evacuate it.

On the 2d of November the rebels had been driven out of the Matadile district in Caffraria; on the 12th the defeat of the rebel chief Umhlonhlo was announced, and the presence was reported of a sufficient force to suppress the rebellion in Griqualand East. On the 20th the Premier of Cape Colony telegraphed to the British Government that the resources of the colony were apparently equal to the requirements for suppressing the rebellion, and that the Government had no intention of applying for imperial troops. Sir Bartle Frere was recalled from the office of High Commissioner at the beginning of August, the dispatch announcing his recall assigning the action of the Cape Parliament in refusing the conference on confederation as the reason for it. A considerable party in the colony adhered to the late Commissioner, a meeting of which at Cape Town passed resolutions of sympathy with him in the difficulties he had had to deal with, and asserted that before long the people of England as well as of the colonies would acknowledge the soundness and justice of his policy. An address was presented to him on his departure, September 15th, by deputations which included delegates from the eastern frontier and from Natal. Replying to it, he said that the action he had taken with reference to Natal and the Transvaal was either a great service or a great crime, and he highly valued the favorable verdict of the inhabitants of Natal.

On the 17th of November Colonel Carrington was attacked on all sides by the enemy when three days out from Mafeteng. The attacks were repelled, and the main body of the colonial detachment fell back to Mafeteng. A colonial force under Captain Van Hisingen was attacked by Tembus in Caffraria, and the Captain, four other white men, and fifty Fingoes were killed. Jonathan Moloppo and his Basutos, who had hitherto been considered friendly to the British, broke out into open revolt, and twice attacked the residency at Laribe, but were beaten back on each occasion. Colonel Wavell went to the assistance of the Resident, defeated the Basutos, and captured large numbers of cattle. The Basutos were afterward dislodged from the mountains near Laribe, to which they had withdrawn. A column of troops was sent out near the end of November for patrolling operations in Tembuland and Griqualand East, and met with success in the capture of stock from the natives. On the 1st of December Colonel Carrington was out patrolling with six hundred men, when he was almost entirely surrounded by the enemy. His only gun was disabled, and he was delivered from his precarious situation by the infantry marching in square off from the camp, and bringing with them another gun.

The Colonel said that he had eight thousand Basutos in front of him. On the 13th of December a patrolling force numbering six hundred and fifty men, who had moved out toward the north, under Captain Brabant, on entering Tsita Neck, met with a large number of the enemy. Captain Brabant retired on the village, and, after communicating with Colonel Carrington, evacuated it, the enemy taking possession and firing heavily, killing one rifleman. Colonel Carrington's division, which consisted of five hundred men, then moved eastward for three miles. The enemy charged repeatedly on all sides, wounding several men. The number of the enemy engaged was estimated at from nine to ten thousand. This was said to be the most important engagement that had yet occurred.

Mr. Thompson, the magistrate at Gatberg, was surrounded by three thousand of the enemy and reduced to a very scanty supply of ammunition, when he was relieved, December 7th; the defenders of the post were all brought off, and the residency was abandoned.

On the 23d of December the complete rout of Umhlonhlo, with the loss of three hundred men, was reported.

A new element of trouble was introduced into the situation in the latter part of December by the revolt of the Boers of the Transvaal. The insurrection began with meetings of the Boers in large numbers, at which forcible measures were threatened. An attempt was made to arrest the leaders of the movement, and a proclamation was issued warning the discontented Boers of the results of persistence in their action. On the 19th of December about five thousand men, out of a total of eight thousand whites capable of bearing arms in the Transvaal, had taken possession of Heidelberg, and established a republican government, with Paul Kruger as President, and Joubert as commandant. An action was begun at Potchefstroom on the 15th of December, which was continued at that place and before the military camp for several days, and ended in the Boers gaining and holding the place. On another day, a detachment of two hundred and fifty men of the Ninety-fourth Regiment, while marching from Lydenburg to Pretoria, were attacked near Middleburg, while all the men, having laid aside their arms, were endeavoring to extricate some wagons from a swamp. One hundred and twenty men were killed and wounded, and the rest of the detachment were taken prisoners.

On the 31st of December the garrisons of Standerton and Wakerstroom were reported to be well intrenched and supplied, and confident. The Boers, having seized Utrecht, had abandoned it, offering no violence except to break open the magazine, whence the bulk of the ammunition had been removed from their reach. The British headquarters and one company of the Sixtieth Regiment, four companies of drafted men, and two of mounted troops,

under Sir George Colley, were to leave Natal for the front on the 1st of January. About fifteen hundred troops were already on the way, with two cannons and one Gatling gun. The Boers of the Orange Free State were said to be greatly excited, and the President of that State was compelled to send word that he feared he would be unable to restrain them from giving aid to the insurrection. Sir George Colley had issued an address to the troops, saying that the stain cast on the British arms must be quickly effaced and the rebellion suppressed. He trusted, however, that the officers and men would not retaliate for the outrages, and would avoid punishing the innocent with the guilty. He charged them to remember that the Boers, though misled and deluded, were on the whole a brave and high-spirited people, actuated by feelings that in the main are entitled to respect.

A proclamation was issued by the heads of the insurrectionary government, defining and defending the constitution of the new republic. The proclamation contained an offer of pardon to those who opposed the movement for independence, and stated that the present officers could hold their positions provided they would recognize the republic, and that the British consul would be permitted to continue his residence. It also sanctioned the expenditure of money that had been made during the period of annexation. Martial law was proclaimed by the republicans.

CENSUS. Nearly all the large countries of the civilized world have taken their periodical censuses in 1880, or are to take them during the year 1881. The United States, Germany, and Austria are among the former states; while a new census of the whole of the British Empire is due in 1881. In view of the importance of this subject, it appears desirable to refer to the efforts which have been made in recent years to render the results of the official censuses more and more accurate, and to the preparations made for taking the new census in the countries named.

The considerable progress which has been effected in the method of taking the recent censuses is especially due to the careful discussion of the subject by the International Statistical Congresses. Of these, nine have been held in the following years and at the following places: first, 1853, Brussels; second, 1855, Paris; third, 1857, Vienna; fourth, 1860, London; fifth, 1863, Berlin; sixth, 1867, Florence; seventh, 1869, The Hague; eighth, 1872, St. Petersburg; ninth, 1876, Buda-Pesth.

Besides these Congresses, meetings of the Permanent Commission of the Statistical Congresses have been held in 1873 at Vienna, in 1874 at Stockholm, in 1876 at Buda-Pesth, and in 1876 at Paris. Another meeting of the Permanent Commission was arranged for 1879, but it did not take place.

It was especially the Congress held in 1872 at St. Petersburg which very thoroughly inves-

tigated the whole subject and passed a series of resolutions which, it is believed, will form the foundation of most of the official censuses hereafter. These resolutions were substantially as follows:

1. To avoid errors and double enumeration, the real population which is present at a place at the moment of enumeration must be made the basis of the census.

2. The census should mention every individual by name.

3. A census should be taken at least once in every decennium, and in those years the number of which ends in a naught.

4. As nearly as possible, a census should be completed on one day, or all the statements should refer to one day.

5. The execution and control of the census is to be confided to special agents, and the population should be trained to cooperate.

6. Wherever it is practicable, individual cards, containing questions addressed to only one individual, should be used; where this is not possible, household lists should be employed.

7. The points to be inquired into may be divided into those which may be designated as obligatory for all states, and those which may be left to the several states. The Congress designated as points of the first class: Family name and first name; sex; age; relationship to the head of the house; status of the family; occupation; religious denomination; mother-tongue; knowledge of reading and writing; birthplace, if it is different from the place of enumeration; citizenship; bodily and mental infirmities, as blindness, deafness and dumbness, insanity, and imbecility.

Professor H. Wagner, of Göttingen, has published in the sixth volume of the well-known periodical, "*Die Bevölkerung der Erde*" (Gotha, 1880), a complete list of all the censuses which have been taken up to the end of 1879. We extract from this list the censuses of the larger countries to which the "*Annual Cyclopædia*" generally devotes special articles, adding the censuses which were taken in the course of the year 1880.

America: United States, 1790, 1800, 1810, 1820, 1830, 1840, 1850, 1860, 1870, 1880; Canada, 1871; Guatemala, 1872; San Salvador 1878; Venezuela, 1873; Colombia, 1870; Peru, 1876; Chili, 1865, 1875; Argentine Republic, 1869; Paraguay, 1873; Brazil, 1872.

Europe: Austro-Hungary, 1857, 1869, 1880; Belgium, 1846, 1856, 1866, 1876; Denmark, 1840, 1845, 1855, 1860, 1870, 1880; France, every fifth year from 1820 to 1866, 1872, 1876; Germany, 1871, 1875, 1880; Great Britain, every tenth year from 1801 to 1871 (the first regular census in Ireland was taken in 1821); Italy, 1861, 1871; Netherlands, every tenth year from 1829 to 1879; Norway, every tenth year from 1815 to 1875; Portugal, 1863, 1878; Roumania, 1859-1860; Russia (regular censuses have been taken only in a few cities; for the

empire in general there are so-called "revisions," which calculate the total population on the basis of the police registers); Sweden (the Lutheran clergy have kept since 1749 accurate parochial registers, which in general have the value of censuses; the results have been published every fifth year since 1750, as "enumerations"; since 1860 the Government has also published annual results); Switzerland, 1850, 1860, 1870, 1880; Servia, 1866, 1874; Spain, 1857, 1860, 1877.

Asia: British India, 1867-1872; Japan, 1874.

Australia: All the colonies took censuses in 1861 and 1871. Other censuses have been taken as follows: Queensland, 1876; New South Wales, 1821, 1822, 1823, 1825, 1828, 1833, 1836, 1841, 1846, 1851, 1856; Victoria, 1836, 1838, 1841, 1846, 1851, 1854, 1857; South Australia, 1844, 1846, 1851, 1855, 1866, 1876; West Australia, 1850; New Zealand, 1857, 1858, 1864, 1867, 1874, 1878.

The aggregate population of the countries in which censuses have been taken, inclusive of Russia, amounts to 626,000,000.

For taking the tenth census in the United States, Congress provided (see acts of Forty-fifth Congress, chapter cxov) that the President shall appoint supervisors, not to exceed one hundred and fifty, and the Secretary of the Interior shall, on or before the first day of March, 1880, designate the number to be appointed within each State or Territory. Each supervisor of census shall apportion his district into subdivisions, and designate to the Superintendent of the Census at Washington suitable persons as enumerators. The enumeration shall commence on the first Monday of June, and be taken of that date. Each enumerator is required to complete and forward his returns to the supervisor of his district on or before July 1, 1880; and in any city having over 10,000 inhabitants under the census of 1870 the enumeration of population shall be taken within two weeks from the first Monday of June. Each supervisor shall receive \$500 in full compensation for all services rendered. To enumerators in subdivisions, where the Superintendent of Census shall deem such an allowance sufficient, an allowance not exceeding two cents for each living inhabitant, two cents for each death reported, ten cents for each farm, and fifteen cents for each establishment of productive industry enumerated and returned, may be given in full compensation for all services. For all other subdivisions, rates of compensation shall be fixed in advance of the enumeration by the Superintendent of Census, with the approval of the Secretary of the Interior, according to the difficulty of enumeration; but the compensation allowed to any enumerator in any district east of the 100th meridian shall not exceed an average of four dollars per day of ten hours actual field-work each, and the compensation to any enumerator in any district west of the 100th meridian shall not exceed six dollars per working-day of equal length.

In England, three acts were passed in 1880 for taking the census of the United Kingdom in 1881. The first relates to Ireland (43 and 44 Victoria, cap. xxviii). Under the direction of the Lord Lieutenant houses are to be visited on Monday, the 4th of April, and other days, as appointed, and the population on the premises on Sunday night, the 3d of April, to be ascertained, and among the particulars to be gathered is the "religious profession" of each inmate. There are penalties for withholding or giving false information, with a proviso that no person shall be subject to such forfeiture for refusing to state his religious profession. The provision is omitted in the other statutes. The next act (cap. xxxvii) relates to England, and the Local Government Board is to superintend the taking of the census. There are household schedules to be left in the course of the week ending Saturday, April 2d, and to be collected on Monday, April 4th, with particulars as to all persons who were on the premises on Sunday night, April 3d, with penalties for neglect or false answers. The act as to Scotland is cap. xxxviii, and the Secretary of State is to superintend the census, and penalties are to be imposed for disobedience of the directions given as to householders' schedules. In the United Kingdom the census is to be as to persons on Sunday, the 3d of April next. The census of England will be taken by the Registrar-General, Sir Brydges P. Henniker, assisted by Mr. William Clode and Dr. William Ogle, M. D., and Mr. F. J. Williams will be the secretary. The country will be mapped out into about 35,000 enumeration districts.

In Germany the third census authorized by the German Empire since its creation took place on December 1, 1880. In accordance with the recommendations of the St. Petersburg Statistical Congress referred to above, the process of enumeration was begun and completed in a single day, individual enumeration schedules having been distributed in advance and filled up by each adult inhabitant. The fulfillment of this duty was insured by making the owner of each dwelling, or his agent, responsible for compliance with the law on the part of all its occupants. The schedule had been arranged by a conference of the heads of the Statistical Bureaus of the German States. The German system of recension is generally regarded by statisticians as the least liable to error, and to exceed in accuracy the results of any other system except that of Switzerland.

CENTRAL AMERICA. (See COSTA RICA, GUATEMALA, HONDURAS, NICARAGUA, and SALVADOR.)

CHAMBERLAIN, JOSEPH, President of the Board of Trade in the new English Cabinet, is the son of the late Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, of Manor-green Hall, near Birmingham, and was born in 1837. He was educated at University College School, London. He is an alderman and magistrate for Birmingham, chairman of the Birmingham School Board, President of the

School of Design, and chairman of the National Educational League. Mr. Chamberlain has been three times Mayor of Birmingham, in 1874, 1875, and 1876, and has represented Birmingham in Parliament since June, 1876, when he was elected, unopposed, to the seat vacated by Mr. George Dixon. In politics he is a Radical, and strongly supports the disestablishment of the Church of England, and a system of national compulsory secular education. In the House of Commons he has chiefly attracted attention by his advocacy of the Gothenburg system of licensing places in which intoxicating liquors are sold. Soon after leaving school, Mr. Chamberlain became one of the partners of Nettlefold & Chamberlain, wood-screw makers, at Birmingham, a firm of which his father had been a member since 1854. He retired from business in 1874, not long after the death of his father. In the new Cabinet of Mr. Gladstone, he, with Mr. Bright, represents the Radical element.

CHAPIN, REV. EDWIN HUBBELL, Universalist minister, was born at Union Village, Washington County, New York, in 1814. He was of a New England family, and was educated in Vermont. In 1837 he was ordained at Utica, and took charge of a church first in Richmond, Virginia, and later at Charlestown, Massachusetts. In 1846 he became associate pastor with Dr. Ballou, of the Second Universalist Church of Boston. While in Massachusetts he became widely known as a lecturer on temperance, abolition, universal peace, and other reforms then in vogue. In 1849 he removed to New York to be the pastor of the Fourth Universalist Society, then occupying the edifice on Murray Street, corner of Church. Under this gifted preacher the congregation soon outgrew the capacity of the building, and removed to the corner of Broadway and Twentieth Street. In 1852 they purchased the Gothic building on Broadway, between Fourteenth and Fifteenth Streets, erected by Dr. Bellows's church of All Souls. Finally, in 1866, they built the present edifice on Fifth Avenue, corner of Forty-fifth Street. Dr. Chapin was not a learned man, but he had the gift of vivacious extemporaneous speaking. He was not a believer in creeds, but he preached a wise conduct in life, and considered no topic, social or political, as beyond the range of his pulpit themes. The substance of these lectures has been published under various titles: "Duties of Young Men"; "Duties of Young Women"; "Moral Aspects of City Life"; "Humanity in the City"; "Christianity the Perfection of True Manliness"; "Discourses on the Book of Proverbs"; "Hours of Communion"; "A Token for the Sorrowing"; and "The Crown of Thorns," which last volume has had a wide circulation. In 1872 he succeeded Dr. Emerson as editor of "The Christian Leader," the organ of the Universalists. He received his degrees of Doctor of Divinity and Master of Arts from Harvard College. His name will

be preserved by the "Chapin Home for the Aged and Infirm," founded by members of his congregation in May, 1869. Dr. Chapin died in New York, December 27th.

CHEMISTRY. Artificial Diamonds.—The most interesting and perhaps the most important chemical discovery of the year is the production of crystals of carbon, or "artificial diamonds," by Mr. J. B. Hannay, F.R.S.E., of Glasgow, Scotland. The discovery grew out of experiments which Mr. Hannay conducted during the fall and winter of 1879-'80, in searching for a solvent of the alkali metals. The inevitable result of all the processes he attempted with different liquids and gases was that, when the solvent reached the permanently gaseous state, chemical action ensued. A number of experiments were made with sodium, potassium and lithium, and the hydrocarbons, but the metals in almost every case combined with the hydrogen, setting the carbon free. A series of experiments with sodium and paraffine-spirit gave a deposit of very hard scales of carbon. This was the reaction on which the experiments for obtaining crystalline carbon were built. From his experiments on solution, Mr. Hannay deduced the conclusion that, if one body has a solvent action upon another without acting upon it chemically, the solvent action may be increased indefinitely by increasing the temperature and pressure of the solvent; but out of eighty experiments made for producing crystallized carbon, only three were attended with satisfactory results. The first were made with sodium and paraffine-spirit. Although the tubes in which the heat and pressure were applied were of extraordinary strength, and sealed as tightly as possible, they nearly all leaked; some exploded; in some a deposit of scaly carbon appeared, in others the iron was carbonized; but none gave any results encouraging to the further pursuit of researches in this direction. Mr. Hannay then reverted to the idea of dissolving carbon in a gaseous menstruum. He concluded, from some experiments previously made, that a distillation from bone-oil containing nitrogenous bases was the most likely substance to yield the solvent. A distillate of this character was placed in a strong tube with charcoal, and heated for fourteen hours. The gas rushed out with force on opening the tube, and a few bright particles of carbon appeared, differing but little, however, from particles of wood-charcoal. Another experiment was made with lithium and a mixture of highly rectified bone-oil and paraffine-spirit, which was heated for fourteen hours, then cooled slowly. On opening the tube, after the outrush of gas, a little liquid was found, and at the upper end of the tube, as it lay in the furnace, a hard, smooth mass, which was removed with a chisel. Some hard particles were found in pulverizing this mass, which, on examination, proved to be transparent crystals of carbon, or diamonds. New experiments

were made with other alkali metals, paraffine-spirit, and bone-oil, but they yielded nothing except the scaly carbon. Even lithium failed in most of the succeeding experiments, but a small quantity of carbon crystals was again obtained in one of them. The purity of the crystals was tested by burning a portion of the carbonaceous deposit in oxygen, with results indicating that their composition was 97.85 per cent. carbon. The remainder was found to be nitrogen, which appeared to be present in chemical combination with carbon. From the fact that no diamond was found when nitrogen compounds were absent, and from the fact that the mixed carbonaceous product contained nitrogen, Mr. Hannay inclines to the belief that it is by the decomposition of a nitrogenous body; and not the hydro-carbon, that the diamond is formed in the reactions he has described.

Liquefaction of Ozone.—The liquefaction of ozone has been effected by MM. P. Hantefeuille and J. Chappuis. Having ascertained that the preparation of a mixture very rich in ozone was a first condition to the further successful study of that substance, these chemists ozonized oxygen to a greater extent than had hitherto been done, by passing the silent electric discharge through oxygen at a low temperature. After being submitted to this process for fifteen minutes, the oxygen was conducted into the capillary tube of a Cailletet's apparatus, the temperature of which was kept at -23° . After a few strokes of the pump the gas in the tube appeared of an azure-blue; as pressure increased the depth of color likewise increased, until under a pressure of several atmospheres the ozonized oxygen appeared of a dark indigo-blue. The pressure was increased to ninety-five atmospheres, and was then suddenly removed, when the mist which indicates liquefaction was formed in the tube. The stability of a mixture of oxygen and ozone, rich in ozone, appears to be chiefly dependent on the temperature. If such a mixture be rapidly compressed at ordinary temperatures, a considerable amount of heat is evolved and the gas explodes. Ozone, therefore, ranks among the explosive gases. Ozone is much more easily liquefied than oxygen; the latter must be compressed under three hundred atmospheres at about the temperature of -29° before sudden removal of pressure succeeds in producing liquefaction.

Atomic Weights.—The atomic weight of beryllium has long been in doubt in consequence of differences in the results of the determination of its specific heat. The experiments of Professor Emerson Reynolds had seemed to confirm the atomic weight of 9.1 commonly assigned to the metal, since they gave a specific heat which, taken in connection with that number, correctly indicated the received assignment of 5.8 as the atomic heat of the substance. Nilson and Petterson redetermined the specific heat of the element in 1878,

and fixed it at a degree which would require the atomic weight to be increased by one half, or to 13.6, to make it conform to the received atomic heat. Chemists were not inclined to change the determination of the atomic weight of the metal without further evidence; for if it were fixed at 9.1, beryllium, uniting with oxygen as a protoxide, would readily find its place in the magnesium group; whereas, if its atomic weight were 13.2, its oxide would be a sesquioxide, and its place would be in the aluminum group. No place, however, could be found under Mendelejeff's classification of the elements according to their atomic weights for a metal having the properties of beryllium and the atomic weight and combining proportions assigned to it by this determination; and the value of Mendelejeff's classification is too great to make a departure from it expedient except on the most cogent evidence. Nilson and Pettersen have recently repeated the determination of the specific heat of beryllium at different intervals from zero to 300°, and have again calculated the atomic weight at 13.6. Lothar Mayer has, however, since gone over their numbers, calculating the specific heat of beryllium at various temperatures, and has reached results which agree best with the former determination of 9.1. It appears from the experiments that while the specific heat of this element rises as the temperature increases, the value of the increase of specific heat for one degree diminishes. In this respect, beryllium resembles boron, carbon, and silicon, while for other elements whose specific heat increases with increase of temperature the value of the increase for one degree also increases.

Professor J. P. Cooke has continued his examinations, begun in 1878, to determine the atomic weight of antimony. His former experiments left a slight margin of variation; his later ones gave almost absolutely uniform results. The mean result of five experiments in the decomposition of the bromide of antimony with silver indicated that bromine was present in the former substance in the proportion of 66.6651 per cent.; corrections of two of the experiments by a process which made them in effect distinct determinations, although performed with the same materials, gave the proportion of bromine as 66.666 per cent. These results, taking the atomic weight of silver as established at 108 and that of bromine at 80, give the atomic weight of antimony as 120.

The earth from the mineral euxenite, which was formerly called erbia and was supposed to be the oxide of a single element, has been found by Nilson to contain not less than seven different oxides. Two of these oxides, ytterbia and scandia, were subjected by him to special examinations. Ytterbia was separated from the other earths, after performing sixty-eight decompositions. The atomic weight of the metal ytterbium was then determined from the mean result of the analysis of seven fractions of the sulphate to be 173.01.

Nilson separated scandium from ytterbium, with which it is found associated, by forming a double sulphate of scandia and potassa, whence the scandia was extracted under the form of a nitrate. This salt, having been further purified of ytterbia, was examined in four fractions, from the mean result of the analyses of which the atomic weight of scandia was determined at 44.03. This determination agrees exactly with the atomic weight which Mendelejeff derives from his periodic law for ekaber, with the predicted properties of which scandium oxide, Sc_2O_3 , coincides.

Damage to Bookbindings by Gas-Combustion Products.—Professor William Ripley Nichols has reported on the results of investigations he has made with reference to the correctness of the theory which ascribes deterioration in the bindings of books in libraries to the action of sulphuric acid generated by burning coal-gas. Having examined a large number of samples of leather in every stage of decay, he found that morocco was but little affected, common sheep binding was attacked, and russa leather and calf were badly acted upon. An acid taste and an acid reaction were observed that were more marked in proportion as the leather was decayed, and sulphuric acid was found in the extract made from the leather with water, in a similarly increasing proportion. Ammonia was also present, in about such a proportion as in combination with the sulphur would constitute the acid sulphate of ammonia. Samples of fresh leather gave extracts only slightly acid, not enough so to affect the taste, and contained only a minute amount of sulphuric acid in combination. Samples of russa leather and sheep of good quality yielded from less than a quarter to less than a half of one per cent. of acid, and less than a quarter of one per cent. of ammonia. A sample of well-worn but not decayed sheep taken from a Bible more than sixty years old, which had never been exposed to gas, gave 1.42 per cent. of sulphuric acid. Other samples, of very rotten russa, and of scrapings from a number of books, gave from eight to ten per cent. of sulphuric acid, combined with ammonia. A quantity of rotten leather was carefully extracted with water, and crystals of sulphate of ammonia were obtained from it. Professor Nichols believes that in the face of these facts it is difficult to escape the conclusion that bindings absorb sulphuric acid when exposed to the products of the combustion of illuminating gas, as no other condition to which books are commonly exposed can account so well for the large proportion of acid which was found. To the objection that sulphurous (not sulphuric) acid is the general product of the combustion of sulphur compounds, Professor Nichols answers that his analysis of the products of the burning of gas have brought out sulphates with no evidence of the presence of sulphites. He admits, however, that the disintegration of the leather may precede the absorption of sulphuric acid,

and prepare the way for it. Other causes which have been suggested, to account partly for the deterioration of bindings, are the inferiority of the modern quick processes of tanning, particularly those in which soda is used; the use of split leathers, and the impurities in the air disseminated by hot-air furnaces.

Industrial Chemistry.—For the following notes on improved appliances and processes in the chemical industries, we are indebted to the interesting summary of Professor J. W. Mallet, published in the "American Chemical Journal" during 1880.

The improvements in mechanical appliances include the adaptation of grinding-mills to true grinding rather than crushing, the extended use of steam coils and steam jackets for heating purposes, the utilization of the waste heat from vapors under treatment, and the application of heat under pressure greater than that of the atmosphere, which is made practicable by the use of ingenious apparatus, giving special facilities for manipulation and for observing the operations going on within.

Ice-machines for the production of artificial cold have given important aid in a variety of operations; their use has in turn stimulated the demand for a number of chemical productions which are employed in them to induce cold by evaporation, and has thus contributed to the increased manufacture of such substances.

Under the head of improved mechanical arrangements for the agitation or stirring of liquids are included, besides revolving paddle-wheels and similar contrivances, the blowing in of air and steam, by which the work of heating, oxidation, etc., is often performed at the same time with that which is merely mechanical. The nice fractional separation of liquids, differing often but little in their boiling-point, has been facilitated by the introduction of improved apparatus for distillation.

The operation of distillation by means of superheated steam, or along with it, often makes the use of elaborate and tedious chemical processes unnecessary by effecting a simple physical purification of special materials.

The operations of washing solid matters and of filtration have been made more efficient by the general application of centrifugal machines or "hydro-extractors," by the use of filters arranged to work with a partial vacuum, and by the use of filter presses to squeeze out mechanically the liquid which is tenaciously retained by precipitates, sediments, skimmings, etc.

One of the cheapest processes for the extensive manufacture of oxygen gas is that of Tessié du Motay, in which sodium manganate is exposed at a low red heat to a current of superheated steam. The manganate may be reproduced from the residue of manganese sesquioxide and sodium hydrate, by passing purified air over it at the same temperature. This gas has become to some extent a commercial product; and its application in certain directions has been made more feasible by the system of

storing it under a pressure of several atmospheres in portable iron cylinders. In the medical application of oxygen, in diseases affecting the function of respiration, the idea of its having a particular chemical value is no longer held, but it is used with real benefit in those diseases which interfere in a purely mechanical way with the volume of air with which the lungs can be supplied.

Hydrogen may be made industrially, chiefly to be employed with oxygen in the production of the calcium-light, by the process of Tessié du Motay, in which surplus carbon is heated with slacked lime, and calcium hydrate is reproduced by passing steam over the heated carbonate of lime which is formed. Except for a few special purposes, the place of pure hydrogen in industrial applications can probably be supplied by the mixture known as water-gas, or generated gas, which contains that element along with carbon monoxide, nitrogen, and other substances.

Carbon disulphide has acquired greatly increased importance on account of its furnishing the means of dissolving out fats and oils from various materials which could not be treated with equal advantage in any other way. Large quantities of fat are thus recovered from oil-seed cakes, from the marc of olive-oil pressing, from woolen rags and waste, from cotton waste used in wiping machinery and packing stuffing-boxes and axles, and from bones from which gelatine and phosphates are afterward to be made. The same solvent has been used to a limited extent to collect sulphur from poor "sulphur-stone," and to extract delicate perfumes and the aromatic constituents of spices and condiments. The so-called petroleum-spirit or petroleum-naphtha is also used for all these purposes, and has the advantage of being much cheaper than the carbon disulphide. The disulphide, the sulpho-carbonates, and the ethyl- and amyl-disulpho-carbonates have lately been used in European vineyards with considerable success for checking the ravages of the phylloxera. Potassium amyl-disulpho-carbonate is most easily prepared by bringing together, with precautions against a too great rise of temperature, a strong solution of potassium hydrate, amyl alcohol or fusel-oil, and carbon disulphide.

In the production of phosphorus, mineral phosphates, the so-called coprolites, guano, etc., have largely replaced bone-ash as the crude material used. Instead of a part (two thirds) of the calcium, the whole is now removed as calcium sulphate, and sirupy phosphoric acid, dried up with charcoal-powder, is submitted as the material for distillation. The process once suggested by Woehler for procuring phosphorus by distilling a mixture of calcium phosphate, silica, and carbon, is said to have been adopted on an industrial scale some years ago in France, but the result of the experiment has not been reported. Amorphous phosphorus is used to some extent in making friction-matches, though

not to the extent of replacing the ordinary variety, and for the surfaces upon which "safety-matches" are ignited, and also in making the haloid compounds of ethyl and methyl for the production of aniline dyes. A new field for the use of phosphorus in metallurgy has been opened up by the introduction of phosphor-bronze.

Iodine has been lately produced commercially from the mother-liquors from which Chilian sodium nitrate has been crystallized, by adding cupric sulphate and sodium sulphite, by which cuprous iodide is precipitated, and this is afterward decomposed by sulphuretted hydrogen or by zinc, and converted into an alkaline iodide; to a less extent the solutions are treated with a regulated quantity of sodium sulphite alone, and the iodine collected as such either by precipitation or distillation. The production of iodine from kelp has been carried on at a disadvantage under the competition of the Leblanc process, and of the products of the Stassfurt industry. A means for obtaining directly from sea-water the minute quantity of iodine it contains seems to be still desirable. The demand for this substance, which had increased very largely in consequence of its extensive use in making coal-tar colors, has fallen off under the substitution in the process of other salts for the iodides of the iodide radicals. According to a paper by E. Schering, the method of making the potassium iodide most generally in use is the solution of iodine in aqueous potassium hydrate, evaporation to dryness, with the addition of charcoal-powder, and ignition to destroy the nitrate formed. Schering himself, however, prefers the production of iron iodide and decomposition by potassium carbonate.

Bromine is manufactured on a large scale from the mother-liquors obtained at Stassfurt in working the salts of potassium and magnesium, and from similar liquors produced in salt-boiling in Ohio, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania. Bromine is coming into use again, in a modified form, after having been discarded as unsatisfactory, as a substitute for iodine alcoholic compounds in the manufacture of the coal-tar dyes, and is employed to some extent in the shape of its derivatives of the hydrocarbons and phenols in the production of other artificial dyestuffs. The practice of shipping bromine in a solid or liquid form, as bromide of iron or of ethyl, when it is not made at once into potassium bromide, has been resorted to, to avoid the danger and annoyance involved in the transportation of so volatile a substance.

The improvements in the production of the natural vegetable alkaloids relate to the extension of the scale in which they are made, notably to measures for increasing the supply of the raw material by the systematic cultivation of the cinchona-tree, and to the superior degree of purity in which they are obtained. The cinchona alkaloids which accompany qui-

nine have to some extent been brought into use, instead of being rejected as worthless. Among new substances of this class which have been made available for medical purposes are eserine, from the Calabar bean, and apomorphine, a product of chemical alteration.

Methyl alcohol and several of its derivatives play an important part in the manufacture of coal-tar colors. Methyl chloride has taken the place of methyl nitrate, and partly of methyl iodide, as one of the materials for the production of artificial cold by rapid evaporation in closed vessels.

Benzoic acid is made by several processes, chiefly by evaporating the urine of domestic animals and boiling the residue with hydrochloric acid. Besides its employment in making artificial colors, it is believed to be a component of the nostrums which are used in flavoring manufactured tobacco.

Phthallic acid, which is valuable in making artificial dyestuffs, is largely produced as an anhydride from naphthalene.

Improvements in the Preparation of Clothing Materials.—For the old process of washing wool, which involved the entire waste of the substances constituting the grease to be removed, more economical methods have been substituted in the extraction of the fatty matter with carbon disulphide or petroleum naphtha, and in the Maumené and Ragelet process for making potash from the leachings of the wool and burning or charring the organic matter, with the utilization for illuminating purposes of the gaseous products given off by the grease. Wool is freed from burs, bits of straw, and other forms of vegetable matter, by soaking it with dilute sulphuric acid, pressing out the surplus liquid, and gradually heating the wool up to about 212° , after which the vegetable impurities may be readily reduced to dust and removed mechanically. Solution of aluminum chloride and gaseous hydrochloric acid have been used for the same purpose. Mixed fabrics of wool and cotton may be treated in this way, and the wool recovered in a useful form.

Hard water, containing lime-salts, is preferably used in reeling raw silks, because with it a less quantity of gelatine is removed in solution from the surface of the fiber, and less loss of tenacity and beauty in appearance is suffered.

The manufacture of chloride of lime for bleaching has been simplified by the successful application of a process for regenerating the manganese employed in such a form that it may be used again. This is done by precipitating the still-liquor containing manganic chloride with an excess of calcium hydrate and causing the precipitate to be oxidized by forcibly blowing air through it and the liquid in which it is suspended. The chief product of this process is an acid calcium manganite with a considerable quantity of calcium chloride, a satisfactory mode of utilizing which is still desired,

Hydrogen dioxide is applied with special advantage in the treatment of Indian tusseh silk. Atmospheric oxygen in presence of oil of turpentine has been applied to the bleaching of feathers and some other materials of animal origin. A very useful improvement, when properly managed, is the combination of chlorine and air-bleaching. Linen goods and some of the higher grades of cotton cloth, having had most of the color removed by a preliminary bleaching with chlorine, are then exposed to the sun and air after the old fashion, for the completion of the process. In this method the rapidity of bleaching by chlorine is combined with the exemption from injury to the fabric of air-bleaching.

The more recent features in the manufacture of dyestuffs are the introduction of organic colors in great number and variety, which has marked the progress of the last twenty years, and the reproduction of natural organic colors by artificial means, which has been successfully carried out and greatly extended within the last ten years. More recently, the introduction of artificial alizarine has been followed by a falling off in the production of madder and its preparations. Ammonia, instead of lime, has been applied with advantage to the extraction of indigo in Java; and in India an increase of the product, amounting to as much as 25 per cent., has been obtained by increasing the temperature of the steep-water to 110°. The crude material of many long-known vegetable dyes has been replaced by concentrated extracts; and a considerable improvement has taken place in the solubility and tinctorial power of the extracts.

A most important change in the preparation of the original so-called aniline colors consists in the application on a great scale of Coupier's process, or a modification of it, for making aniline red (rosaniline salts) without the use of arsenic, by heating together in the presence of an acid nitrobenzene and commercial aniline oil of high boiling-point, rich in toluidine. The researches of Dale and Schorlemmer have established a full connection between phenol and the whole series of aniline colors. Better processes have been employed in preparing violet, blue, and green. The soluble aniline blacks—"indulines" and "nigrosines"—have come into use for general dyeing purposes, particularly in some forms adapted to silk goods. Alizarine from anthracene, which has to a great extent replaced madder, has become recognized as in the front rank of artificial coloring materials. Numerous new colors of greater or less value have been obtained from this and other bases. The "Cachon de Laval" of Croissant and Bretonnière is a material of much practical value. It is made by heating in close vessels to 250° or 300° C. various waste forms of vegetable fiber, such as sawdust, spent dye-woods, rags, paper refuse, and the like, with caustic alkali and sulphur. The product is obtained in various colors, chiefly of tints of

brown, and is remarkable for the firmness with which it attaches itself to cotton cloth, particularly when fixed with bichromate of potash, while it produces a satisfactory modifying effect upon the brighter coal-tar dyes, and is cheap.

Attempts to generalize our knowledge of organic colors, and to determine some definite relation between their composition and tinctorial power, have been attended by only a very limited success.

New processes have been introduced for fixing colors upon cloth, which are dependent severally upon the employment of silicic acid, chromic hydrate, precipitated sulphur for certain colors, albumen, "lactarine," tannic acid with or without the addition of an antimony salt, lead acetate, and calcium phosphate, with some of the dyes.

The coal-tar colors have been introduced in calico-printing on a large scale, and with remarkable brilliancy and variety of effect; and pigments of mineral origin attached to the cloth by the aid of albumen, have been used in surface printing with similar results. Colors may be used in these processes which are not available in general dyeing—among them the insoluble aniline black of Lightfoot—on account of the difficulty of attaching them uniformly over a large surface of cloth.

The improvements in tanning have not been extensive or important, and relate chiefly to the superior quality of the extracts and the greater purity of the solutions which are used, and their more extensive substitution for crude materials. The results of the rapid processes in ordinary bark-tanning have not been satisfactory, for the saving of time is apparently always attended with deterioration in the quality of the leather. A method of dyeing and at the same time partly tanning raw hide has been introduced in the United States, the product of which, in some respects resembling hard vulcanized India-rubber, is susceptible of a high polish, and is adapted to uses in which flexibility is not required. In the process, the hide, having been properly cleansed, is immersed in solutions containing infusion of logwood, nut-galls, cupric sulphate, vinegar, and a salt of iron.

For the manufacture of India-rubber, the supply of crude caoutchouc has been greatly increased by the fruits of a systematic search for it in different countries, and the use of new plants affording it. The preparation of vulcanized rubber has been adapted to the production by means of an intimate mixture of caoutchouc and calcined magnesia of a hard rubber of high grades which may be used as an imitation of ivory for billiard-balls, piano-keys, and similar articles. A plan has been proposed, but not yet tested by experience, for giving a certain degree of porosity to rubber by mixing in it, before the vulcanizing process is applied, a certain amount of vegetable fiber, with the expectation of producing a material

for clothing and shoes which will allow the escape of perspiration. The introduction of celluloid, a substance formed by the very close incorporation of gun-cotton and camphor, has given a valuable substitute for hard rubber in many of its uses, a material which may be employed for a multitude of different purposes.

Improvements in Glass-making.—By reason of the greater accessibility of purer materials for glass-making, it has been possible to replace the coarser green glassware formerly in use for many common purposes with colorless glass. Greater pains have been taken to ascertain and use the best proportions of the materials with a view to homogeneity and definiteness of composition in the glass, so as to diminish the risk of "devitrification" and the liability of the surface of the glass when in use to alteration by water or other reagents. The Siemens regenerative furnace with gaseous fuel has been so adapted as to dispense with the glass-pots formerly in use, and allow the preparation of the glass to be completed in the hearth itself, where, in three separate compartments, are performed in succession the processes of fusing the mixture of raw materials, "fining" the glass, and bringing it down to the proper temperature and consistence for working. For the production of glass in sheets for windows, the "crown-glass" process of "flashing" has nearly ceased to be employed, while a marked extension and improvement has taken place in the scale on which the product is turned out under the cylinder process, in the size of the sheets that are made by it, and in the smooth, even condition of the surface of the flatted sheets. Plate-glass has been brought more and more widely into use, and plates of very large size have become familiar. The limit of size of these plates is, in fact, found in the difficulty of moving the slabs and setting them, rather than in that of producing them. In the manufacture of hollow ware, the process of pressing in molds has been developed very rapidly, and much varied ingenuity has been shown as to the details of the molds and other tools. The various processes for producing an annealed or toughened glass have given us a material of largely increased strength, and capable of withstanding great mechanical stress and quite violent blows, but which has other qualities tending considerably to limit its usefulness. The progressive improvement in the manufacture of optical glass is shown in the steady increase in the size of the disks from which the largest telescopic lenses are made, which may now be obtained more than thirty inches in diameter, and in their clearness, uniformity, and freedom from flaws. The decoration of glass-work has advanced more in an artistic than a technical direction. Imitations of the precious stones are made with remarkable fidelity to natural appearance, and with a degree of hardness exceeding anything that was known some years ago. To the older varieties of "milk-glass," or enamel, has been added the

"hot-cast porcelain," made by fusing together quartz-sand, cryolite, and zinc oxide, which is chiefly used for less artistic articles. The products of the revived glass industry at Murano well deserve attention. In the surface-enameling of sheet-glass, lace-patterns are transferred from the woven or netted fabric itself, by using it as a stencil to distribute upon the surface the pulverized enamel which is afterward to be burned on. Tilghman's sand-blast supplies a process for etching on glass of great and permanent value on account of its simplicity and quickness, its efficiency in deep cutting, its applicability to very large sheets, and the delicacy with which the minute features of intricate designs may be engraved by it. Iridescent glass, exhibiting a delicate play of soap-bubble colors, is produced by slightly attacking the surface of glass with moderately strong liquid hydrochloric acid under pressure in close vessels, or with the fumes from chloride of tin or analogous material volatilized in a reheating furnace. Dodé's process for platinizing glass, by carefully heating it after the surface has received a nicely applied thin coating of platinum chloride mixed with one of the essential oils, has the advantage of furnishing a mirror which reflects from the front face, avoiding the double passage of light through the glass itself. The exposed metal is not liable to tarnish. Quite an effective *camera lucida* may be made from a piece of flat sheet-glass treated in this way. The platinum film is thin enough to permit the pencil and hand of the draughtsman to be seen through it, while at the same time the objects to be copied are seen by reflection. Glass drawn out into extremely fine threads, or "glass-wool," has been used for decorative purposes, and as a material for filtration.

The greatest improvement in the manufacture of ceramic wares has taken place in the higher grades of stoneware and earthenware rather than in porcelain, and those wares have received almost the same degree of care and attention as have been given to porcelain itself. The most valuable mechanical appliance lately brought into use is the filter-press, which is employed for removing the surplus water from the clay after the mixing has been performed. Some of the presses are adapted to prevent the inclosure of air-bubbles in the clay. The regenerative furnace has been adopted with advantages which are shown in the saving of fuel and the reduction of the number of pieces of ware spoiled in the firing. In the decoration of pottery-wares, painting by hand has been to a large extent replaced by the transfer of printed patterns and designs. Metallic lusters are applied with more successful effect than formerly, and a peculiar surface appearance resembling that of mother-of-pearl is given to the ware by a lustrous bismuth glaze.

The Chemistry of Arsenical Poisoning.—C. Binz and H. Schulz have offered a new explanation of the chemical cause of the poisonous nature of arsenic. The theory of Liebig,

that arsenious acid forms a solid compound with the albumen, which thereby loses the capacity to undergo the transformations necessary to the existence of the living tissues, is untenable for the reason that a solution of arsenious acid, or of its salts, does not form the solid compounds which Liebig assumed. It is precisely those tissues in the body which are specially endowed with the capacity to receive and utilize the oxygen of the blood that form the principal seat of the destructive action of arsenic. The neutral salts of arsenic acid are as poisonous as those of arsenious acid. Arsenious acid changes readily to arsenic acid, and the transformation proceeds still more readily in the inverse sense. The latter change is effected by albumen in general, the former by the living albumen of animals and plants. In a number of experiments with arsenic acid and egg-albumen, the fibrine of warm-blooded animals, and fresh brain-substance, arsenic acid was reduced at the temperature of the body; while with the tissue of the pancreas, of the liver, and the undecomposed protoplasm of vegetable organs, arsenic acid was reduced to arsenious acid, and arsenious acid was oxidized into arsenic acid. A consideration of the individual results of these experiments has led to the conclusion that the reciprocal transformations of the two acids produce within the living albumen-molecule in which they take place a violent oscillation of the oxygen-atom by which the tissues are corroded to the extent of their complete destruction. Nitrogen in its poisonous compounds performs a similar function to that which metallic arsenic seems to discharge here. Itself without direct action, it serves as the inert carrier and distributor of the powerfully aggressive, active oxygen-atom. The differences existing between arsenic and nitrogen are those of degree only. The oxides of nitrogen act instantly, and corrode those parts of the organism to which they are first introduced; the oxides of arsenic develop their activity only within the organism, and are externally corrosive only by prolonged action. A correspondence in behavior as poisons and as chemical agents is traceable among the other members of the nitrogen group, the action of which is similar in the minutest to that of arsenic, differing only in degree.

Distribution of Arsenic in the Body.—Messrs. S. W. Johnson and R. H. Chittenden, of the Sheffield Laboratory of Yale College, have published the results of investigations into the manner in which arsenic is distributed in the human body in a case of arsenical poisoning. Scelossoff has recently attempted to show that instead of localizing itself principally in the muscles, as has long been accepted as a settled fact, arsenic is specially absorbed and retained in the nerve-tissue. His experiments were not considered satisfactory, and his conclusions were disputed, because the arsenic was administered in an exceptional form, and allowance was not made for the modification which might

have been caused by the changed form of the poison in the rate of absorption. In the body of Mrs. Riddle, of Connecticut, which was examined for arsenic after having been buried nearly a year and a half, the poison was looked for in the internal organs, the arm, leg, and muscular and bony tissue of other parts of the body, and was found in the sample portions examined in such proportions as to indicate the existence of 5·2261 grains of arsenious oxide in the whole body. Of this quantity, 2·3805 grains were found in the internal organs, and 2·8463 grains were assigned to the muscular and bony tissues. Only an unweighable trace was found in the brain. One hundred grammes of abdominal muscle were found to contain ·00045 gramme, 100 grammes of muscle and ribs ·0007 gramme, and 100 grammes of muscle from the thigh ·0004 gramme of metallic arsenic, while 300 grammes of brain yielded only an unweighable mirror. In the body of Mary Stannard, who was supposed to have died shortly after arsenic was administered to her, Professor Johnson found 83·23 grains of arsenious oxide in the stomach, liver, and other internal organs, while the brain contained hardly a perceptible trace of arsenic. In the case of a dog that was killed in the laboratory after the administration of arsenious acid in gradually increasing doses for eight days, the amount of arsenic absorbed by the brain-matter was found to be very small compared with the amount absorbed by other tissues. In a recent article on the distribution of arsenic in the animal body after the taking of arsenious oxide, E. Ludwig finds, by constantly agreeing results, that in the case of men as well as of dogs poisoned by arsenic, both in acute and chronic cases, the liver contains the most arsenic; and in acute forms the kidneys contain an abundant quantity; while the bones and brain, in either case, contain only a very small trace.

Albuminoids in Wheat, Grain, and Flour.—Professor Albert B. Prescott, of the University of Michigan, has reported upon the analysis of several varieties of wheat and of the flour from the same, made in order to ascertain the relative value of the different varieties and their flours in nitrogen and albuminoids. The results of the analyses of four varieties were, in percentages of nitrogen, as follows: White amber wheat, grain, 2·013; flour, 1·963; Fulce wheat, grain, 1·996; flour, 1·900; Clawson wheat, grain, 1·794; flour, 1·650; red winter wheat, grain, 2·096; flour, 1·963; patent flour from the last specimen, 2·040. The percentages of albuminoids are obtained in either case by multiplying the percentage of nitrogen by 6·25. The average of all the determinations, excluding that of the patent flour, is, in the entire grain, 1·974 per cent. of nitrogen, 12·338 of albuminoids; in the flour, 1·869 per cent. of nitrogen, 11·682 of albuminoids. The patent flour is made by a process which forces the middlings to give up a part of the rich layer of albuminoid cells which lies so close to the

woody husk that it ordinarily goes to the bran. Its high percentage of nitrogen corresponds with the extreme tenacity of its sponge and the purity of the bread and crusts baked from it. So far as the analyst can ascertain, the proportion of nitrogenous compounds is an unailing, practical measure of the capacity of flour to make light bread, and to make large and heavy loaves from a given weight.

A New Metallic Compound.—A new metallic compound, named Spence's metal, after its discoverer, Mr. J. Berger Spence, has been introduced, which possesses some remarkable and valuable qualities. Its preparation is based on the principle that the sulphides of metals combined with molten sulphur form a liquid which, on cooling, becomes a solid, homogeneous mass, possessing great tenacity, and having a peculiar dark gray—almost black—color. Nearly all the metallic sulphides will form, with an excess of sulphur, combinations which have the same properties. A useful form of the metal is made from an ore of iron pyrites containing lead and zinc sulphides, and belongs to the class of compounds known as thiates, or sulphur sulphides. The compound has the advantages of a low melting-point, 320° Fahr., of expanding on cooling, of resisting atmospheric and climatic influences better than marble or bronze, of superior resistance to acids, alkalies, and water, and of being susceptible of a high polish. A polished surface of the metal has been exposed for six months in all weathers without showing any change, and another specimen suffered but little from a month's soaking in *aqua regia*. By reason of its low melting-point it is easily prepared for the mold, and in consequence of its power of expanding it gives a nearly perfect cast. In the gelatine mold it yields an impression before the form of the mold is destroyed, and then, if the gelatine be allowed to remain on the metal till it is cooled, it remodels itself so as to be ready for the next casting. It is adaptable to a great variety of uses, for some of which it is superior to lead, and for which its cheapness—its cost being estimated as only about one fourth that of lead—gives it great advantages.

Cold as a Chemical Agent.—While heat of temperatures above the freezing-point of water has long been recognized as one of the most powerful agents for producing the chemical operations desired by manufacturers, heat of lower temperatures, or cold, as it is commonly called, has been less generally employed or thought of for such purposes. This agent has been lately made to aid in the manufacture of Glauber's salt, at some French works, with such success as to suggest that its more general application is possible in other directions. Under a process devised by M. Georges Fournier, of Paris, the lye from the oxidized pyritic shales of Rheims and Picardy from which alum and copperas were formerly made, containing aluminum sulphate and a portion of iron sulphate—

is mixed with common salt in such proportion that there shall be sodium enough to combine with all the sulphuric acid, and chlorine enough to take up all the aluminum and iron. The solution is then exposed to a temperature of from 3° to 5° below the freezing-point, at which the sulphate of soda is almost insoluble. That substance is deposited in the ordinary form of Glauber's salt as a fine crystalline sediment, while the aluminum and iron remain in solution as chlorides. The "mother-liquor," or lye, is then run off, and the deposit is washed in brine cooled down to the freezing-point. After it is dried, it is fit for any purpose to which Glauber's salt is applicable. The mother-liquid may be made into a chloride of aluminum, which is valuable for disinfecting purposes. A pure chloride of aluminum, suitable for use in dyeing, and for the destruction of the vegetable matter which is mingled with wool, may be prepared from cake-alum by a similar cold process. Another French inventor, by exposing the lyes of the "sal mixte" of the salt-works of the Mediterranean coast, consisting of common salt and sulphate of magnesia, to a temperature of about 11° below the freezing-point, obtains Glauber's salt in deposit with a solution of the chloride of magnesium, a substance largely used for weighting textile fabrics.

Luminous Paint.—The late Mr. Balmain succeeded in producing from a compound of lime and sulphur a constant and very powerful phosphorescent substance, which he patented and applied as a paint; articles coated with it become luminous after exposure to the light, and retain their glow for a considerable length of time. In a lecture on this substance by Professor Heaton, its sensitiveness was shown by passing electric sparks in front of a card painted with it which had been previously kept in darkness. Each spark impressed its image on the card, and made it luminous. Even a lucifer-match struck in front of a dark pane produced a visible effect on the paint. The highest effect is produced by the violet and ultra-violet rays. The red and yellow rays do not add to the luminosity; in fact, they diminish it when they are allowed to continue to act for a considerable time. A short exposure of the paint to ordinary daylight is sufficient to produce a high degree of illumination, the amount and duration of which will depend considerably on the quantity and quality of the light and on other conditions. When the paint has been exposed to the intense light of the sun or of burning magnesium, a good deal of the brilliancy disappears quickly, but after that the fading is very slow; and a more or less useful light will remain through the length of an ordinary winter's night. The paint appears to be of satisfactory durability as against all weathers and the action of sea-water. The useful purposes to which it may be applied are almost innumerable. The present cost of the substance is fixed by the manufacturers at twenty-eight shillings, or about seven dollars a pound. One pound will paint about twenty-five square feet of surface.

Action of Citric Acid on Minerals.—Professor H. Carrington Bolton, of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, has made investigations of the reactions of two hundred species of minerals with citric acid, by means of which he has found that that substance has a power of

decomposing all classes of minerals little less than that possessed by hydrochloric acid, and that this very difference in degree gives the organic acid an advantage over the mineral acid in the determination of species. Besides treating the minerals with a saturated solution of citric acid, he examined the action of the same solution, to which solid sodium nitrate is added. This mixture proves to be a very powerful solvent, dissolving bismuth, antimony, arsenic, copper, lead, tin, mercury, and silver, and nearly all the natural sulphides. The addition of solid potassium iodide to the solution of citric acid also greatly increases its decomposing power. Applying these reagents to minerals, Dr. Bolton obtained the following results: 1. Complete solution of carbonates, with liberation of carbonic-acid gas. 2. More or less complete decomposition of oxides, phosphates, etc. 3. More or less complete decomposition of sulphides, with liberation of sulphuretted hydrogen. 4. Decomposition of sulphides, with oxidation of the sulphur. 5. Decomposition of silicates, with separation of slimy or gelatinous silica. 6. Decomposition of certain species, with formation of characteristic precipitates. 7. Wholly negative action. The portability of the reagents in a dry state makes this method conveniently applicable in field-work. The relation of the reactions described to the geological work of the organic acids of the soil is a point of much importance, and merits further researches.

Purification of Water.—A new method of purifying and filtering water has been used for more than three months at the Royal Aquarium, London, with complete and satisfactory success, in furnishing a constant supply of perfectly clear water. The water, as it is furnished by the water companies, is first exposed in the softening cistern to a jet of lime-water which coagulates the clay that is held in suspension and causes the impurities to be deposited, and is afterward passed into a filter so constructed as to expose a very large filtering surface, and so arranged that it can be cleaned by mechanism in a few minutes every day, and oftener, if necessary. The apparatus is capable of delivering from eighty to one hundred gallons of pure water per square foot of surface per hour, while the ordinary rate of filtration through sand-beds is said to range from two to six gallons per square foot per hour only. The use of the system has been attended with a great improvement in the condition of the fishes in the tanks to which it has been applied, and a decrease in the rate of mortality among them. It has been adopted in several private establishments, and its application to the public water-supply has been suggested.

A plan possessing similar features, but adapted to a more extended scale of operation, is in use for purifying the waste-waters of the great paper-mills at Essonne, France, and has been suggested as likely to furnish the most feasible means, when still further enlarged, for solving

the difficult questions connected with the purification and disposition of the sewage-waters of Paris.

Bromide of Ethyl as an Anæsthetic.—Bromide of ethyl has been recommended as an anæsthetic, preferable in many respects to ether and chloroform. Dr. R. J. Levis, of the Pennsylvania and Jefferson College Hospitals, Philadelphia, reports of it that, so far as he has observed, after several months of experience in using it, it does not influence the circulation, except sometimes to produce a slight increase in the rapidity of the heart's action and in arterial pressure. Respiration is but little affected by it, beyond its producing the ordinary characteristics of all anæsthetic sleep. Nausea and vomiting occur less frequently with it than with ether or chloroform. It vaporizes readily, and seems to be entirely eliminated through the lungs. Its vapor produces no irritation in the respiratory passages. General excitement and the tendency to struggle occur far less frequently when it is used than in the early stages of the anæsthesia of ether, and, apparently, even than in that of chloroform. Complete anæsthesia is accomplished, it is estimated, in about one third less time than is the case with chloroform, and recovery from the effect is even comparatively more rapid, the time required for recovery generally not exceeding two minutes after the inhalation has ceased. The recovery is so complete that the patient is often able to stand and to walk immediately after awakening. Insensibility is usually produced in from two to three minutes. The completion of the effect is clearly shown by the dilatation of the pupils, which resume their normal condition when the sentient state returns. The vapor of this substance is not inflammable, so that it is free from the danger which attends the use of ether in the presence of artificial lights. The ordinary essentials of the proper and safe production of anæsthesia must not, however, be dispensed with in the use of the new agent, for its safety is only comparative, and is not yet proved to be absolute.

Improved Test for Sugar.—Mr. William L. Dudley, of the Miami Medical College, Ohio, observing that Böttger's test for sugar, with subnitrate of bismuth and sodium carbonate or sodium hydrate, is liable to error on account of the subnitrate being liable to contain silver, and occasionally other impurities, proposes the following modification of it: Dissolve subnitrate of bismuth in the least possible quantity of chemically pure nitric acid, and add to it an equal amount of acetic acid of ordinary strength. To the solution to be tested, add sufficient sodium hydrate to render it strongly alkaline; then add a drop or two of the bismuth solution; heat to boiling, and continue the boiling for a short time (twenty to thirty seconds). If sugar is present, the white, flocculent precipitate, which formed on the addition of the bismuth solution to the alkaline liquid, will become gray or black. The depth of color of the

precipitate depends on the amount of sugar present. If this is very small, the gray or black precipitate forms slowly, and it is necessary to allow it to stand for some time (ten or fifteen minutes). This reduction occurs in the cold, after standing quietly for twenty-four or forty-eight hours. The bismuth solution will remain unaltered, and can be diluted to any degree without the precipitation of the bismuth.

New Test for Gallic Acid.—Mr. Dudley also proposes the following new test for gallic acid: Prepare a solution of ammonium picrate by adding to a dilute aqueous solution of picric acid an excess of ammonium hydrate. Add a few drops of this reagent to an aqueous solution of gallic acid, and there is produced, at first, a red color, which, in a few seconds, becomes a beautiful green, the depth of color depending on the amount of gallic acid present. Pyrogallol and tannic acids produce, at first, a reddish color, but no further material change takes place with them.

Gallium in American Blendes.—Mr. H. B. Cornwall, of Princeton College, has made examinations of American blendes for gallium. Of two European blendes and several American ores submitted to the spectroscopic, the compact grayish blende from Friedensville, Pennsylvania, showed the gallium line about as plainly as a European specimen from Santander, which is classed as among the blendes richest in gallium, while a crystallized, rather dark, yellowish-brown specimen from Phoenixville, Pennsylvania, showed it more distinctly still. Of other American blendes submitted to examination, those from Joplin, Missouri, Warren, New Hampshire, and Ellenville, New York, gave reason to believe that they contain gallium. According to the studies of Lecoq de Boisbaudran, the alloys formed by heating gallium with aluminum remain brilliant, and do not sensibly attract oxygen from the air during their formation. After cooling, they are brittle and but slightly coherent. They decompose water with elevation of temperature, evolution of hydrogen, and the formation of a chocolate-brown powder, which ultimately becomes white flocks of alumina, almost the whole of the gallium being set free in globules apparently free from aluminum. The slow evolution of hydrogen by a solid alloy is considerably quickened by contact with a globule of liquid gallium, owing to electric action. Suffused gallium dissolves aluminum, forming very brilliant, liquid, or pasty alloys, which decompose water with great energy. Ordinarily the decomposition is spontaneous, but sometimes a globule of alloy is inert when thrown into water, while another fragment of the same mass is immediately active, and even renders the first so upon contact with it. On touching the liquid alloy with a fragment of solid gallium, crystals appear which are pure gallium, and which do not act on water. After their removal, the alloy is less active, but, if the whole is remelted by the heat of the hand, the alloy regains its activity.

Variations in the Spectra of Vapors and Gases under Pressure.—G. Ciamician has communicated to the Academy of Sciences of Vienna the results of a number of experiments which he has made on the influence of pressure and temperature on the spectra of gases and vapors. The experiments of Wullner had already shown that with hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, the spectral lines of the second order grow broader with higher pressure, and that this is accompanied with a continuously illuminated background. The phenomenon, however, presents, even in the three permanently gaseous elements, very great differences. While the lines in the spectrum of hydrogen become easily broader, even under moderate pressure, those of the spectrum of nitrogen do not expand. M. Ciamician's purpose was to institute a comparative investigation, extending to as many elements as possible, for the sake of finding a law, and perhaps an explanation, for the phenomena. The spectra of the three halogens, chlorine, iodine, and bromine, at high pressures, exhibit in each case the same peculiarities. The lines have the appearance of merging into each other, and, without showing an expansion into bands, they become occasionally somewhat broader. A steadily luminous background is seen, which becomes brighter when the pressure is increased, and which is often more intense than the lines themselves. The latter circumstance is frequently seen in the case of iodine, where the continuous spectrum finally covers all the rest; while with chlorine and bromine single lines are always distinguishable from the continuous surrounding light. The appearance is remarked of certain lines in the red field in chlorine and bromine which always preserve their precision and delicacy. Very interesting changes are exhibited in the intensity of the spectral lines under different pressures. It is difficult to ascertain the homology of the lines if the spectra of rarefied vapors in Geissler tubes are employed, for the lines can only be compared in groups, and frequently present in each of the three elements such differences of intensity as to leave in doubt the existence of a homology. The apparent differences arise in reality out of the variation of intensity and of the number of the lines with the pressure. Spectra exhibiting the perfect homology of the lines can always be produced by appropriate changes in the density of the gas or vapor. The spectrum of sulphur exhibits no change under increased pressure. The lines maintain their perfect sharpness, and a continuously illuminated background appears in the red field. Phosphorus and arsenic give no reaction, and do not show even the continuous spectrum. Arsenic gives at a moderate pressure, and without the interposition of the Leyden jar, a spectrum of the first order, which is almost continuous; and, with increase of pressure and interposition of the jar, it gives to the spectrum of lines the spectrum of the second order.

With the metals proper, the lines expand into bands, and the continuous light takes a less prominent place. In quicksilver the breadth of the green and violet lines especially is conspicuous. Sodium gives at high pressures a continuously illuminated spectrum near the D-lines, which then appear reversed; at first one or two lines are seen, but soon they widen and merge into each other, and the dark band of absorption gradually covers the whole illuminated part of the field.

New Syntheses.—Mr. Edgar F. Smith has made the synthesis of salicylic acid in small quantities by the following process: Upon heating one part of copper benzoate with about three parts of distilled water in a sealed tube at a temperature of 180° C. for a period of three hours, a large quantity of cuprous oxide separated. The contents of the tube were then removed to a rather large beaker, and acidulated with hydrochloric acid, and the solution was supersaturated with hydrogen sulphide. The filtrate from the copper sulphide contained a considerable amount of benzoic acid, which was removed by distillation in a current of steam. The residual liquid reduced to a small volume gave a crystallization of needles, fusing constant at 156° C., and afforded with ferric chloride the characteristic coloration given by salicylic acid. The salts also proved the presence of the latter. The experiment was varied in one or two instances by using an aqueous solution of benzoic acid and an ammoniacal solution of cupric oxide, when the heat had to be increased to 220° C.

Messrs. Grimaux and Adam have succeeded in building up citric acid, the characteristic acid of lemons, from glycerine. They first produced dichlorhydrine by the action of hydrochloric acid on glycerine, oxidized that substance with potassium dichromate and sulphuric acid, and treated the resultant substance with concentrated hydrocyanic acid. The acid corresponding to the product of the last application having been produced by saponifying with hydrochloric acid, its sodium salt was treated with potassium cyanide, whereby a dicyanide was produced. When decomposed by hydrochloric acid, this dicyanide yielded a citric acid in all respects identical with that obtained from the lemon and other fruits. Glycerine may be prepared from trichlorhydrine, which is itself obtained from the action of chlorine in daylight on propylene chloride, one of the products of the chlorination of propylene. Finally, propylene may be produced by passing a mixture of carbon monoxide and marsh-gas through a red-hot tube; and marsh-gas may be built up from carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. The synthesis of citric acid from these three elements is, therefore, now an accomplished fact.

CHILD, LYDIA MARIA, was born at Medford, Massachusetts, February 11, 1802, and died at Wayland, Massachusetts, October 20, 1880. Her ancestor, Richard Francis, came from Eng-

land and settled in Cambridge in 1636. She was the daughter of Convers Francis, a baker. Her mother was a simple-hearted, loving woman.

In her early life Miss Francis studied with her brother, who was afterward a distinguished divine and scholar of the Unitarian faith, and professor in Cambridge Theological School. When only seventeen years old, Lydia Maria Francis wrote "*Hobomok; a Tale of Early Times.*" This was published in 1824. It was followed by "*The Rebels; or, Boston before the Revolution,*" a novel containing an imaginary speech by James Otis, which has been transferred to many "speakers" and reading-books. She afterward kept a private school in Watertown from 1825 to 1828. In 1827 she established "*The Juvenile Miscellany,*" a charming monthly magazine for children, which she supervised for eight years. In 1828 she married David Lee Child, a Boston lawyer and journalist, distinguished for the independence of his character and the boldness with which he denounced social wrongs and abuses. In 1829 Mrs. Child published "*The American Frugal Housewife,*" a book of kitchen economy and directions, which in 1855 had reached its thirty-third edition. In 1831 were published "*The Mother's Book*" and "*The Girl's Own Book.*" In 1832 appeared the "*History of Woman,*" and "*Biographies of Good Wives.*" In 1833, when the antislavery excitement was attaining importance, Mrs. Child published her "*Appeal for that Class of Americans called African.*" This remarkable work attracted great attention. Miss Martineau, in her "*Martyr Age of America,*" describes Mrs. Child as "a lady of whom society was exceedingly proud before she published her '*Appeal,*' and to whom society has been extremely contemptuous ever since." Dr. Channing attributed part of his interest in the slavery question to the reading of Mrs. Child's book, and walked from Boston to Roxbury to thank her for it. Undaunted by social ostracism, this champion of antislavery continued her labors, publishing "*The Oasis,*" "*The Antislavery Catechism,*" "*Authentic Anecdotes of American Slavery,*" and "*The Evils of Slavery, and the Cure of Slavery.*"

Mrs. Child's novel of "*Philothea,*" published in 1833, is a romance of Greece in the days of Pericles, and is regarded as one of her best productions. In 1841 she was engaged as co-editor with her husband on the "*Antislavery Standard,*" published in New York. Later on she assumed the entire management of the paper, and made it agreeable to readers of literary taste, without abating its antislavery zeal. She wrote from New York a series of letters, describing every-day life in the city, to the "*Boston Courier.*" These were afterward published in two volumes, in 1843-'44. They went through seven or eight editions in this form. Other works were published as follows: "*Tact and Fiction*" (1846); "*Flowers for Children*" (1852); "*Isaac T. Hooper, a True Life*"

(1853); "The Progress of Religious Ideas through Successive Ages" (1855); and "Autumnal Leaves, and Sketches in Prose and Rhyme" (1857).

In 1859 Mrs. Child wrote a letter of sympathy to John Brown, then a prisoner at Harper's Ferry, which involved her in a correspondence with Governor Wise and Mrs. Mason, of Virginia; these letters were published in pamphlet form in 1860. During the same year she published two small tracts upon the fugitive-slave law and emancipation in the British West Indies. In 1864 she printed "Looking toward Sunset"; then followed "The Freedman's Book." In 1867 "The Romance of the Republic" was printed. During her later years she was remarkable for her munificence in contributing pecuniary help to the Union soldiers during the war, and afterward to the freedmen.

CHILDERS, HUGH CULLING EARDLEY, Secretary of State in the new Cabinet of Gladstone, was born in London, in June, 1827. He was educated at Cheam School and Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1850. He gained his earliest political experience in the Australian colonies, to which he proceeded immediately after leaving college. At the age of twenty-three Mr. Childers obtained a seat in the Victorian Cabinet as Commissioner of Trade and Customs, and retained that office six years. He was during the same time member for Portland in the Legislative Assembly. In 1857 he returned to England as Agent-general for the colony, and two years afterward contested Pontefract in the Liberal interest. Though unsuccessful, he was able to unseat his opponent on petition, and afterward gained the seat. Mr. Childers became a Lord of the Admiralty in 1864, and Financial Secretary to the Treasury in the following year, retiring on the advent of Lord Derby's third Ministry. On Mr. Gladstone's coming into power in December, 1868, he was assigned the position of First Lord of the Admiralty, but resigned, owing to ill health, in March, 1871. He joined the Ministry again as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster in August, 1872, and retained the appointment until the Administration was reconstructed, in September, 1873. Mr. Childers is the author of pamphlets on "National Education," "Free Trade," and other subjects, and is a Fellow of the Royal Society.

CHILI (REPÚBLICA DE CHILE). Detailed statements relating to the territorial division, population, etc., of the country were given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

The Patagonian boundary question still remains unsettled, but a friendly solution of the difficulty is confidently looked forward to both by the Chilians and the Argentines.

The President of the Republic is Señor Don Aníbal Pinto (inaugurated on September 18, 1876). The Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Interior, Señor Don M. Ro-

cabarren; Foreign Affairs and Colonization, Señor Don Domingo Santa María; Finance, Señor Don J. Alfonso; Justice, Public Worship, and Public Instruction, Señor Huerta; and War and the Navy, General E. Silo.

The peace strength of the Chilian army was fixed by Congress, in 1875, at 3,573, comprising 712 horse, 2,000 foot, 804 artillery, etc. The National Guard consisted of 1,215 horse, 21,147 foot, and 1,925 artillery. But, on war being declared against Peru and Bolivia, the strength of the regular army was raised to 20,000, and that of the National Guard to 30,000, thus giving a total land-force of 50,000. In October, 1880, a single number of the "Official Gazette" is said to have contained eleven decrees relating to the formation of as many new corps, with an aggregate of 20,000 men.

According to official returns published in the second half of the year, the navy comprised 11 ships of war, 12 transports, 3 pontoons, and 2 launches (torpedoes), in all 28 craft; with an aggregate of 28,107 tons, 5,459 horse-power; an armament of 83 pieces of cannon; and 224 naval officers of all grades, and 1,686 seamen; besides six marine officers commanding 389 marines. In the number of vessels here stated are included six mail-steamers chartered by the Government until the end of the war, and equipped by their owners.

In President Pinto's message to Congress on June 1, 1880, the national revenue, ordinary and extraordinary, for 1879, was set down at \$27,693,087, and the expenditure at \$24,777,360. These figures, if accurately transcribed, exhibit a marked—*one might almost say an unprecedented—improvement*, as compared with those for 1878 (\$20,443,977 revenue, and \$21,375,728 expenditure); and, what is still more noteworthy, a surplus of \$2,915,727, instead of a deficit of nearly \$1,000,000. Señor Pinto remarks, however, that "this latter sum (the expenditure for 1879) does not include a considerable portion of the expenses incurred by our legation in Europe and not yet liquidated." But, be the expenses referred to ever so great, the fact still stands of an increase of \$7,249,110 in the revenue for 1879 over that for the year previous.

The customs receipts at the port of Valparaíso for the first quarter of 1880 show an increase over the corresponding period of 1879, as follows:

MONTHS.	1879.	1880.
January.....	\$261,146 19	\$269,313 83
February.....	449,182 69	539,619 00
March.....	555,264 50	667,281 24
Total.....	\$1,265,543 47	\$1,476,214 17

This result was in part due to advanced rates of duty. Taxation, direct and indirect, was in numerous instances increased, though in none to an onerous degree, save in the case of the nitrate, to which further reference will be made hereafter. One most important ex-

ception, however, to the swelling of taxes, was the abolition of the *estanco* or tobacco monopoly, an institution handed down from colonial times, and the suppression of which can scarcely fail to tell favorably on the future welfare of the country. The tobacco-plant finds a genial soil in many parts of the republic, as has hitherto been proved by its cultivation in large quantities, notwithstanding the monopoly, and of excellent quality too, judging from common report. This act, then, sanctions a valuable branch of agriculture, and the demand for home consumption may henceforward be met by home production, without the necessity of keeping up the time-honored system of smuggling, which also flourished, in spite of the *estanco*. Hereafter, the duty on Havana tobacco, in leaf or cut, or in whatever form imported, is to be \$1.50 per kilogramme, and, on all other kinds of tobacco, \$1 per kilogramme.

In the foregoing item of expenditure are not included the expenses of the war with Peru and Bolivia. In the absence of official data, these expenses are estimated at about \$2,000,000 per month—a weighty burden, to be sure, for the Treasury of so small a country. Yet President Pinto, in his message already alluded to, affirms that “the vast expenses of the war have been punctually paid with the resources provided by Congress, with an increased revenue due to the growth of the country’s wealth, and with the resources which have already commenced to flow in from the territories conquered by the armies of the republic.” The resources “provided by Congress” were necessarily derived from increased taxation, and Government issues of a feeble currency, in addition to the bank emission of \$16,500,000 before the commencement of the war.* Of these Government issues, which, considering the absolute necessity of obtaining funds and the general position of affairs, are regarded as one of the best methods that could have been adopted, another was authorized by the Senate in August, 1880. The bill, as sent up from the Chamber of Deputies, might be considered as empowering the Government to issue \$3,000,000 of paper money and obtain some three millions more as an indirect home loan, was so modified by the Senate as to sanction an indirect home debt of \$12,000,000, as follows:

ARTICLE I. The President of the Republic is authorized, during one year, to emit twelve million dollars (\$12,000,000) in paper money of the same character and legal status as that already issued in virtue of the laws of April 10 and August 26, 1879, and of January 10, 1880.

ART. II. Fiscal offices, to be determined by the President of the Republic, shall receive in deposit, but without making use of such deposits, to the amount of twelve million dollars in Treasury bonds or notes referred to in the preceding article. Sums less than one hundred dollars shall not be received. The deposits shall not be made for less than thirty days, and shall bear interest at five per cent. per annum if made

for six months, four per cent. if for four months, and three per cent. if for a shorter time.

ART. III. As often as, in virtue of this law, the sum of one million dollars shall have been emitted in bonds or notes, the President of the Republic will order tenders to be called, for an equal sum, on the terms referred to in the preceding article. Such tenders shall be preferred as are made for the shortest term, and therefore gain the lowest interest.

Taxation, direct and indirect, has been mentioned as one of the resources provided by Congress, and it may not be uninteresting here to explain the allusion already made to the proposed increase of duties upon Atacama nitrate. Though Congress was still in session at the end of August, busily engaged in the discussion of that measure, no decision had yet been arrived at. The rate of the tax proposed to be levied was equal to one half the market value of the nitrate at the time the bill was introduced. “It will be remembered,” writes a resident of Valparaíso, “that Chili, constituting herself the champion of the rights of her citizens, as she was undoubtedly in honor bound to do, undertook the present war in order to protect certain of her subjects (engaged in the nitrate trade) from the illegal exaction, on the part of Bolivia, of an export duty of ten cents per Spanish quintal, and the present action of the Government will strike them as not a little strange, should they compare this comparatively trifling tax with the exorbitant one which Chili now pretends to impose; and they may, and probably will, come to the conclusion that the protection which Chili has afforded to her citizens, in this case at any rate, may prove a very costly one. Chili thus appears in the eyes of the world as compelling those, for whom she undertook the war in order to protect them from the exactions of Bolivia, to pay a hundred or a hundred and fifty cents per quintal on the nitrate they export, as a sort of compensation for saving them from the payment of the trifling duty of ten cents per quintal demanded by the Government of Bolivia; and should the projected law be passed, the unfortunate nitrate-producers may well say, ‘Heaven save us from our friends!’” The bill was passed on October 1st, and the duty is payable in specie or its equivalent. A law was passed at the same time, subjecting iodine to a duty of sixty cents per kilogramme, payable likewise in gold.

Lastly, the “resources which have already commenced to flow in from the territories conquered by the armies of the republic”—the Peruvian guano deposits, and the nitrate deposits in the Peruvian province of Tarapacá, now in the possession of the Chilians. Special attention, says Señor Pinto, has, since the occupation of Tarapacá, been paid to the management of the valuable sources of revenue contained in that province; and the army has been constantly followed by Government employees, whose duty it was to make arrangements for the collection of revenues which formerly belonged to Peru.

* See “Annual Cyclopædia” for 1879, p. 140.

Of the nitrate, 200,000 quintals (of 100 pounds each) were sold by auction at Valparaíso, in March, 1880, for account of the Government of Chili, at from \$3.75 to \$3.85 per quintal. As for the guano, it is to be sold for account of the Peruvian bondholders, but subject to a royalty of £1 2s. per ton to the Chilian Government. The yield to Chili, from the nitrate of Tarapacá, will also be in the form of a tax, the aggregate amount of which, in the opinion of the most experienced, can not exceed \$600,000, a sum perhaps sufficient to defray the costs of the new province (in the now probable event of Chili's ultimate success in the pending strife); but "other means must be sought to pay off the war debt."

Referring to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, where the amount of the national debt of Chili, on December 31, 1878, was set down at \$63,182,544, we reproduce the following schedule, published in London, in 1880, for the same period:

1838, 44 per cent., foreign.....	\$774,000
1861, 6 " " home.....	2,300,000
1863, 8 " " home.....	3,000,000
1865, 6 " " home.....	1,380,000
1866, 7 " " foreign.....	5,604,630
1867, 6 " " foreign.....	10,000,000
1869, 6 " " home.....	757,000
1870, 5 " " foreign.....	5,068,500
1873, 6 " " home.....	1,628,000
1873, 6 " " home.....	1,232,865
1873, 5 " " foreign.....	11,332,500
1875, 5 " " foreign.....	5,665,000
1878, 8 " " home.....	711,000
1877, 8 " " home.....	5,719,200
1878, 9 " " home.....	3,900,000
Censos redimidos.....	8,349,442
Floating debt in 1878.....	3,058,630

Total.....\$77,654,238

It will be observed that the old three per cent. debt is not here represented. These loans have for the most part been invested in the following, and are mainly guaranteed by mortgage:

Valparaíso and Santiago Railway.....	\$17,836,842 92
Southern Railway.....	9,366,845 82
Angol.....	7,798,152 64
Talcahuano and Chilian Railway.....	5,030,161 55
Calle Blanco.....	651,000 0
The Cochrane, Blanco, and Magallanes.....	2,517,151 24
Congress Building.....	637,315 83
The Exhibition of 1875.....	615,766 57
Valparaíso Lyceum.....	269,977 03
Valparaíso Wharf.....	1,243,838 71
Valparaíso Custom-House.....	1,717,402 52
San José.....	22,250 00

Total.....\$47,176,706 83

The total value of the exports for 1879 was \$36,620,226, and that of the imports \$22,740,000, against \$29,727,825 and \$25,322,011 respectively for 1878.

The post-office returns for 1879 show the following figures: 7,572,987 letters and 10,000,000 parcels, newspapers, etc., against 6,632,110 and 8,800,000 respectively in the year previous.

To the remarks in our volume for 1879 on the subject of public education, we have but to add that, of the total expenditure of the municipality of Santiago, the capital of the republic, in 1879, namely, \$1,355,682, \$49,423 was for schools.

In October last it was reported in Colombia that a treaty had just been concluded between that republic and Chili for the submission to arbitration of all questions in dispute between the two countries. The arbitrators were to be chosen by each party, and, in case they did not agree, the matter was to be referred to the President of the United States. It was also stipulated in the compact that all the other nations of America should be invited to become parties to it, so that in future there might be no possibility of such a war arising as that existing between Peru and Chili. The city of Panama was the point selected for the meeting of the representatives of the different countries which may accept the invitation and wish to join the compact, and the end of 1880 or the beginning of 1881 was the time named for the conference to take place.

The military and naval operations of the war will be found in the article PERU in the present volume.

CHINA, an empire in Asia. Emperor, Kwang-Su, formerly called Tsaetee, born in 1872, a son of Prince Ch'un, and grandson to the Emperor Tau-Kwang, who died in 1850; he succeeded to the throne in 1875. The area of China proper, according to Behm and Wagner's "Bevölkerung der Erde" (vol. vi, 1880), is 4,024,690 kilometres; population, 405,000,000. The area of the dependencies is estimated at 7,789,060 square kilometres, with a population of about 30,000,000. The aggregate area of the whole Chinese Empire may, therefore, be estimated at 11,813,750 square kilometres, with a population of about 435,000,000. The only writer of note who estimates the population of China proper considerably below the above figure, is the missionary, S. Wells Williams, the author of "The Middle Kingdom," who, in a communication to the secretaries of the American Board, expresses the opinion that the disastrous civil wars which have taken place in China have reduced the population of China proper at least to 340,000,000. A letter of Bishop Ridel, the head of the Catholic Church in Corea, states that the so-called "Neutral Territory" between China and Corea has now been occupied by the Government of Corea. The Bishop says ("Annals of the Propagation of Faith," 1879, fifth number): "The land through which we travel has been inhabited only for a short time. A few years ago it was a vast desert which separated China from Corea. The Chinese Government has sold the land, and to-day small new dwelling-houses may be seen everywhere. After the inhabitants had felled and burned the trees, they tilled the land, which soon will be fertile. This tract of land contains about 13,882 square kilometres, and the Korean Government possesses upon it several houses."

Recent accounts of the population of Peking continue to be widely different, varying from 500,000 to 1,650,000. The population of the treaty ports is estimated as follows:

Canton	1,500,000	Tamsui and Kelung	60,000
Tientsin	950,000	Wenchow	50,000
Hankow	600,000	Woochow	50,000
Poochow	600,000	Kiukiang	40,000
Shanghai	278,000	Cheefoo	30,000
Takow and Taiwan	235,000	Kiungchow	30,000
Cnlinkiang	140,000	Swatow	20,000
Ningpo	120,000	Pakhoi	10,000
Amoy	88,000	Tchang	(uncertain)
Newchwang	60,000		

According to a proclamation of the Governor of Che-kiang issued in 1880, there are enormous areas of land left uncultivated in that district, and, although seventeen years have elapsed since the last war which so terribly ravaged the country, a large extent of land has never been able to pay the taxes, and has consequently been left untilled. This is particularly observable in the departments of Ching-houa, Chuchow, and Yen-show, in which upward of 1,000,000 acres are idle; while in those of Hang-show, Ka-shing, and Hu-chow, there are 6,000,000 in the same predicament. Some of the land is too poor even to return much for labor and capital bestowed upon it, but there are at least 5,500,000 acres of really rich and fertile soil at present completely neglected. This arises partly from the fear lest any cultivator of the land in question should be called upon to pay up the arrears of taxes, but the Governor's proclamation specially mentions this exemption.

The military forces of the empire consist of two distinct bodies. The corps which is called the "Banner Army," because it was ranged under eight banners, numbers roughly 230,000 non-commissioned officers and privates, besides 40,000 *élèves* or paid expectants from these grades to the higher ranks, and 5,000 artificers and followers. There are about 86,000 in Peking; other 50,000 are distributed about the province of Pechili; there are 40,000 in Mantchooria; and the remainder furnish the Tartar garrisons of the chief cities throughout the empire. By far the most important of all the Banner forces is that which is known as the Hian-ki-Ying, and which, according to Sir Thomas Wade, is the only corps which can have any claim to be considered as an army. They number some 36,000, besides 26,000 *élèves*. But it is commonly believed that of the whole Banner forces throughout the empire at the present time no more than 30,000 of the Hian-ki-Ying, with perhaps 18,000 of those that make up the twenty-five garrisons, can be said to be effective. Military exercises are almost universally carried on in the imperial hunting park—an immense tract of country surrounded by a wall, the access to which is jealously forbidden to foreigners. In Peking there is a force of field-artillery with modern breech-loading guns, but of their numbers and effectiveness he could form no idea. While the Bannermen are the soldiers of the Mantchoo sovereign, an alien, though suzerain power, the force of the Green Standard, called Luh-Ying, is, in part, the constitutional army of China. The duties of the Luh-Ying

are by no means confined to those of a European army, for the responsibilities of a police force are imposed upon them, and by far the larger portion of them seem to be devoted to the duty of preventing robbery, contrabandism, and other crimes. Besides being the land-force, the Luh-Ying man the navy of the seaboard provinces, and have a distinct organization of divisions and garrisons, each under its general. So completely are these forces under the Governors-General of provinces, that even the Imperial Cabinet at Peking finds it very difficult and sometimes impossible to induce these officers to move their army beyond the borders of their province. The strength of these provincial armies varies with the size of the province and with the duties they have to perform. Taking all the provinces, the average for each is about 34,500 men and 640 officers—one officer to fifty-two men. Of the capabilities of the nation Captain Gill said: "The Chinese, especially those of the north, are a fine people physically; they are hardy and enduring, frugal and temperate; they can undergo great fatigue on a small amount of food, and will support great privations without complaint. They are law-abiding, docile, and obedient to authority; and, if the discipline in their armies is at present lax, the history of Gordon's force shows us what it might be if the soldiers were properly paid, properly officered, and properly looked after." Captain Gill is of opinion that the Chinese, if properly trained, properly armed, and properly led by officers in whom they placed confidence, would certainly furnish material for admirable soldiers.

The foundation for a navy was laid in 1877, when the Government received four iron-clad gunboats which had been built in England. They were primarily intended for the defense of the coast. To these four others were added in 1879, which had likewise been constructed in England.

The following table exhibits the commerce of China from 1872 to 1878, the values being expressed in taels (1 tael = \$1.61):

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
1872	74,826,180	83,719,887
1873	78,992,908	77,540,919
1874	64,360,864	66,712,868
1875	67,808,247	68,912,929
1876	70,269,574	80,820,512
1877	73,253,170	67,445,022
1878	70,504,027	67,172,179

In the ten years from 1869 to 1878, inclusive, the imports increased in total value about 18 per cent., and the exports 25 per cent. The foreign trade of China is mainly with Great Britain and her colonies. Tea constitutes two thirds of the exports to Great Britain, the only other important article being raw silk.

The extent of the commercial intercourse with the United States, Great Britain, the British colonies, and Japan, may be seen from the following table, giving the volume of the trade with each country in taels:

COUNTRIES.	1877.		1878.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
United States.....	1,138,000	7,951,000	2,258,000	6,576,000
Great Britain.....	19,994,000	27,784,000	14,952,000	27,010,000
Hong Kong.....	27,002,000	15,256,000	27,445,000	14,979,000
British India.....	19,738,000	578,000	21,077,000	374,000
Straits Settlements, and other English possessions.....	1,643,000	3,017,000	1,471,000	3,060,000
Japan.....	8,527,000	1,870,000	4,050,000	1,683,000

The principal articles of imports and exports in 1877 and 1878 are shown in the following table:

IMPORTS.	1877.	1878.	EXPORTS.	1877.	1878.
Opium.....	80,274,000	82,263,000	Black tea.....	27,155,000	27,237,000
Cotton goods.....	18,956,000	16,029,000	Raw silk and silken goods.....	22,755,000	25,126,000
Woolen goods.....	4,927,000	5,043,000	Green tea.....	4,388,000	8,422,000
Metals.....	4,343,000	4,175,000	Sugar.....	8,725,000	1,864,000

The movement of shipping in the Chinese ports during the years 1877 and 1878 is shown by the following table (entrances and clearances being taken together):

FLAGS.	1877.		1878.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British.....	9,042	6,497,852	9,973	7,499,373
German.....	1,370	496,908	1,983	743,457
American.....	1,446	556,112	1,018	341,942
French.....	167	168,389	174	169,073
Japanese.....	106	115,263	126	123,887
Chinese.....	6,082	3,974,544	6,860	4,377,357
Others.....	638	180,029	794	260,305
Steamers.....	13,708	10,635,625	14,200	11,726,915
Sailing-vessels.....	5,099	1,847,966	6,728	1,719,479
Total.....	18,807	11,983,591	20,928	13,446,349

The first attempt to introduce railways was made by the construction of a short line from Shanghai to Woosung, forty miles in length. One half of this line, from Shanghai to Kangwang, was opened for traffic June 3, 1876, but closed again in 1877, after having been purchased by the Chinese authorities. There are four lines of electric telegraph, having an aggregate length of thirty-nine miles.

The Chinese Government has lately maintained an independent and determined attitude in its transactions with foreign powers, and indicated an intention to recover all of the territory over which it formerly exercised dominion. The treaty with Russia for the retrocession of the province of Kulja or Ili to China, which was concluded by the Chinese envoy at St. Petersburg in the fall of 1879, was not satisfactory to the Government. It granted more important commercial privileges to Russian subjects than the Government was willing to concede, and abandoned to Russia the most valuable part of the province of Kulja, a tract which was so situated geographically and strategically that it left it in the power of Russia, in the event of war between the two nations, to cut off communication between Kulja and the rest of the Chinese Empire at any moment. The Government allowed no time to be lost in expressing its disapprobation of the conduct of its envoy, and its dissent from the conclusions to

which he had committed it; and, on the complaint of the Generalissimo Tso-Tsung-t'ang, lodged with the Emperor, a decree was issued on the 2d of January, several days before the returning envoy, Chung How, reached the capital, depriving him of all his ranks and offices, and ordering him to be handed over to the Board of Punishments, to be dealt with for returning from his post without leave. By the same decree, the treaty and all the official documents connected with it were ordered to be submitted to a council of the highest metropolitan officials, to be reported upon. The indignation against the envoy, Chung How, was very strong, so that notwithstanding he was one of the best Manchoo families, and had powerful connections who brought to bear in his favor all the influence they could exert, and that his cause was taken up by the foreign Ministers, he was for several months threatened with the extreme punishment. The court was divided between two parties: one party, led by the Prince of Tun, with the Board of Censors, of which Chung How was a president, and other powerful officers, supported the impeachment urged by the Generalissimo, and advocated the abrogation of the treaty at all hazards; the other party, in which the Prince of Kung, the Imperial Chancellor, and the members of the Board of Foreign Affairs, were prominent, did not approve of the terms of the treaty, but advocated a lenient treatment of Chung How, and efforts to effect a peaceful settlement of the questions with Russia. The former party appeared to be in the ascendant for a time, but the views of the advocates of a more moderate course prevailed in the end. The treaty was submitted to the six official boards for examination; they, after considering its provisions, decided that the Government ought rather to risk a war than consent to such stipulations. The Russian Government caused it to be given out that the refusal of the Chinese to ratify the treaty would be considered an insult to the Czar, who had given it his signature, and would be resented as an affront, making a rupture of diplomatic relations necessary. The Chinese began to strengthen those points which would be exposed to Russian attack in

case of war, and the Russians collected ammunition and stores in the district of Amoor.

A semi-official statement of the situation as viewed by Russia was published by Professor Martens in April, which, after reviewing the facts that led up to the difficulty, declared that Russia would now restore Kulja, if only approached in a friendly spirit, and would never yield to threats of force. The present conflict was attributed to the predominance of the anti-European party at the court of Peking, headed by the elder Bogdokan, and by the General Tso-Tsung-t'ang. The document suggested that, in the event of a war, the European residents in the foreign settlements in China would be in danger of a massacre, and declared "on good authority" that the representatives of all the European powers at the court of Peking recognized the common danger threatening all foreigners and the solidarity of their interests, and were opposing the anti-European party by supporting the just claims of Russia. Professor Martens also rebutted the accusation which had been brought in some quarters that England had intrigued to foment a conflict between Russia and China, and stated that the British representative at Peking was making energetic efforts to avert the danger, and was lending his hearty support to the Russian *chargé d'affaires*. The "Agence Russe" at about the same time announced that it would be premature to apprehend serious complications, as nothing was yet known of the nature of the Chinese proposals; Russia, however, it added, "is not accustomed to regard a treaty which has been concluded as non-existent, and if new negotiations become necessary they will be carried on under conditions better calculated to secure the execution of the treaty." A letter was published through the same office relating an interview with the Marquis Ts'eng, the Chinese ambassador at Paris, in which his Excellency was represented as saying that the Chinese Government greatly desired to avoid a war with Russia, and to maintain friendly relations with that country. A letter in the "Moscow Gazette" gave an additional and more definite statement of the reasons for the refusal of the Chinese to ratify the treaty. They were, first, that the mountain-passes would, according to the provisions of the treaty, remain in the possession of Russia; and, secondly, that the sum of five million rubles, which it was stipulated should be paid to the Russian Government, would be better expended by China in military preparations. In order to be prepared to meet any contingency without embarrassment, the Chinese Government made an amicable arrangement with Japan respecting the Loochoo Islands, the sovereignty of which had been in dispute between the two powers. It also endeavored to form an alliance with that nation, but without success.

It was announced early in April that the Chinese Government had entirely rejected the treaty, and claimed the unconditional cession of Ili, and had intimated that it would invade and

occupy the district if its demands were not complied with. The Russian Government was determined not to yield, and its military officers began discussing plans for a campaign. Arrangements were begun for sending a large force toward the frontier; seven vessels were dispatched from Cronstadt during June to reinforce the Russian fleet in the Eastern waters, and were to be followed by fifteen hundred soldiers sent to the same destination. The Chinese were also preparing, and were putting themselves in a condition to make an effective contest. They had bought from Germany one hundred and fifty pieces of heavy breech-loading ordnance of modern design, and had native officers in their service who had been instructed in Prussian regiments and knew how to use the guns. The forts at the mouth of the Peiho were partly armed with Krupp guns, and fifteen gunboats were stationed in the river for the protection of the capital. The Chinese ambassador at Berlin denied, however, all knowledge that any preparations for war were going on in China, and the Chinese *chargé d'affaires* at St. Petersburg in July again assured the Russian Minister that his country did not wish to go to war with any European power. It is certain that the reports of hostile acts and aggressions by the Chinese, and of battles, which were numerous during the summer, were unfounded. A Russian vessel sailed on the 2d of July for Chinese waters, having on board four thousand troops of various arms, with two torpedo-boats and a large supply of cartridges and torpedoes; other vessels and more torpedo-boats followed. Work was actively prosecuted at the dock-yards during the month, and in its latter days the last contingent of the Pacific squadron left Cronstadt under instructions not to proceed to the Pacific Ocean at once, but to wait in the Mediterranean for further orders.

The Chinese Government had in the mean time gradually modified its policy till it assumed a more pacific shape. Chung How was sentenced by the Board of Princes and High Officers, by whom he was tried in April, to be confined in prison till fall and then executed. A milder sentence was advised by the party of Prince Kung, but they were overruled. The case of the envoy was then taken up by the foreign ambassadors and Ministers, and by the Marquis Ts'eng, the Chinese ambassador to London and Paris, and was urged with success, so that on the 2d of July it was announced from Peking that Chung How had been reprieved, in order to show that China did not wish to hurt the feelings of Russia, and desired the continuance of friendly relations. The Marquis Ts'eng was instructed in March to go to St. Petersburg. A month later, it was reported that the Chinese Government had expressed a desire to resume negotiations, and had authorized the Marquis Ts'eng to conduct them at the Russian capital. The Marquis arrived at St. Petersburg on the 30th of July, and was received by the Czar on the

23d of August. The Czar expressed, and the envoy reciprocated, a desire for the peaceful issue of the mission. Almost coincidentally with this event, the "Agence Russe" called attention to the conciliatory spirit which had been shown by the two Governments, and mentioned that the Government at Peking had lately settled in a satisfactory manner several matters in China in which Russian subjects were interested; the Russian *chargé d'affaires* in Peking telegraphed that unfinished matters (other than the affair of Kulja) had been satisfactorily decided; and an express statement was published that Chung How had been set at liberty in consequence of the representations of the Marquis Tsêng. The new negotiations on the Kulja question were begun at St. Petersburg on the 2d of September, it having been decided that the Russian Minister at Peking, M. Bützow, should be charged only with the details and the ratification of the results of the negotiations. The Marquis Tsêng informed the Russian Government that China desired to substitute for the Treaty of Livadia a convention ceding the whole of the Ili territory. The Russian Government, while it did not refuse to revise the conditions of the treaty, demanded a rectification of the frontier, in order to put an end to the elements of disorder and stop the flight of Chinese subjects into Russian territory, and also required the possession of a convenient part of the territory of Kulja for the purpose, it was stated, of establishing there a colony of Dungenes, whom it would be dishonorable to abandon to Chinese vengeance. A few days later M. Bützow was recalled to St. Petersburg for the purpose of conferring with the Marquis Tsêng respecting the best means of removing the difficulties between the two countries; or, as was afterward more definitely stated, because the Marquis Tsêng had received permission from his Government to make further concessions, practically accepting the Russian terms as the basis of negotiations. This fact effectually disposed of the rumors that war was again imminent, and made it evident that the Chinese Government had become more conciliatory rather than more warlike.

A formal statement of the stipulations desired by Russia was presented in answer to the communications of the Chinese, in which a demand was added to the conditions previously mentioned for a reimbursement of the expenses of the squadron which had been sent to the Pacific Ocean.

The Chinese Government has demanded of the Portuguese possession of the island of Macao, founding its claim on the ground that the Portuguese have never acquired title to the territory by treaty, conquest, or any other recognized means. The Viceroy of Canton visited Macao unexpectedly during the spring, with great state, and was received with honors. In an interview with the Governor of the colony, he called attention to the fact that, although the Portuguese had had intercourse with China

longer than any other European nation, there was yet no treaty between the two powers, and was pleased to say that there would be no difficulty whatever in arranging a treaty which should put the Portuguese on the same footing as other nations, "not forgetting that acquired rights should be respected." He departed after having staid about three hours in the town, politely thanking the Governor for his courteous reception. Having returned home, he at once communicated to his Government that in pursuance of instructions he had visited the city, and had taken possession of it without resistance; that the Governor had come on board his vessel to render obedience and promised to pay tribute in the future; and that he (the Viceroy), through mere compassion, had permitted the Governor to go his way in peace, and had allowed the Portuguese to reside in the territory. The Portuguese Governor, in ignorance of the construction that the Viceroy had put upon the interview, informed his Government that nothing but advantage could accrue to his country from the visit. Macao was first occupied by a band of Portuguese adventurers in 1557, permission having been granted them by the Chinese authorities in return for services they had rendered in expelling a pirate who had taken up his quarters there. About twenty-five years afterward, when the Portuguese had erected valuable and permanent buildings, the Chinese demanded a ground-rent for the territory. It was paid till 1849, when the Portuguese Governor refused to acknowledge the sovereignty of China, and expelled its officers. The Chinese have steadily refused to recognize the right of the Portuguese to jurisdiction, and declined, in 1862, to ratify a treaty in which the sovereignty of Portugal over Macao was implied in a clause providing for the appointment of a Chinese consul there. The Portuguese journals stated late in April that the Chinese were blockading Macao, and that their cruisers had captured seventeen vessels bound for that port; also that the Portuguese Government had ordered a corvette to proceed from Mozambique to the Chinese coast. The President of the Portuguese Council of Ministers stated in the Upper House of the Cortes, in answer to a question, that Macao was in a position that would enable it to resist, most advantageously, any aggression.

Complications arose during the summer with Spain, which were occasioned by the interference of the Chinese Government with the emigration of coolies to Cuba. Spain demanded an apology and compensation for the interference, and threatened to occupy ports in Formosa and to blockade the Chinese coast, if they were not granted. The Chinese Government insisted that the attempted exportation of coolies was contrary to the treaty, and in violation of integrity and humanity. Spain had the moral support, it was said, of Portugal, whose representatives were sore over the Chinese claim to Macao, and of the Peruvian

envoy, who was irritated by the refusal of the Chinese on the same grounds as were set up in the case of the proposed Cuban emigration to allow a large number of coolies to sail for Peru. The position of China was supported on all material points by the English Governor of Hong-Kong.

Two treaties have been negotiated with commissioners appointed by the Government of the United States, and were signed at Peking on the 17th of November. One of the treaties relates to the introduction of Chinese into the United States, and is understood to secure to that nation the control and regulation of the immigration; the other relates to commerce.

The instructions of the Tsungli Yamèn to the Chinese Ministers abroad, with respect to the revisions of the treaties, furnish the most trustworthy indications of the views which the Chinese Government entertains of its position among the nations, and of what its relations with them should be. The instructions begin by claiming for China a rigid adherence to the treaties which it has signed, and by stating that complaints have arisen in the main from accidents to individuals and from the incidence of taxation. The former can not be guarded against by any amount of foresight; the latter ground arises from differences in the reading of the treaties. But the treaties may be revised every ten years, when the misunderstandings that have appeared may be remedied. The opinion of the Chinese Government is then set forth on the four points of transit, the *lekin* taxes, extra-territoriality, and the "most favored-nation clause." The remarks on transit are technical, but make a distinction between certificated and uncertificated merchandise. It is plainly stated that the *lekin* dues, concerning which disputes have arisen with the British Government, are as objectionable to Chinese merchants as they are to foreigners, and that the Government regards them as only a temporary expedient. "Independent powers," it is said, "must be guided by national necessities in fixing their taxation. In these troublous times the demands of the Government are very heavy, and it is impossible to avoid having recourse to special measures. We maintain that all such matters should be left to be determined by China herself, and that the foreigner has no more right to interfere with, or object to, them than China would have to interfere with, or criticise, the action of a foreign government in raising loans or increasing taxes." The true meaning of the clauses in the treaties guaranteeing extra-territoriality is, according to the instructions, not that a foreigner is at liberty to break Chinese laws, but that if he offends he shall be punished by his own national officers. Therefore, foreign governments should take care that, their consuls being vested with this great authority, only good and trustworthy men should be appointed to those posts. Moreover, it is added, "where cases requiring joint investigation occur, it is neither convenient nor

dignified for a Chinese officer to sit on the bench with a merchant-consul, who may have been fined for smuggling the day before, or who in his mercantile capacity may, perhaps, be personally interested in the case at issue." Of the "most favored-nation clause," the Tsungli Yamèn say that as "it is difficult to distinguish between the foreigners, or to say which belongs to which nationality," it is only right that it should extend to all; but no nation must accept it without giving the corresponding consideration as expressed in the original treaty; for to claim the benefit of the clause otherwise is unfair. The last of the instructions declares that, recognizing that the object of all religious systems is to do men good, China has granted protection to missionaries. But some of these missionaries, "exalting the importance of their office, arrogate to themselves an official status," and interfere with Chinese official business. "This state of things China can not tolerate or submit to." By the extra-territoriality clause foreigners are to be dealt with by their own national authorities; but Chinese subjects on Chinese soil, whether Christians or not Christians, are to be dealt with by Chinese officers under Chinese law, and missionaries must not put themselves in the way. In conclusion, the instructions say that reciprocal consideration and mutual forbearance are needed in the modification of treaties.

A conference, lasting five hours, was held on the 15th of December, between the Marquis Tséng and M. Giers, of the Russian Foreign Office, M. de Bützow, the Russian Minister at Peking, and M. Melnikoff, Director of the Asiatic Department, the Chinese mission secretaries being also present. It was the first interview that had been had respecting the negotiations after a long interval of inaction. According to the reports that were published of what took place at the conference, considerable concessions were made on both sides. The Russians, instead of insisting on retaining the Terek Valley, as it had been stated that they had done, agreed to surrender all that part of Ili, but claimed to retain a section of territory as a country of refuge for the Dungenes who had renounced their allegiance to China. This stipulation was regarded as of much importance on both sides. A proposition was also said to have been offered to settle by a *plébiscite* the question whether the inhabitants of the disputed territory should retain Chinese or adopt Russian allegiance.

Serious disturbances took place in Canton in September. The Roman Catholic mission was attacked, and the European community, which was threatened, was so alarmed that it was necessary to call out the militia. In the encounter which ensued, several of the rioters were killed or wounded, and some of the missionaries were wounded. Shortly after this, on the 20th of September, the Rev. Messrs. Selby and Morris, of the Wesleyan mission at Canton, visited a place called Shék-kok, sixty-

five miles from Canton, intending afterward to proceed farther inland, on religious work. They were assailed by a crowd of people with threats of drowning, stones, and other missiles, and barely escaped with their lives by retreating to the river and taking refuge on a boat.

General Tso - Tsung-t'ang, commander-in-chief of the Chinese troops on both sides of the Great Wall, is described by the Austrian Count Szechenyi, who tried to enter Thibet and was foiled, as a small, fat, jovial man, sixty-seven years of age, with coarse features, and sparkling, always moving eyes. He is the son of poor parents, and has risen solely by merit. He insists upon exercising his authority to its full extent, and has the reputation of being honest and upright, possessing the command of large sums of money and saving nothing. He lives in great simplicity, and employs his large salary in buying Krupp guns for his country. He is cruelly severe, watches the conduct of his soldiers with extreme rigor, and has interdicted the use of opium by them under severe penalties.

The European residents at the treaty ports have been again pressing for the removal of the Woosung bar, an obstruction that lies near the mouth of the river on which Shanghai is situated, and which runs into the Yang-tse. The bar is some eight or nine miles below the Anglo-American settlement, and the water on it, except at certain stages of the tide, is not sufficient to allow steamers of great draught to pass up to Shanghai. The vessels of the Peninsular and Oriental Company and the Messageries Maritimes are, however, seldom prevented from ascending the river to the settlement; so that the bar, though an inconvenience, is not an insuperable obstacle to commerce. The answer of the Chinese, when pressed to remove the bar or dredge a sufficient channel in it, is, invariably, that the bar prevents the passage of foreign ironclads, and is to that extent a defense to their dock-yard and arsenal at Kiangnan.

The following is the text of the two treaties between China and the United States:

I. *Whereas*, In the eighth year of Heen-fung, Anno Domini 1858, a treaty of peace and friendship was concluded between the United States of America and China, to which were added, in the seventh year of Tung Chih, Anno Domini 1893, certain supplementary articles to the advantage of both parties, which supplementary articles were to be perpetually observed and obeyed; and

Whereas, The Government of the United States, because of the constantly increasing immigration of Chinese laborers to the territory of the United States, and the embarrassments consequent upon such immigration, now desires to negotiate a modification of the existing treaties, which shall not be in direct contravention of their spirit:

Now, therefore, the President of the United States of America has appointed James B. Angell, of Michigan; John F. Swift, of California; and William Henry Trescott, of South Carolina, as his Commissioners Plenipotentiary, and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China has appointed Pao Chun, a member of his Imperial Majesty's Privy Council, and Superintendent of the Board of Civil Office, and Li Hung

Tsao, a member of his Imperial Majesty's Privy Council, as his Commissioners Plenipotentiary; and the said Commissioners, having conjointly examined their full powers, and having discussed the points of possible modification in existing treaties, have agreed upon the following articles in modification:

ARTICLE I. Whenever in the opinion of the Government of the United States, the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, affects, or threatens to affect, the interests of that country, to endanger the good order of the said country, or of any locality within the territory thereof, the Government of China agrees that the Government of the United States may regulate, limit, or suspend such coming or residence, but may not absolutely prohibit it. The limitation or suspension shall be reasonable, and shall apply only to Chinese who may go to the United States as laborers, other classes not being included in the limitation. Legislation taken in regard to Chinese laborers will be of such a character only as is necessary to enforce the regulation, limitation, or suspension of immigration, and immigrants shall not be subject to personal maltreatment or abuse.

ART. II. Chinese subjects, whether proceeding to the United States as teachers, students, merchants, or from curiosity, together with body and household servants, and Chinese laborers who are now in the United States shall be allowed to go and come of their own free will and accord, and shall be accorded all the rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions which are accorded to the citizens and subjects of the most favored nation.

ART. III. If Chinese laborers or Chinese of any other class, now either permanently or temporarily residing in the territory of the United States, meet with ill-treatment at the hands of any other persons, the Government of the United States will exert all its power to devise measures for their protection, and to secure to them the same rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions as may be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation, and to which they are entitled by treaty.

ART. IV. The high contracting powers having agreed upon the foregoing articles, whenever the Government of the United States shall adopt legislative measures in accordance therewith, such measures will be communicated to the Government of China. If such measures, as enacted, are found to work hardships upon the subjects of China, the Chinese Minister at Washington may bring the matter to the notice of the Secretary of State of the United States, who will consider the subject with him; and the Chinese Foreign Office may also bring the matter to the notice of the United States Minister at Peking and consider the subject with him, to the end that mutual and unqualified benefit may result.

In faith whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed the foregoing at Peking, in English and Chinese, being three originals of each text, of even tenor and date, the ratifications of which shall be exchanged at Peking, within one year from the date of its execution.

Done at Peking, this 17th day of November, in the year of our Lord 1880, Kuang Tsu, sixth year, tenth moon, fifteenth day.

JAMES B. ANGELL,

JOHN F. SWIFT,

WILLIAM HENRY TRESCOTT,

Signatures of the Chinese Commissioners.

[SEAL.]
[SEAL.]
[SEAL.]
[SEAL.]

II. The commercial treaty reads thus:

The President of the United States and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China, because of certain points of incompleteness in the existing treaties between their two Governments, have named as their Commissioners Plenipotentiary, that is to say, the President of the United States James B. Angell, of Michigan; John F. Swift, of California; and William Henry Trescott, of South Carolina; his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China Pao Chun, a member of his Imperial Majesty's Privy Council and Superintendent of the Board of Civil Office, and Li Hung Tsao, a member of his Imperial Majesty's Privy Council, who have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:

ARTICLE I. The Governments of the United States and China, recognizing the benefits of their past commercial relations, and in order still further to promote such relations between the citizens and subjects of the two powers, mutually agree to give the most careful and favorable attention to the representations of either, or to such special extension of commercial intercourse as either may desire.

ART. II. The Governments of China and of the United States mutually agree and undertake that Chinese subjects shall not be permitted to import opium into any of the ports of the United States, and that the citizens of the United States shall not be permitted to import opium into any of the open ports of China, to transport it from one open port to any other open port, or to buy or sell opium in any of the open ports of China. This absolute prohibition, which extends to vessels owned by the citizens or subjects of either power, to foreign vessels employed by them, or to vessels owned by the citizens or subjects of either power, and employed by other persons for the transportation of opium, shall be enforced by appropriate legislation on the part of China and the United States, and the benefits of the favored-nation clause in existing treaties shall not be claimed by the citizen or subject of either power, as against the provisions of this article.

ART. III. His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China hereby promises and agrees that no other kind or higher rate of tonnage dues or duties for imports or exports on coastwise trade shall be imposed or levied in the open ports of China upon vessels wholly belonging to citizens of the United States, or upon the produce, manufactures, or merchandise imported in the same from the United States, or from any foreign country, or upon the produce, manufactures, or merchandise exported in the same to the United States, or to any foreign country, or transported in the same from one open port of China to another, than are imposed or levied on vessels or cargoes of any other nation or on those of Chinese subjects. The United States hereby promise and agree that no other kind or higher rate of tonnage dues or duties for imports shall be imposed or levied in the ports of the United States, upon vessels wholly belonging to the subjects of his Imperial Majesty, and coming either directly or by way of any foreign port, from any of the ports of China which are open to foreign trade, to the ports of the United States, or returning therefrom, either directly or by way of any of the open ports of China, or upon the produce, manufactures, or merchandise imported in the same from China or from any foreign country, than are imposed or levied on vessels of other nations which make no discrimination against the United States in tonnage dues or duties on imports, exports, or coastwise trade, or than are imposed or levied on vessels and cargoes of citizens of the United States.

ART. IV. When controversies arise in the Chinese Empire between citizens of the United States and subjects of his Imperial Majesty which need to be examined and decided by the public officers of the two nations, it is agreed between the Governments of the United States and China that such cases shall be tried by the proper official of the nationality of the defendant. The properly authorized official of the plaintiff's nationality shall be freely permitted to attend the trial, and shall be treated with the courtesy due his position. He shall be granted all proper facilities for watching the proceedings in the interests of justice. If he so desires, he shall have the right to present, to examine, and to cross-examine witnesses. If he is dissatisfied with the proceedings, he shall be permitted to protest against them in detail. The law administered will be the law of the nationality of the officer trying the case.

In faith whereof, the Plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed the foregoing, at Peking, in English and Chinese, etc.

Signatures of the Chinese Commissioners:

JAMES B. ANGELL,
JOHN F. SWIFT,
WILLIAM HENRY TRESPCOTT.

CHOPPIN, SAMUEL PAUL, M. D., was born in the parish of West Baton Rouge, Louisiana, September 20, 1828. Educated at Jefferson College, after his graduation in 1846 he studied medicine in New Orleans and Paris. In 1852 he was elected Resident Surgeon of the Charity Hospital, and appointed, by the Faculty of the University, Demonstrator of Anatomy. In 1856 he was one of the founders of the New Orleans School of Medicine. Its success was so rapid that in 1859 it numbered two hundred and sixty-seven students. While surgeon of the hospital Dr. Choppin, in conjunction with some of his *confrères*, began the publication of the "New Orleans Medical News and Hospital Gazette." At the outset of the civil

war he was appointed surgeon-in-chief on the staff of General Beauregard. After the close of the war he increased his reputation by brilliant operations in plastic surgery and ovariotomy. In 1876 the Louisiana Board of Health was reorganized, and Dr. Choppin was elected President. This branch of the public service had been loosely conducted. Nine years had elapsed since an epidemic. He made earnest efforts to have the quarantine strictly enforced, believing that the yellow fever never originates in the United States. Denunciations and menaces were freely bestowed upon the President of the Board of Health. The quarantine was evaded, and the epidemic reigned. His public services and defeats told upon his health. He died in New Orleans, May 24.

CIRCUMNUTATION. The manifold wonderful modifications of the climbing organs of vines and creepers, which enable them to lift their foliage to the sunlight, accords so strikingly with Darwin's theory of adaptation that the attention of that scientist was naturally attracted to the study of this class of plants. The subject was brought to his attention by an essay by Professor Asa Gray upon the movements of the tendrils of cucurbitaceous plants, published in 1858, in the "Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences." The stems and tendrils of climbing plants are found to be subject to a general law of revolution, sweeping about in wider and wider circles as they elongate, until they encounter an upright object, which they twine about, climbing upward in obedience to the law which directs the stems of all plants skyward. These movements had been observed long before by Palm, Hugo von Mohl, and Dutrochet. There are other remarkable habits of spontaneous movement, some of which are common to all plants, some developed in certain species of many widely divergent orders, and some confined to cognate species. The phenomenon of the sleep of leaves is an example of plant-motion so widespread and so striking that it attracted the attention of Pliny. The sensitiveness to touch observed in a limited number of species was one of the subjects of Darwin's prolific investigations, and led to the curious discovery of the carnivorous habits of some of these. The habits of movement in plants, as well as the other phenomena of vegetable physiology, have been most minutely and patiently watched by contemporaneous botanists, notably by Sachs, Frank, De Vries, and other German investigators, who have gathered by the help of the microscope and other delicate instruments a multitude of facts regarding these phenomena, from which they have made some important generalizations. Collating all the observations upon plant-movements published, and with the assistance of his son Francis verifying and enlarging them by ingenious methods of their own, Charles Darwin has established a general law of deep and comprehensive scientific import. Every

waxing part of every plant is informed by a principle which causes it to rotate as it grows. These spiral revolutions, usually exceedingly minute, are identical in their nature with the revolving movement of climbing plants, which is called by Sachs revolving nutation. To this principle Darwin gives the name of *circumnutation*. All the other movements of plants, excepting certain peculiar motions of the insectivorous species and some other unusual habits, are modifications of this universal revolving movement. This can be understood when the mechanical cause of the phenomenon is explained. It is the increased turgescence of the cells on one side of the moving part which causes it to bend in the opposite direction. This turgescence is accompanied by an increased extensibility of the cell-walls, which in the case of unicellular plants is the element which produces the phenomenon. Circumnutation was until recently supposed to be due to the increased growth of the turgescence side. In growing parts such growth follows upon turgescence. In such parts as are provided with *pulvini*, otherwise called joints or cushions, turgescence continues to take place in the *pulvinus*, and the motion of the part does not cease with the cessation of growth. The turgescence proceeds from side to side, affecting each portion of the circumference, which becomes temporarily more convex. Darwin's experiments convinced him that the stems, roots, leaves, flowers, the cotyledons of germinating plants, and all the young and growing parts of all plants, are continually circumnating. This revolving movement of the extremities being universally present, the development of special movements, which consist in slowly tipping more in one direction than in any other during the periodical revolutions, can be explained upon the Darwinian theory of natural selection. The influence of any attracting or repellent stimulus becomes more and more active when it proves conducive to the life of the plant. These secondary movements are classed by Darwin under the following names: *geotropism*, bending toward the center of the earth; *apogeotropism*, bending in the opposite direction from the center of the earth; *diageotropism*, bending in directions more or less transverse to the radius of the earth; *heliotropism*, bending toward the light; *apheliotropism* (commonly called negative heliotropism), bending away from the light; *diaheliotropism*, bending to or away from the light to a position diagonal to the direction of its source; *epinasty*, the tendency of the upper surface of a part to grow more rapidly than the lower one, causing the organ to bend downward; *hyponasty*, the tendency of the lower surface to grow the most rapidly, causing the organ to bend upward.

The Messrs. Darwin subjected the growing roots of many different species to close observation, and discovered through delicate experiments the manner in which the radicle of a plant

finds a passage downward through the soil. In a germinating seed the radicle is the first part which emerges. It immediately bends downward in the direction of gravitation. The tip of the radicle is constantly circumnating, and consequently finds its way into the crevices of the soil, or down into holes left by decayed roots or made by earthworms or larvae. The tip is the portion which is sensitive to gravitation or geotropism, and as was verified by numerous experiments is repelled by contact with any hard substance, and attracted by moisture. When the seed is covered with soil which is compact enough to offer sufficient resistance, the radicle, following the path found for it by the sensitive and continually gyrating apex, forces its way like a wedge in virtue of its longitudinal and lateral growth. When the seed germinates on the surface of the ground or is forced up by the descending root, the slender root-hairs which are sent out from the upper part of the radicle usually encounter stones or other solid objects to which they firmly affix themselves, and thus afford a resistance which enables the embryonic root to penetrate the earth. The outer surface of the cellulose walls of the filaments liquefies upon contact with a hard body and then sets hard in the air. The object of this process is probably not to assist the radicle to penetrate the earth, but to bring the hairs into close contact with the grains of the soil, so that they can absorb the layer of water and dissolved matter surrounding them. The apex of the radicle can not assist in the penetration, but only guide the way. Acting under the influence of geotropism, strong-growing roots, like that of the bean, do not exert a force of more than one gramme, as Sachs proved by attaching weights suspended over a pulley to radicles held in a horizontal position. The lower extremity of the growing part of the radicle responds to the influence of the apex. The longitudinal pressure of the terminal growing part, which is very rigid, Darwin found, in the case of the bean, to be equal to a quarter of a pound when free; but it is doubtless much greater when held in place by packed earth on every side. The transverse growth of the root exerts a force equal to several pounds. The sensitiveness of the apex of the radicle to hard bodies was proved by affixing with shellac minute squares of cardboard to the tips of the radicles of seedlings growing free in glass jars. The apex, in the cases of the bean, the pea, the oak, maize, and all the other species experimented upon, would bend to the side opposite to the attached object for one or two days, the radicle sometimes forming a complete loop or even two. In the end the repellent influence would cease to act, and the radicle would straighten out again in obedience to geotropic attraction. Very minute bodies, such as a bead of shellac weighing .33 milligramme, sometimes caused this curious curvature. When the roots were placed in a horizontal position, and pieces

of card fastened to the tips so as to influence them to bend in opposition to geotropism, this latter force could not be overcome; acting then, according to Darwin's explanation, directly, while the initial action of the affixed bodies is only opposed by the influence of geotropism acting obliquely, and consequently much more feebly. When one side of the tip was very slightly cauterized with dry caustic, it behaved in the same way, causing the radicle to curve in the opposite direction. The tips of radicles were also found to be sensitive to moist air, and to bend toward the source of moisture. A small section of the radicle above the apex is sensitive to the contact of hard bodies, but acts in the opposite way, bending toward and around an object like the tendril of a vine. This is a very useful property, enabling the root to curve quickly around an obstacle and regain its vertical course more rapidly than the tip could under the influence of geotropism alone. The sensitive tip of a radicle has a length of from 1 to 1.5 millimetres. The growing part which curves in the direction given it by the tip is the part of most rapid growth, and is from six or seven to twelve millimetres long. The tip and the basal part grow very slowly and bend very little. The roots of most plants are sensitive to light, turning sometimes toward and sometimes away from its source. This does not appear to be of any service, and is probably an indirect result of the tips being highly sensitive to other stimuli. The secondary radicles of plants are diageotropic in their growth, growing out horizontally or with a slight incline downward, and, if displaced, will resume their original direction. Their tips are sensitive to contact, and have been observed to circumnutate. These emit a third system of roots which are not influenced by geotropism. When the main radicle is destroyed or compressed in such a way that the sap can not freely enter it, two or three of the secondary radicles nearest it become geotropic and shoot down perpendicularly into the earth. An analogous behavior is observable when the main shoot of a tree is killed or injured on the part of the nearest side-branches, which are immediately rendered apogeotropic. These phenomena, as well as the apogeotropic growth of shoots which spring from branches that have been injured by certain insects, Darwin explains by the principle of reversion, the disturbance which brings it into play in the case of the secondary roots or stems being the increased flow of sap.

The fact that the sensitiveness of the radicles of seedlings to gravitation is confined to the apex was proved by an interesting experiment. The roots of beans were placed for an hour or an hour and a half in a horizontal position, so that the force of geotropism could act most powerfully upon them. The tips were then amputated, and the radicles were placed in the vertical position. The influence communicated to the growing part soon began to act, and the

root became bent and grew for two or three days in a horizontal direction, until a new tip formed which brought it again under the influence of geotropism, and again caused it to curve downward. Ciesielski first performed this experiment, and discovered the power of communicating the received influence thus clearly shown to belong to the vegetative point of the radicle. Sachs repeated his experiments with roots of the pea, bean, and lentil, but did not obtain corroborative results. Darwin tried it with a greater variety of plants, and found that a large majority of the amputated roots behaved as described. The part of the radicle which is chiefly influenced by the sensitive apex is three to six millimetres above it. The effect of the transmitted tendency received by the growing part must be observed within forty-eight hours after the amputation, as a regeneration of the root-cap and vegetative point often occurs as soon as that. The fact that it is the tip alone which is acted upon by gravity, and that this has the power of influencing the direction of the growth of the superior part of the radicle, shows that the roots of plants are not made to grow downward by the mechanical force of gravitation acting directly upon their tissues. The action of gravity on the root is similar to the effect of pressure upon a lowly-organized animal which causes it to draw away. The tip of the radicle seems to possess more wonderful properties than any other portion of the structure of plants, and to be more delicately sensitive, and sensitive to a greater variety of stimuli, than any other part. The important function it has to perform in enabling the root to penetrate the soil, makes it necessary that it should be endowed with such remarkable powers. Darwin likens the action of the tip of the radicle in directing the movements of the adjoining parts to that of the brain of the lower animals, which, analogously to the apex of the root, is situated in the anterior part of the body as it moves. The tip of the cotyledon when affected by light appears to transmit motion to the adjoining parts likewise, and also exhibits a sensitiveness and variety of adaptations almost comparable to the functions of the nervous structure of animals.

With dicotyledonous plants the hypocotyl protrudes first after the radicle, and makes its way upward to the surface; or, if the cotyledons are hypogean, that is, develop below the surface, it is the epicotyls, or sometimes the petioles of the cotyledons, or even those of the first true leaves in some cases, which emerge from the seed-coats and rise to the surface. Whichever of these organs it is that conducts the sub-aërial portion of the plant to the light, it invariably assumes an arched form, the stem while forcing its way through the seed-coats and then vertically upward through the soil being bowed into an elbow, probably for the purpose of protecting the tender apex from abrasion. As soon as it emerges into the air

the arch straightens out and the stem becomes erect. This curving of the stems is of the nature of epinasty or hyponasty. These arched organs are continually circumnutating or endeavoring to circumnutate while working up through the ground, and this movement probably assists them to break through. The part of a seedling which first issues forth is always strongly acted upon by apogeotropism. Whatever portion of the arch first emerges from the seed coat immediately turns upward, and the arch assumes a vertical position as rapidly as the superincumbent earth will permit. The tendency of the hypocotyl to take an arched form is widespread, and occurs sometimes in plants whose cotyledons are hypogean, and where it can be of no possible service. The hypocotyls and the upper portion of the radicles of beans were observed to curve themselves when allowed to germinate in a revolving vessel by which the force of geotropism was neutralized until they were deflected by an average angle of 63° . This phenomenon was first remarked by Sachs, and is called by Darwin *Sachs's curvature*. As soon as the first ray of light touches the pushing shoot the potent force of heliotropism comes into play. The upper surface of the hypocotyl is probably sensitive to light in the case of dicotyledons, and in monocotyledons, which do not emerge from the ground with bowed stems, in the tips of the cotyledons as they protrude. In the grasses the cotyledon is furnished with a sharp, hard crest, which serves for breaking through the soil.

The circumnutation of the arched hypocotyls was a puzzling phenomenon until it was explained by the undulatory nutation of internodes observed by Wiesner in certain seedlings whose tips are bent downward. In such bent stems the turgescence and increased growth do not occur simultaneously along the whole of the outer side or of the inner side of the bowed stem. If they did, there would evidently be no circumnutation. The spasmodic growth occurs on one side of one leg of the arch and on the opposite side of the other leg, while at the elbow there is a zone where the growth is equal on all sides. Before the cotyledons expand, the arched hypocotyl usually straightens itself by increased growth on the concave side, reversing the process by which it first became bent, until ultimately no trace of the curvature remains. The erection of the stem is accompanied with a revolving movement, and is therefore a modification of circumnutation. The hypocotyls and plumules of seedlings after straightening circumnutate constantly, describing oval figures which vary greatly in size in different plants, the period of the revolution also varying considerably. The extreme amount of movement from side to side is relatively very great in the hypocotyls, amounting to .28 inch in the egg-squash, .11 inch in a tall shoot of asparagus, .2 inch in the American oak, and only .04 inch in the European walnut. The

tip of the cotyledon of a seedling cabbage was observed under the microscope to move very rapidly, traveling .01 inch in a little more than three minutes, the forward movement being accompanied by incessant oscillations. The leaf of the *dionæa* circumnutates in the same vibratory manner. A great number of cells must distend at the same time to produce this jerky movement; but it is not known whether the harmonious turgescence, is of an intermittent character, or whether, as they become more and more turgescent, they suddenly break the strain of the opposing tissues and cause the whole part to yield.

The stem of the seedling circumnutates at a comparatively rapid rate. In some plants, such as the egg-squash and cabbage, four elliptic revolutions were performed in twelve hours by the hypocotyl, in some others only one. The ellipses described are very narrow in some plants, and in others, for example the oak, they approach a circle. They are frequently complicated by minute loops and zigzag lines. The cotyledons of all dicotyledonous plants circumnutate, moving upward and downward generally. The period of circumnutation is commonly twenty-four hours, though in some cases many revolutions are accomplished in that time. The two cotyledons circumnutate to a great extent independently of each other. In a great majority of cases the circumnutating movement was *nyctitropic*, or of the nature of the sleep of leaves. Most hypocotyls and cotyledons are extremely sensitive to light. Cotyledons are *paratonically* heliotropic, that is, their daily periodic movements are greatly and quickly disturbed by the sudden admission or seclusion of light, or by variations in its intensity.

Seedling plants are exceedingly heliotropic as a rule. The sensitiveness to light seems to reside in the tip of the cotyledon, which transmits the bending movement for some distance down the stem. The basal portion of the stem after a certain height has been attained does not bend. The effects of light upon seedlings are exceedingly variable upon different individuals of a species. Cotyledons are sensitive to differences in the illumination on opposite sides which are too slight to be perceived by the human eye. Light seems to act upon the tissues of plants in a similar manner to what it does on the nervous system of animals. Cotyledons which were exposed to light for only a couple of minutes at a time, and after long intervals, bent toward the source of the light; and cotyledons which had been exposed to sunlight, and others which had stood in the shade on being placed together under an intermediate degree of illumination, moved in directly opposite directions. The fact that the sensitiveness of the cotyledons of young seedlings to light is confined to the tip, was proved by covering the tip with tin-foil, or painted gold-beater's skin, in which cases the stems remained erect after exposure to a side-light, although when the tips were covered with un-

painted gold-beater's skin the stems bent to the same degree as those which were not covered. Shielding the tips of older seedlings with the same opaque coverings did not prevent the plants from bending toward the light. The remarkable power of transmitting an influence to the adjoining parts resides, therefore, in the tips of very young sprouts as well as in the extremity of the radicle. It was discovered, by amputating the tips of cotyledons, that the effect of apogeotropism is not derived from them, as geotropism is from the tip of the radicle.

The stems of a number of developed plants of widely different families were found by Darwin to circumnutate slightly while growing. The ellipses described were usually narrow, though not so narrow as those of stolons or leaves, and are irregular in their forms and in their periods. A stem will sometimes describe one ellipse on one day and two the next. Some plants make several irregular revolutions within a few hours. The axes of the different ellipses described point in all directions; the stem, after bending as far as it goes in one direction, in its returning path bends toward a point nearly but not exactly opposite.

The circumnutation of stolons or runners is of much greater amplitude than the regular circumnutation of stems, and is suspected by Darwin to be a special adaptation. They circumnutate in a very complex manner. The movement is usually in a vertical plane, owing to the weight of the runner; but there is always more or less lateral motion. A strawberry-runner moves up and down many times in a day, besides some lateral movement. The distance traveled by the end of a stolon during fourteen hours was found by measurement to be 2.67 inches. The movements of stolons are in a great measure opposed to the force of gravity. Such remarkable amplitude of motion in the circumnutation of running plants, which can only be compared to that of climbers, must be exceedingly beneficial to them, enabling the running branches to surmount obstacles which would otherwise contort and cripple them. The remarkable amplification of the circumnuting movement in the stems and in the tendrils of climbing plants can be more clearly ascribed to adaptation. Their stems while young circumnutate in the ordinary manner. After a while they begin to elongate rapidly, and their power of movement becomes enormously increased. The circumnutation is more even and regular than in the case of other plants. The tendrils also, whether consisting of modified leaves or of modified flower-peduncles, sweep wide circles in their circumnutation; whereas in ordinary leaves the movement is generally in a vertical plane.

Flower-peduncles while growing manifest the property of circumnutation. The leaves of plants belonging to both the dicotyledonous class, gymnosperms as well as angiosperms, and to the dicotyledonous class of phenogamous plants, and also those of the cryptogamic sub-

kingdom, have been proved to circumnutate. The seat of the movement is commonly in the petiole; but sometimes it lies in both petiole and blade, and sometimes in the blade alone. The movement is always a very slight one. The angle passed through varies from 2° to 10° in the generality of plants, but in the bean it amounts to 23° . The main movement is in a vertical plane, but with slight lateral deviations, producing ellipses of narrow form. In the case of the camellia and eucalyptus, the lateral movement is considerable, and the leaves of the cissus sometimes describe circular arcs in portions of their revolution. The lines are very irregular, and often broken by subordinate loops and triangles. The leaves of some plants describe several ellipses in the course of a day. A large ellipse is sometimes formed on one day and two small ones on the following. A tendency toward nyctitropism is observed in the leaves of many plants which do not possess the special formation, the *pulvinus*, by which the sleep of leaves is accomplished. The periodicity in the circumnutation of a great many leaves, and their frequent habit of rising in the evening and lowering in the morning, affords a basis for the explanation of nyctitropism as a specialized function in accordance with the theory of natural selection. Nyctitropism is characteristic of a large number of angiosperms, and of species belonging to several different genera of monocotyledonous plants. It has also been observed in the genus *Abies* of the sub-class of gymnosperms, and in the family *Marsalaceæ* of the acotyledons. The genera in which the leaves are raised toward the zenith at night and those in which they point down toward the ground are about equal in number. The cotyledons of a long list of plants exhibit the same sleep-movements, and are usually provided with *pulvini*, like the leaves of nyctitropic plants. The amount of angular deflection from the horizon which should be considered as characterizing nyctitropism is arbitrarily fixed by Darwin at 60° , at which angle the exposure to the sky is just half as great as in a horizontal position. The leaves of sixty-nine genera have been proved to be nyctitropic. Of these thirty-seven elevate and thirty-two sink their leaves at night. In many plants the leaves are raised or lowered through an angular space of 90° . The sleep of cotyledons, although scarcely noticed before the observations of the Messrs. Darwin, appears to be of more frequent occurrence than the sleep of leaves. In the large majority of cases the movement is a rising one. There is no agreement or connection between the behavior of the leaves and the cotyledons of the same plant; in a few species the undeveloped leaflets act in a different manner from the leaves; in some cases the leaves of young plants sleep while those on full-grown individuals do not. The leaves and cotyledons of sleeping plants perform one revolution in twenty-four hours. They are in continual motion, but this motion is considerably accelerated

when they are going to sleep at night and unfolding in the morning. The nyctitropic movements of leaves and cotyledons are exceedingly complex and are wonderfully diversified. The position which they all assume at night is one by which they are well protected from the effects of radiation into the open sky. Enforced exposure, produced for the sake of experiment, has been proved to be injurious to nyctitropic plants. The folding of the parts together is a further protection against the loss of heat. The course pursued differs only from ordinary circumnutation in its greater extent, and in the acceleration of the movement in the evening and in the morning. That the nyctitropic movement is actuated by heliotropism, is proved by the disturbance of its periodicity, caused by darkening the plant in the daytime, or exposing it to artificial light at night, which is the case also with the ordinary circumnutation of leaves. Unless nyctitropism is admitted to be a modification of circumnutation, the leaves and cotyledons of nyctitropic plants which describe a single ellipse in the twenty-four hours do not circumnutate at all. In other cases the leaves and cotyledons describe several ellipses during the day, the path of one of them in the evening and one in the morning being greatly extended. In plants possessing *pulvini* the nyctitropic revolution is sometimes complicated, accompanied with a twisting movement by which the surfaces of the parts are brought into closer contact, affording greater protection. Nyctitropism continues after the parts have attained their full growth only in plants which develop *pulvini*. The *pulvinus* is an aggregation of small cells, destitute of chlorophyl, at the base of a stem. The cells of the *pulvinus* distend and contract after growth has ceased. By reason of the multitude of the cells the movement produced by the extensibility of their walls is more ample. The development of the *pulvinus*, which consists merely of cells whose growth has been arrested at an early age, could be occasioned by very slight causes; and the tendency to develop such a formation, arising frequently as it must from accidental causes, would grow rapidly, in obedience to the law of natural selection, under conditions which render such an organ beneficial. The sleep of cotyledons, although a very common phenomenon, has never before attracted the notice of botanists so as to elicit more than a passing remark. The extent of the diurnal movement of cotyledons not provided with *pulvini* is sometimes, though not as a rule, as great as that of pulvinated cotyledons; but in the case of the former the sleeping habit rarely lasts over a week, while with the latter it continues for a month or more. The utility of the *pulvinus* is therefore evident. Pfeffer has examined with the microscope the *pulvini* of leaves without detecting any difference in the structure of the cells of the upper and lower sides, sufficient to account for the upward movement in the leaves of some plants, and the downward movement

in those of others. Darwin inspected the *pulvini* of cotyledons which become erect and those which become pendent at night, but discovered no difference in the structure of the opposite halves of either class, although the *pulvini* of cotyledons are better adapted for observation than those of leaves. The usual explanation of heliotropic phenomena—that light checks vegetable growth, a partial illumination occasioning the side favored by darkness to grow more rapidly than the lighted side, causing a plant to turn toward the light—will not account for many of the varieties of heliotropic and nyctitropic movement; as many plants which are known to grow best in darkness exhibit movements away from the light.

Heliotropism proper differs from the influence of light upon nyctitropic movements, in that the latter are affected only by the intensity of the light, while heliotropic movement depends upon its direction. All heliotropic effects—positive heliotropism; apheliotropism; diaheliotropism, which causes the parts of plants affected to place themselves transversely to the direction of the source of illumination; and paraheliotropism, usually called diurnal sleep, which consists in the rising, sinking, or twisting of organs when exposed to an intense light in order to protect themselves from its injurious effects—are modifications of circumnutation, consisting in an amplification of the ordinary movement on one side. Heliotropism, or the property of bending toward a lateral light, is almost universal in the chlorophyl-containing organs of plants; yet when this action proves injurious it can be eliminated or even turned into apheliotropism. Thus the tendrils of many climbing plants are not susceptible to heliotropic attraction, and the stems of some, which climb by rootlets, such as the ivy, are decidedly apheliotropic, which aids them in obtaining support. Insectivorous plants, which do not live so much by decomposing carbonic acid, and which derive more benefit from an advantageous position of their leaves for capturing insects, do not seem to be affected by heliotropism. Heliotropic movements when strongly excited are not attended by lateral motion; but under a gentler stimulus plants circumnutate visibly when bending toward the light. When light is suddenly admitted to a part which is circumnutating at the moment in the opposite direction, it does not respond to the attraction until it has turned the curve, and then sweeps rapidly toward the light in its return path. There are some movements exhibited by isolated genera which have no relation to circumnutation. Such is the movement of a mimosa-leaf, when touched, in which a different state of turgescence is produced from that which produces nyctitropism, although the action of the leaf is apparently the same. The movement excited in the tentacles of the drosera by the contact of an albuminoid substance is not a mode of circumnutation, nor is the movement of the stamens of the mahonia-

flower, when touched, toward the pistil; since the organs exhibit no signs of circumnutation, remaining perfectly still unless excited. The curling of the tip of the tendril of a vine upon touching it seems to be unconnected with the regular circumnuting movement of the organ, as the extremity of the tendril does not appear to participate in circumnutation, which has its seat in the base and lower portion of the tendril. There are a number of specialized functions of occasional or rare occurrence which seem to be peculiar modes and amplifications of the universal circumnuting motion acquired by natural selection for special purposes. Such are the phenomena of the straightening or drooping of the flower-peduncles after the flower has withered, by which the seeds can be deposited or scattered to the best advantage. A certain species of clover (*Trifolium subterraneum*) possesses the singular property of burying its seed-pods in the soil by a strongly geotropic action of the flower-peduncles, the three or four perfect flowers of the head curving downward against the peduncle by epinasty, and the central aborted flowers forming stiff, claw-like projections, which are pressed into the ground by the geotropic bending and lengthening of the peduncle, aided by the rocking movement of circumnutation, and which ultimately recurve themselves, dragging the head underneath the soil. The gynophores of the peanut-vine penetrate the ground in a similar manner, actively circumnuting. The seeds of these plants do not become fertile unless thus buried. The *Amphicarpæa monoica* emits branches which pierce the ground and produce flowers and pods. The movements of plants due to epinasty or hyponasty, which have been proved to be modifications of circumnutation, are of the most manifold diversity, and the purposes subserved by them exceedingly various and divergent. In some cases circumnutation takes place in sudden vibratory steps. If the hypocotyls of the cabbage, the joints of grasses, and the leaves of the *Dionæa* are viewed under a microscope, they are seen to jerk forward for a distance of $\cdot 001$ or $\cdot 002$ inch every few seconds, and then recede for a portion of the distance gained. The retreating movement is probably occasioned by the elasticity of the resisting tissues.

Circumnutation depends upon a more rapid growth or an increased turgescence on one side of an organ, followed by a like increase in the growth or extension of the cells of another part, usually almost the opposite side. The seat of this spasmodic extensibility or growth travels about to every part of the surface in succession. This continued action causes the outer portions of the organ to describe a series of irregular ellipses, with their longer axes directed to all points of the compass. The path of any point of the oscillating organ is more correctly described as a spiral line, since the part is continually growing. These revolutions are far from being regular. The path during an os-

cillation is sometimes in lines comparatively direct, sometimes quite curved; its character is apt to change at any time, and sometimes the general movement is interrupted temporarily, and little intermediate loops or triangles are formed. The periodicity in the growth of the cells and the alternating expansion and increment in the different parts of the organ is perhaps due to the need of the cells for periods of rest. All the movements of plants which are proved to be accompanied by the swerving motions which distinguish circumnutation, and are produced by the alternate turgescence of the cells in different parts of the organ, are supposed by Darwin to be modified forms of circumnutation evolved under the action of various stimuli which are beneficial in their effects, in accordance with the law of natural selection.

COCKBURN, THE RIGHT HONORABLE SIR ALEXANDER JAMES EDMUND, Baronet, the Lord Chief-Justice of England, Privy Councillor, Knight of the Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath, was born in 1802. He was the son of Mr. Alexander Cockburn, formerly Minister to Colombia. His mother was Yolande, daughter of Vicomte de Viguier, of Saint Domingo. He was descended from an ancient family, the Cockburns of Langton. He was nephew to Admiral Sir George Cockburn, who took part in the destruction of Washington during the War of 1812. He succeeded to the baronetcy on the death, in 1858, of another uncle, Sir William, the ninth baronet.

He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated LL. B. in 1829. After a brilliant university career he received a Fellowship. Mr. Cockburn was called to the bar at the Middle Temple, and went on the Western Circuit in 1829. In 1841 he became a Queen's Counsel. A volume of reports on the most important cases springing out of the Reform Bill of 1832 increased his reputation, and gave him practice before the Election Committee. In 1834 he was appointed on the Municipal Corporation Committee. During the railway mania of 1846, when Parliament authorized the construction of lines costing £130,000,000, he obtained a lucrative share of the Parliamentary practice in regard to them.

At the general election of 1847 he was returned as Liberal member for Southampton. He did not distinguish himself in debate until 1850, when he made his eloquent defense of Palmerston's foreign policy in a memorable speech on the Pacifico question. Don Pacifico was a Portuguese Jew, resident in Athens, but born in Gibraltar, and therefore a British subject. The Athenians, in deference to a request of the Rothschilds, were forbidden to continue an annual custom of burning Judas Iscariot in effigy. They revenged themselves by sacking the house of Don Pacifico, who asked for damages amounting to about £30,000. Lord Palmerston added to this some other petty claims, and made a demand on the Hellenic Government for instantaneous restitution. The Foreign

Office had been annoyed by supposed intrigues of France and Russia in Greece, and was the more peremptory. Greece appealed to those powers. Tremendous complications ensued. The French ambassador was withdrawn from London. Europe was on the verge of a general war. The matter was finally settled by a payment of a small portion of Don Pacifico's claim. The House of Lords then passed a vote of censure on the foreign policy of the Government, and Mr. Roebuck moved in the Commons that it was injurious to the honor of the country to sustain exaggerated and unjust demands. Mr. Cockburn's speech on the dignity of a British subject, and the inviolability of his rights, carried away the House of Commons, saved the Government, and made him famous. Promotion followed swiftly. In July, 1850, he was appointed Solicitor-General, and in March, 1851, he was promoted to be Attorney-General, which office he held until the dissolution of the Russell Ministry in the spring of 1852. With the Aberdeen coalition he resumed this office, which he held until 1856, when he was made Chief-Justice of the Court of Common Pleas. He was knighted in 1850. In 1854 he was appointed Recorder of Bristol. During his attorney-generalship his consummate abilities were displayed in the celebrated Hopwood case, and in the prosecution of Palmer. On the elevation of Lord Campbell to the woolsack in 1859, Sir Alexander was advanced to the office of Lord Chief-Justice. Most of the leading cases of the last twenty years have been tried before him. In the case of General Nelson and Lieutenant Brand, prosecuted by the Jamaica Defense Committee for the hanging of Gordon, his charge contains an exhaustive juridical and historical exposition on martial law. On the trial of the Wainwrights for the murder of Harriet Lane, whom they buried in chloride of lime, the defense assumed that if this was her body, she committed suicide, and his reply was, "I will instruct the jury that it is unusual for suicides to bury themselves." In the Tichborne case he presided throughout, and his charge occupied nineteen days in its delivery.

In 1870 he received from Oxford the degree of D. C. L., and that of LL. D. from Cambridge in 1874. In 1876 he received the freedom of the city of London in the customary gold box. He was always a favorite with the English people. His controversies with Mr. Gladstone, with the Dean of Arches, with any and every one who infringed the boundaries of what he considered the law of the land, were sure to command the sympathy and attention of the public. His cogent arguments and caustic wit combined to put him high on the list of their illustrious judges. He was selected in September, 1871, to be the British arbitrator in regard to the Alabama claims. He left Geneva disgusted, and published his "Reasons for dissenting from the Decision of the Tribunal of Arbitration." Mr. Caleb Cushing, in his book, "The Treaty of Washington," attacked

the Chief-Justice's "Reasons" with more force of invective than of argument. Satisfied with comparing their author to "infamous judges like Jeffreys or Scroggs," he left to Mr. Robert Lowe the honor of making a proper rejoinder to the "Reasons." They end with a hope that the decision of the Geneva tribunal would be received with respect and submission. "If," said Mr. Lowe, "it was his opinion that we ought to acquiesce without a murmur in the award, he should not have published his arguments. If he thought it right to publish his arguments, he might have retrenched his advice."

He brought about the abolition of public betting-houses, which were numerous not only in London but in the minor towns, a reform for which he deserves well of his country. One of his last acts was the rehabilitation of Edmund Galley, a guiltless convict who underwent forty years of penal servitude before the wrong was rectified, which was accomplished finally through the untiring efforts of the great Judge.

He was fond of yachting, fishing, and field-sports, when his laborious duties permitted such indulgence. He died in the harness. In the morning he was occupied in hearing a case in Westminster Hall. At midnight, November 21st, he breathed his last at the house in Hertford Street so well known to all the social and literary celebrities of England. This grave Judge, occupied with all the weighty matters of the law, found time to cultivate the whole circle of literature and the arts. He was himself a writer of no mean merit, skilled in the composition of Greek and Latin verse, a lover of music, and as conversant with French and Italian literature as with that of his own country. He was equally great a lawyer, orator, and scholar, and in each department he has left his mark upon his time.

COLOMBIA (ESTADOS UNIDOS DE COLOMBIA). For statistics concerning area, territorial divisions, population, etc., reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1877.

The boundary question with Costa Rica came again before the Colombian Congress in the past year, and we here transcribe a brief review of the resolutions passed on the subject:

Article I affirms Colombia's "dominion and possession" of all territory within a certain well-defined line. Article II enumerates Colombia's titles to the country from the river Culebras to Cape Gracias á Dios. Article III declares Colombia's "uninterrupted possession" up to the line described in Article I. Article IV details the attempt of a Costa Rican official to exercise jurisdiction over the disputed ground, his prompt discomfiture, and Colombia's continued possession until the present. Article V is a plain and peremptory demand for the continuance of the *status quo*, until the question is settled by arbitration or "other means," and declares any acts of dominion by the Costa Rican government violation and "usurpation." Article VIII asserts

as a preliminary condition for further negotiations, the removal of all Costa Rican officials who may now be found within the limits described in Article I, Articles VI and VII, which were not published, are presumed to define the methods which Congress has laid down for the Executive to follow in carrying out the demand of Article V; and Article IX, no doubt, points out the way in which the "disoccupation" insisted on in Article VIII shall be effected.

The effort to settle the affair by peaceful means is clearly expressed throughout the whole act, but that other contingencies were considered possible by Congress is clearly evident. The articles withheld, no doubt, define also the force which it may be necessary to employ in securing the preliminaries mentioned in Article VIII, or to punish "violations of rights" and "usurpations" of sovereignty, as in Article V, if peaceful means fail.

The President of the Republic is General Rafael Núñez (inaugurated April 1, 1880, for the usual Presidential term of two years), and the Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Interior, Señor José Araújo; Foreign Affairs, Señor Eustaquio Santamaría (*pro tem.*); Finance, Señor Antonio Roldán; Public Instruction, Señor Rafael Pérez (*pro tem.*); Treasury and National Credit, Señor Simón de Herrera; War and Marine, General Eliseo Payán; Public Works, Señor Gregorio Obregon.

The Chief Magistrates of the nine States were:

Antioquia	Señor P. Restrepo.
Bolívar	" B. Noguera.
Royacá	" J. E. Otalora.
Cauca	" G. E. Hurtado.
Cundinamarca	" W. Ibañez.
Magdalena	" N. C. Serrano.
Panamá	" Dámaso Cervera.
Santander	" S. Wilches.
Tolima	" T. Santos.

The Colombian Minister to the United States is General Ramon Santo Domingo Vila (accredited in 1880), and the Colombian Consul-General at New York is Señor Lino de Pombo (1880).

The United States Minister to Colombia is Hon. E. Deichman.

The regulation strength of the army in time of peace is 3,000; and in time of war each of the States is required to furnish a contingent of one per cent. of its population. In the returns published in 1880 by the Minister of War, the total number of officers in the Guardia Colombiana was set down at 1,927!

"Colombia is to have a navy once more," writes a Colombian journalist, "if the money is forthcoming." The Federal Congress, by a law sanctioned on July 13th, authorizes the Executive power at once to proceed to organize a navy. It is accordingly empowered to buy ironclads or wooden steam-vessels, as it may deem best, provided with modern armament, and with everything else requisite for the purposes of offense and defense, with the addition of such steam transports as may be considered adequate for the efficiency of the

service. These vessels will be distributed between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the republic. A navy-yard will also be established on each coast, with a coaling station attached, to be guarded by a corps of marines, under regulations similar to those applied to the battalions of the Guardia Colombiana, and from which detachments will be detailed for service on the vessels of the respective stations; the rest to be kept at the yards for training in the several arts and occupations connected therewith. Where natives are not attainable, the Government may engage the services of experienced foreigners for the most difficult posts ashore or on board the vessels. With a view to the greater efficacy of the present law, all previous legislation on this subject is restored, and is to be enforced to the same extent which prevailed before the Colombian navy was done away with some twelve years ago. An appropriation of \$1,000,000 is made in the estimates for the current fiscal year, and an equal sum is to be considered as appropriated in the budget for future years, so long as Congress does not determine otherwise.

In the budget for 1879-'80 the national revenue and expenditure were estimated as shown in the subjoined tables:

REVENUE.	
Customs receipts	\$3,000,000
Salt monopoly	1,300,000
Panama Railway	250,000
Sabanilla Railway	150,000
Post-Office	76,000
Telegraphs	30,000
Mint	12,000
National property	10,000
Church property	12,000
Sundries	70,000
Total	\$4,910,000

EXPENDITURE.	
Ministry of the Interior	\$294,972
Foreign Affairs	223,500
Finance	1,061,499
War and Marine	932,432
Public Works	2,958,200
Public Instruction	257,992
Justice	30,012
National debt	2,067,406
Treasury	92,200
Post-Office	634,698
Pensions	50,360
Sundries	81,300
Total	\$3,684,571

The total amounts of the actual revenue and expenditure from April 1, 1879, to January 20, 1880, were given in the President's message to Congress on February 1, 1880, at \$10,469,291.07½, and \$9,926,013.52½ respectively, a state of things much more satisfactory than that foreshadowed in the budget estimates above quoted. The yield of the custom-house department in 1879 was \$3,992,424.35, or somewhat under the general average. This diminution was accounted for in the message above alluded to, by the fact that a considerable quantity of merchandise had been imported free of duty through the Carlosama custom-house, and the consequent decrease in the receipts at Buenaventura and Tumaco.

Some idea of the development of the several departments of the Colombian Government in the past fourteen years may be formed by comparing the estimated expenditures for 1866-'67 and 1879-'80:

DEPARTMENTS.	1866-'67.	1879-'80.
Interior.....	\$199,884	\$294,972
Foreign Affairs.....	99,413	223,500
Public Works.....	124,000
Finance.....	456,025	2,958,200
Treasury and National Credit.....	415,154	92,209
War and Marine.....	370,886	952,432
Public Instruction.....	257,992
Post Office.....	106,122	534,698
Justice.....	23,444	30,012
Pensions, etc.....	50,360
National Debt.....	678,130	2,067,406

A significant feature of this table is the absence of appropriations for the branch of Public Instruction in 1866-'67.

The national debt was reported as follows on August 31, 1879:

Foreign debt.....	\$10,064,000
Home debt.....	9,907,219
Total.....	\$19,971,219

On the principal of the foreign debt, observes President Trujillo, in his message already mentioned, \$136,000 were paid in the civil year of 1879, and for interest, and exchange on remittances, including that which the previous Administration had failed to cover, were paid \$1,000,138. The foreign debt on January 1, 1880, amounted to \$9,959,500.

The following remarks, published in October, 1880, on the subject of the consolidated debt of 1873,* are from the pen of a foreign resident in Panama:

Under the arrangement entered into some years ago by the Government of this republic with its foreign creditors, it was agreed by the bondholders that the debt should be reduced to about one third of its then existing amount, and that the annual rate of interest should be reduced also. In view of these concessions, the Government of Colombia bound itself to pay punctually in future the annual interest, and gave security for the carrying out of the same. Among other incomes thus hypothecated was the subsidy of \$250,000 a year from the Panama Railway to Colombia. The annual interest under the new arrangement was met with considerable punctuality till about a year and a half ago, when, we understand, all payments ceased. We now learn that the bondholders, finding it impossible to get any further remittances from the Government, have fallen back on the hypothecated revenues, and that instructions were received from his Government by the British consul in this city to embargo on behalf of the creditors all further payments of the railway subsidy, which he immediately did. In view of the existing state of affairs, and the apparent apathy of the nation in meeting its most sacred obligations, we do not see that any other course was open to the creditors than that they have taken. At the same time we regret that such a step should have been necessary, as it must cause no little inconvenience to the State of Panama, which is entitled to \$25,000 per annum of the subsidy mentioned, and is in no way responsible for the acts of the nation, and also to the merchants of this city, who have already discounted for the government of the State some five quarters of said subsidy not yet due. We trust, how-

ever, the matter will not be permitted to remain long in abeyance, but that the Government will bestir itself and see that the whole affair is at once arranged in a manner creditable to the nation.

The exports for the year 1878-'79 were of the value of \$13,711,511; and the imports, \$10,787,634.

From the port of Cartagena were shipped in 1879 native products of the value of \$924,489.-50, including sugar, spirits, cotton, starch, rice, canime-oil, India-rubber, coffee, tortoise-shell, cacao, hides, cocoanuts, dividivi, ipecacuanha, corn, dye-woods, lumber, flax, cattle, cotton-seed, tobacco, ivory-nuts. The most valuable of these exports were sugar, hides, cacao, woods, cattle, tobacco, and ivory-nuts. Their values and destinations were as follows:

Germany.....	\$174,164 80
Costa Rica.....	24,553 00
United States.....	343,314 00
France.....	52,183 10
Great Britain.....	249,996 00
Italy.....	1,765 50
Santiago de Cuba.....	55,390 00
	\$901,366 40

The \$23,133.10 remaining to complete the sum total of exports consisted of various shipments of provisions to the port of Aspinwall and the State of Panama.

The value of the Colombian exports to Great Britain in 1878 was \$4,664,680, and that of the imports therefrom \$5,159,760, of which \$3,722,190 were for cotton fabrics. It is here to be observed that one half of the foreign commodities imported by Colombia are British products, and more than one third British manufactures, which would readily yield to competition from the United States if the importance of a commercial treaty based on wise principles of reciprocity were fully realized at Washington and Bogotá. Proposals have already been made to the United States Minister by the Colombian Minister of Foreign Affairs to reduce the duty on American dry goods to 25 per cent. *ad valorem* (it is now 50 per cent.), and admit American beer free of duty in exchange for a reduction of duty on Colombian tobacco here. Mr. Deichman, the United States Minister to Colombia, has given much time and attention to the study of the commercial movements of that republic, and confidently asserts the possibility of turning the balance of trade in our favor; but he is of opinion that, although our products are, as has frequently been stated in these volumes, steadily gaining favor in South American markets, some decided advantages should be offered by us in order to overcome the long-standing habit among Spanish-Americans of trading with Great Britain.

In 1878-'79 there were entered at the various ports of Colombia 833 sailing-vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 47,425; and 459 steamers, with 538,148 tons.

From the report of the General Superintendent of the Panama Railway Company, it appears that the gross earnings of the line in

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1875, p. 127.

1879 amounted to \$2,156,367.42, and the gross expenses, including subsidy to the Colombian Government, interest on bonds, etc., were \$1,035,409.96, leaving as a net balance of profit the sum of \$1,120,957.46, being 16 per cent. on the capital stock, from which quarterly dividends have been paid equal to 13 per cent. per annum, and \$210,957.46 has been added to the surplus fund, increasing the same to \$1,401,744.40. A temporary reduction in the monthly payments of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company lessened the earnings of the road during the year in the sum of \$120,000, which, if secured by the company, would have made the net earnings of the road at the rate of 17½ per cent. per annum. The total amount of freight carried during the year was 161,743 tons, against 152,477 in 1878, being an increase of 9,266 tons. The principal articles of Central and South American produce carried during the year were as follows:

ARTICLES.	
Bark, bales.....	89,653
Cotton, bales.....	40,026
Cocoa, bags.....	156,110
Coffee, bags.....	851,070
Indigo, zeroons.....	9,531
Ivory-nuts, bags.....	89,795
Rubber, bales.....	16,711
Sugar, bags.....	12,848

The increase in the traffic during the last four years is marked and steady, as will be seen by the following figures: total tons carried in 1876 were 113,781; in 1877, 146,942; in 1878, 152,477; and in 1879, 151,743; showing a net gain since 1876 of over 43 per cent. The portion of American through freight carried during the year was very small, being only 30,734 tons, or about 19 per cent. of the whole traffic. Passengers carried in 1879 number 23,729, against 24,921 in 1878, a decrease of 1,192, attributable to the Chili-Peruvian war, and exceptionally light travel between California and New York.

The works on the Cúcuta Railway appear to be advancing steadily. Thirteen kilometres of the line were completed and opened to traffic in November, 1879.

Of the projected railroad from Honda to Dorada, there were already (February, 1880) about three quarters of a mile ready to receive the rails, and the clearing of the first ten miles is progressing. The work on this road was commenced on August 7, 1879. The surveys for a railroad between Bogotá and Jirardot, now being made by Señor Indalecio Livianno, are to be finished by the middle of the present month.

Of telegraph there were 1,850 miles in the republic in 1879, and the number of dispatches transmitted in the same year was 124,646. The post-office returns for 1878-'79 were as follows: letters, 462,584; packages of printed matter, 470,374.

The subjoined table, showing the number of normal and primary schools in the republic, and the attendance at the same, is from the

report of the Minister of Public Education for 1879:

STATES.	Normal schools.	Primary schools.	Attendance.
Antioquia.....	3	271	10,000
Bolívar.....	2	75	5,241
Boyacá.....	2	282	11,916
Cauca.....	2	143	9,000
Cundinamarca.....	2	228	18,829
Magdalena.....	2	69	2,382
Panamá.....	2	54	2,765
Santander.....	2	243	12,506
Tolima.....	2	84	8,753
Territory of San Martín.....	..	6	279
Total.....	20	1,895	71,501

A resolution was passed in the Chamber of Deputies in April, 1880, relative to the reconstitution of the primitive Colombian Union, comprising the republic now called the United States of Colombia and the republics of Venezuela and Ecuador.

Commutations in Cauca, and a short-lived revolutionary movement in Antioquia, were the only instances of disturbance of a political character during the year.

COLORADO. Negotiations were concluded with the chiefs and head-men of the Utes, and a compact signed, in the beginning of March. The Indians agreed to secure those members of their nation not already in custody who are charged with taking part in the murder of Agent Meeker and his men, or with having been accessory to the deed, and to surrender them up for trial. They also acquiesced in the cession to the United States of the entire territory of the reservation which had been granted to them in Colorado, consisting of one quarter-section of grazing-land and a like quantity of land for tillage to every head of a family in the nation, and one half as much to every single person. The southern Utes agreed to accept in lieu of the reservation ceded back to the Government certain unoccupied agricultural lands on the La Plata River, situated partly in Colorado and partly in New Mexico, or to settle upon other lands in the same region; the Uncompahgre Utes agreed to take up a reservation on the Grand River, near the mouth of the Gunnison, in Colorado; and the White River Utes agreed to settle upon a portion of the Uintah reservation in Utah. The compact allows the Indians to select their own allotments in the localities specified. The existing public highways in the selected reservations are to remain open. In return, the Government engaged to survey the allotments, and to grant a patent to each individual Indian in severalty for the farm selected by him, with an inalienable title and immunity from land taxation for twenty-five years, as soon as the requisite laws shall have been passed by Congress; the Government furthermore agreed to pay the annuities already provided by Congress, of which the sum of about \$600,000 had accrued, and such additional appropriations as Congress should provide, in cash at the option of the Indians, instead of in cash

or in stock, wagons, agricultural implements, etc., at the discretion of the President. For furnishing such articles, as also saw and grist mills, sufficient to enable them to carry on farming operations from the moment when the settlement is effected, other provisions are made. The stipulations of the compact are to be carried out by a special commission, which shall superintend the settlement, and pay over the money appropriated in the proportions of one third to those settling on the La Plata River, one half to those going to the Grand River, and one sixth to those settling on the Uintah reservation. The Indians are to receive in addition, as a further consideration for giving up the Colorado reservation, an annuity of \$50,000 to be distributed among them individually, besides their present annuity of \$25,000. Provision is also made for supplying the necessities of life until the Indians become self-supporting, and also for the education of their children. This is the first assignment of lands to an Indian tribe on the basis of individual ownership.

The Ute lands in Colorado comprise about 16,000 square miles. The Utes showed themselves loath to give up the fertile river-bottom lands, though they placed no value on the hill-regions in which the mineral deposits are found whose discovery has made it politic for the Government to induce the Indians to exchange these reservations for others in Utah and New Mexico. The people of Colorado have been exceedingly impatient at the tardy acquiescence of the Indians, and dissatisfied because the Government has not proceeded summarily with the Indians and dispossessed them without their consent. A party of raiders entered the reservation in March, and had a conflict with the Indians. Other raids were threatened continually. The mineral deposits of the mountains within the limits of the reservation are reported to be, according to all indications, among the largest and most valuable yet discovered.

The Ute commission intrusted with the work of carrying out the provisions of the compact encountered many difficulties in the accomplishment of their task. The death of Chief Ouray made it a much more difficult matter to arrive at an understanding with the Indians. The death of the secretary of the commission also occasioned delay and confusion. The Indians were suspicious and difficult to treat with; and after they had signed the treaty, and even after a portion of the stipulated sums had been paid over to them, they were evasive and exacting in their behavior, some affecting to believe that they had not relinquished their agricultural lands in the old reservation, but only the mineral districts. The impatient behavior and threatening acts of the people of Colorado were an additional impediment to the arrangement of the matter. A body of United States soldiers were posted in the reservation to prevent the invasion of the reservation by the whites, as well as to restrain any hostile or rebellious movement on the part of the Indians. A tragic

episode occurred in the fall, which aggravated the dangerous state of feeling between the citizens and the Indians, and several times threatened to lead to an explosion of vindictive fury on the part of the savages like that which had resulted in the murder of Agent Meeker and his assistants, and the sacrifice of Thornburgh and the soldiers of his command. Two Indians rode into a freighters' camp at Blue Divide, about thirty miles from Los Pinos Agency, on the evening of the 29th of September, and asked for supper. According to the freighters' story, they bore the marks of intoxication, and demanded food in an insolent manner; and, upon being told by the cook to wait until the meal was prepared, they flew into a passion; one of them put a fresh cartridge in his gun, and when the whites fled behind the wagons fired a shot, which was returned by A. D. Jackson, a young nephew of J. H. Jackson, the owner of the train, both Indians thereupon mounting their horses and riding away, apparently unhurt. About fifty armed Uncompahgre Utes appeared at the Los Pinos Agency the following morning at sunrise, in a state of the wildest excitement, stating that Young Johnson, a son of the chief Shavanaux, had been killed by a freighter, and demanding the murderer. A. B. Meacham, one of the Ute commissioners, and Agent Berry started for the scene of the homicide, escorted by a detachment of fifteen soldiers, under Captain Stillé. The guard of soldiers had been asked for by Agent Berry to satisfy the Indians. The freighters' train had been stopped by two whites, named Holmes and Hoyt, and an Indian chief, the main body of the Indians standing in the background with rifles pointed at every man in the train. The freighters had been taken to Kline's ranch, where they were found by Berry and Meacham on their arrival in the evening. That night they were guarded by the soldiery, the Indians posting an outer guard and watching them like beasts of prey. At the agency Chief Pish, acting as spokesman, had threatened to avenge the death of their young chief by a massacre of the whites. During the night they were restrained with the utmost difficulty from taking forcible possession of the person of young Jackson, and the following morning they made a start as though about to carry into execution their menace of a general butchery of the whites. The agent, who exercises great influence among the tribe, and Mr. Meacham, who possesses their confidence, were obliged to use their utmost tact and power of persuasion to prevent such an outburst of savage fury. Meacham had obtained their signatures to the treaty on the promise that the arrear annuities would be paid over to them shortly. It was the failure of the Government to pay these moneys promptly which had wrought the Indians up to such a tense state of feeling. They had grown to consider the presence and continued assurances of Meacham as a guarantee for the payment, and he was therefore placed in the position of a hostage.

In the morning the Indians, when called upon to identify the culprit, pointed out Jackson as the murderer of Young Johnson, and offered no objections to the release of the rest of the freighters, who were attended on their way toward Saguache by a guard of soldiers. Their whole resentment was centered on young Jackson. According to the Indians' story, the act of the young man was a wanton and cold-blooded murder, committed without any provocation. Their version was generally credited by the military and the Government officers, while the people, the press, and the State officials of Colorado accepted without qualification the story of the freighters. The Indians, after a long parley and much hesitation, agreed or feigned to agree to the proposition that Jackson, the accused, should be taken to Gunnison City, for incarceration and trial by their friends, Kline, Hoyt, and Holmes, an Indian going with them. In the evening the three whites returned and reported that, when only a few miles from the ranch, they were surprised by a large body of Indians in ambush, among whom were some white men. They seized upon Jackson and disappeared, and he was never heard of again. The report went abroad in the State that the young man, who was thought to have acted only in self-defense, had been put to torture. The popular excitement was intense. The citizens threatened to march in and precipitate the Government into a conflict with the Indians, feeling that the Government had been dilatory in removing the Indians from the reservations and too indulgent toward them. The soldiers and Government agents on the reservation resented the attitude of the Colorado citizens and authorities, feeling that their lives were jeopardized by the rashness of persons who themselves encountered no danger. The 500 Indians on this reservation, armed as they were with the most perfect modern rifles, would have been able to annihilate the 150 soldiers posted there. A warrant was issued by a State court for the arrest of Berry, on the charge of being an accessory to the murder of Jackson, and others were taken out against Kline, Holmes, Hoyt, and Meacham. A correspondence was carried on between Governor Pitkin and the Interior Department with reference to the question of whether the reservation was within the criminal jurisdiction of the State. The Government officers conceded that the accused parties were amenable to the State laws, but warned the Governor of the danger of removing Berry and Meacham off the reservation at that time. A sheriff entered the reservation and arrested Berry at the agency; but the latter, upon being taken first to the cantonment at his request, managed to escape in the night-time from the side of the sleeping officer, and spent several days in visiting the various Indian camps, counseling peace and patience, and persuading them to consent to his temporary absence for the purpose of meeting the charges brought against him. Meanwhile

Governor Pitkin had given directions that a body of militia should accompany a sheriff's posse into the reservation for the purpose of capturing Berry. In the order the Governor said that, if the Ute Indians attempted resistance to the process, they would be swept away, and further, that if sufficient force and ammunition could not be procured in Gunnison, it should be furnished from Denver, and that the force should be either wholly or partly mounted, and well supplied with ammunition. In the mean time an officer of the United States court had arrived; and Berry, after quieting and reassuring the Indians, expressed his willingness to go in his custody to be examined in the court, whichever it was, which had jurisdiction of the matter. Captain Kline had been arrested and confined in jail at Gunnison. General Pope, in a letter, instructed the officers of the army that the military have no authority to exercise in such a matter, nor jurisdiction of any kind over the Indians or their reservation, which are under the charge and control of the agents of the Indian Bureau, and the military are not empowered to take any action except on the demand and under the direction of the Indian agent. Agent Berry declined to call upon the military for assistance. On October 19th Governor Pitkin received an answer to interrogatories sent to the Interior Department, saying that, if Agent Berry were arrested upon criminal process duly served by the State's officers, the United States troops could not interfere, but that if the militia made their entry upon the reservation without process, the Federal troops may be called upon to eject them. General Pope sent a dispatch to the Governor on the 20th, in which he stated that he had forbidden the troops to prevent the arrest, upon receiving the opinion of the Attorney-General of the United States, that Agent Berry and his subordinates are amenable to the State law for acts committed upon the reservation. While admitting the jurisdiction of the State within the limits of the Indian reservation over the agent, the Attorney-General reserved his opinion as to whether the Indians also were subject to criminal arrest by the State authorities. Agent Berry, on October 19th, submitted to arrest by the United States Marshal, the Indians consenting to his absence upon promise of his return in a fortnight. Upon his arrest Governor Pitkin ordered that the posse, which was on the way to the reservation, should be recalled. Meacham also delivered himself into custody; and Berry, Meacham, and Hoyt were taken to Denver.

In the case of the United States *vs.* Berry *et al.*, in the United States District Court of Colorado, Judge McCrary, the late Secretary of War, decided that the murder by Jackson took place within the exclusive jurisdiction of the United States, and that the claim of the State of Colorado for a transfer of the case to the jurisdiction of its courts had no warrant in law. One of the obligations imposed upon the United

States, by the terms of the treaty of March 2, 1868, with the Indians, is to enforce their criminal laws within the limits of the reservation against all classes of offenders. If the State be conceded jurisdiction in this case, it would be entitled to enforce its own criminal statutes, now in force or to be enacted in the future, against whites or Indians, in all parts of the reservation; and thus it would lie in the power of the State to defeat and destroy the treaty entered into with the Indians by the Government. All the Indian reservations granted by Congress have been kept within the jurisdiction of the United States, whether located in Territories or States; and no instance has been known of a tribe of Indians and its reservation being handed over without their consent into the control of a State.

In a letter of instructions from the Commissioner of the General Land-Office, the Government surveyor in surveying mining claims is directed to base the survey on one lode only, and to make it conform more or less nearly to the figure of a parallelogram. According to the law, a miner can locate 1,500 feet along the length of a vein or lode and 300 feet to each side of its center. It is not allowable to work the claim beyond the vertical planes drawn from the end-lines when it abuts upon the claim of another; but laterally it is permitted to follow the dip of the lode beyond the side-lines. If the survey does not follow the general direction of the vein or lode, and the side-lines of the surface claim cross the vein, the miner is debarred from working further along the length of the vein than the vertical plane from his side-line at that point. Claims can not be made to depart so far from the form of a parallelogram, upon the supposition that the strike of the vein or lode is tortuous, that the side-lines may fall across the course of other veins; and therefore the surveyor is instructed not to allow claims of an angular form in which the end-lines are not parallel with each other or nearly so. When the top or apex of a second vein is discovered within the surface boundaries of a miner's claim, he is confined in his right to operate it to closer restrictions than apply to the vein on which his claim is based; and in working the original vein he is allowed to pass his boundaries only to follow its natural dip, but not along its length, whether his surface plot conform to the true course of the vein or not.

A general strike of the miners commenced at Leadville on May 26th. More than 7,000 hands are employed in the mines at this point. The action of the strikers was preconcerted in secret. A band of several hundred men went first to one of the larger mines and called all the men out early in the morning. In constantly augmenting numbers they visited each mine in succession. Before night work had ceased in every mine in the camp. About 5,000 miners took part in the strike, the remainder remaining in their homes. The mine

owners and managers took rapid measures to protect their property. Strong guards were posted at the shafts of all the leading mines, and barricades were erected. After some weeks the citizens of Leadville, fearing that the managers would close the mines for an indefinite period and the business of the town would be destroyed, organized a vigilance committee on the 11th of June, and on the 13th Governor Pitkin was prevailed upon to proclaim martial law. The militia patrolled the town, and orders were issued closing the public houses, forbidding the carrying of arms without a permit and the gathering of groups of more than two upon the streets. The president of the strikers' association, Michael Mooney, was arrested while at a Greenback Convention in Denver on the 15th. Upon the promise of the personal safety of their leaders, the strikers quieted down, and work was resumed in the mines, new hands largely taking the place of the old miners. The cause of the strike was stated to be the strict rules introduced in some of the mines against talking or smoking during working hours; the declared object was an increase of wages from three dollars to four dollars a day, and a reduction of the hours of labor from a ten-hour to an eight-hour shift. The strike is estimated to have occasioned a loss of about \$4,000,000, this being the amount of metal which would have been produced during the time in which the mines and smelting-works were kept idle.

The total bullion output of Leadville, for the calendar year 1880, amounted to \$15,095,153, against \$10,189,521 in 1879. The aggregate product of the Leadville mining district from the days of early placer mining is computed as follows:

1860-1873, gold from placers	\$6,400,000
1874, gold and silver.....	145,000
1875, gold and silver.....	113,000
1876, gold, silver, and lead.....	85,200
1877, gold, silver, and lead.....	555,830
1878, gold, silver, and lead.....	8,152,925
1879, gold, silver, and lead.....	10,189,521
1880, gold, silver, and lead.....	15,095,153
Total up to 1881.....	\$35,736,129

The total product of Colorado, as given in the annual report for 1880 of Wells, Fargo & Co., is \$21,284,989, or over one fourth of the total yield of the United States, being \$3,000,000 greater than California's product, and \$6,000,000 more than that of Nevada.

The mineral discoveries are not often developed rapidly in Colorado, owing to the large amount of capital required not only to sink the shafts but to erect smelters, without which the ores of many of the camps are of very little value. Among the most important new mining points besides several in Gunnison County are Rico and Breckinridge. The latter is the shire town of Summit County, and has been for many years a placer-camp. Mineral deposits were discovered here as early as 1859. Lately rich veins have been opened in the neighboring mountains, and the place has developed into

a busy mining center. A considerable variety of ores are found, and smelting-works have been established within the year. In Illinois Gulch chlorides, horn silver, and silver glance have been taken out, besides rich deposits of drift-gold; silver carbonates have been worked on Nigger Hill, and chlorides and carbonates on Mineral Hill, Gibson Hill, Carbonate Flats, and at other points.

Rico is a carbonate camp on the Rio Dolores, which was first settled in the spring of 1879. It is situated forty-five miles from Silverton, on the mesa lands of the Dolores Mountains. The surface ores yield silver only; the lodes improve below and contain considerable gold. The mines developed have yielded from \$100 to \$600 or more a ton.

Tomichi, another new settlement of promise, situated on the summit of the Great Divide near the head-waters of the South Arkansas, and at the source of Tomichi Creek, gives quartz-ore containing silver glance associated with pyrites and native brittle silver, inclosed in metamorphic granite. The ores are very rich, each assaying over \$600 a ton.

Of the many camps in the Gunnison country, where, according to all indications, some of the most valuable deposits on the continent will be found, Aspen is that which is at present attracting the most attention, and is second to no camp in the Gunnison country, unless, perhaps, the Ten Mile. Its ores smelt freely, assay well near the surface, and improve with the depth of the developments. There are large bodies of galena-ore carrying native silver, carbonate of lead in large quantities, black sulphurets, ruby and brittle silver, with chlorides and bromides, and various oxides of iron, antimony, and manganese. The geological formation of this remarkable silver belt, extending fifteen miles in a northwest direction to Castle Forks, consists of granite, schistose rocks, quartzite, limestone, spars, trachytic rock, and drift. The whole mass of Aspen Mountain seems to be veined with rich bodies of high-grade ores.

An anti-Chinese riot took place in Denver on the 31st of October. A fear had long possessed the miners and other workmen of the State lest the Chinese should be brought in from California to compete with them in their occupations. This feeling had been wrought upon by the recent publication of the forged Garfield letter, and the popular hatred of the Chinese inflamed to a dangerous pitch. The exciting cause of the Denver riot was a fight in a saloon over a game between a white man and a Chinaman. A mob immediately gathered in the streets, which soon numbered over 1,500 excited men, and rushed toward the district inhabited by the Chinese, shouting threats of murder and destruction. During the day they were kept back by the police and firemen, who stretched ropes across the streets leading to the threatened quarter, and poured water from the engines into the crowd as often as it

threatened to break through the cordon. Nearly all the Chinese in the place, about 160 altogether, were found by the police and escorted to the jail for safety. Several were caught by the mob and maltreated, and two of these beaten to death. In the evening the rioters broke into many houses occupied by Chinese as dwellings and laundries, and destroyed their household goods and washing utensils and the clothes of their customers. A couple of thousand special policemen were sworn in. Upon an attempted renewal of the disturbances the ensuing morning many rioters were arrested. Several hundred were also arrested upon warrants.

The Republican Convention to nominate delegates to vote for a Presidential candidate at Chicago, met at Denver, May 25th, requested the delegation to support the candidacy of Grant, and named Blaine as their alternate choice. The following resolutions upon the Ute difficulty and upon silver coinage formed a part of their platform:

Resolved, That we are uncompromisingly opposed to monometalism, and declare our firm determination to use all legal and proper means to reestablish silver as the equal of gold as a money metal; that we are in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver with gold.

Resolved, That the Democratic Congress of the United States, in its treatment of the Indian question, has failed to discharge a high public duty imposed upon it by the progress of civilization. That we do not recognize the claim that any treaty exists between the national Government and the Utes, the treaty which did exist having first been violated in the most savage and brutal manner by the Indians themselves. We therefore most heartily pledge the coöperation of the Republican party of Colorado to the doctrine of speedy removal.

The Democratic Convention to select delegates for the Presidential Convention came together at Denver, June 3d. The resolutions adopted read as follows:

Resolved, That we, the Democracy of Colorado, are in favor of the full and unlimited coinage of silver.

Resolved, That we will support the nominee of the Cincinnati Convention.

Resolved, That the Utes must go.

The Greenback-Labor Convention was held at Denver, June 15th. The national platform and nominations were endorsed, and Rev. A. J. Chittenden was nominated for Governor.

The regular State Convention of the Democratic party was held at Leadville, August 18th. The nominations were John S. Hough, of Hinsdale, for Governor; W. S. Stover, for Lieutenant-Governor; Charles O. Unfug, for Secretary; Dr. A. Y. Hull, for Treasurer; R. G. Bray, for Auditor; and J. C. Stallcup, for Attorney-General. R. S. Morrison was put in nomination for member of Congress. The following resolutions were adopted, in spite of earnest protests from J. Y. Marshall, of Leadville, and others, by a large majority vote:

Resolved, 1. That we reiterate the words of our standard-bearer, that the military should be at all times subordinate to the civil law.

2. That whereas, it is provided by the Constitution of the State that the supreme executive power is lodged

in the Governor, but only to see that the laws are enforced, therefore we declare the placing of Lake County under martial law in time of peace to have overstepped the bounds of the Constitution.

The Republican State Convention met at Leadville, August 26th. Governor Frederick W. Pitkin was renominated, George B. Robinson nominated for Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary N. H. Meldrum renominated, W. C. Sanders nominated for Treasurer, and Joseph A. Davis for Auditor. The nominee for Congressman was James B. Belford. The resolutions adopted endorsed the National party nominations, declared for bimetalism and free coinage of silver, called upon the national and State governments to encourage by suitable legislation the development of the mineral resources of the State; they also protested against any legislation "that shall embarrass the prospector on the public lands in his efforts to secure a perfect title to his discoveries," and accused the Democratic Congress of having failed to discharge a "high public duty imposed upon it by the progress of civilization" in its treatment of the Indian question.

The census of 1880 makes the population of the State of Colorado 194,649. The population of Denver, which was 4,759 in 1870, has become 37,719. Leadville, which is disputing with Denver the privilege of containing the halls of legislation and being the State capital, has within that period, though one of the most elevated inhabited spots on the globe, grown from nothing into a town of about 21,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES. The revival and expansion of commercial enterprise and industrial and agricultural activity, which, after five years of declining trade and financial depression, was first started by the profitable exportation of the large surplus crops of 1878, and which seemed to have reached its flood after the more abundant harvest of 1879 and the continued European demand for the entire surplus, attained a still higher mark in 1880, permeating every branch and department of business and industry, and manifesting itself in an increase in values, in a scale of consumption which has never been equaled, and in a volume of business in internal commerce, manufactures, agriculture, and in financial operations and the extension of productive facilities and inauguration of new enterprises, which exceeds the figures of any previous year in the commercial history of the United States. There has been a very large supply of money in the money market, and an equally active demand, which has occasionally produced a tight market, notwithstanding the enormous capitals which were unlocked at the return of confidence. The transactions on the stock exchange and in the loan market were of unparalleled aggregate magnitude. The United States Treasury has purchased during the year \$103,303,300 Government bonds on account of the sinking fund. A great though not a steady

advance in prices has taken place on the stock exchange during the twelvemonth. The prices of American railroad and other securities in the London market have kept pace with the rising values in New York, and the exportation of American railroad bonds, long interrupted, has been resumed on a large scale. The earnings of the railroad lines have been quite unexampled. Rivals of the Western Union Telegraph Company have entered the field to compete with that huge corporation; several consolidations and alliances have taken place between gigantic railroad corporations, and various new trunk lines have been formed or projected. The production of gold and silver has slightly decreased, and a depression in mining stocks has taken place. In wheat, cotton, iron, and coal there has been a largely increased production. The immigration during the fiscal year 1879-'80 was 457,257 persons against 177,826 the year before. Novel attempts, in most cases unsuccessful, were made to make corners, that is, to monopolize the supply for speculative purposes, in several of the staple articles of merchandise—notably in wheat, in pork, and in coffee.

The total exports of domestic products from the United States during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, amounted to the sum of \$823,946,353. Including coin and bullion, the total export trade for the year was \$833,294,246, the value of the coin and bullion exports amounting to \$9,347,893.

The aggregate value of foreign articles of merchandise imported during the fiscal year was \$667,954,746; the total imports of coin and bullion were \$93,034,310, making the total foreign imports of the United States for the twelve months \$760,989,056. The excess of precious metals imported over the exports was \$83,686,417. The excess of merchandise exported over the imports was \$167,683,912. The balance in favor of the United States on both coin and merchandise accounts is \$72,305,190. The re-exports of foreign merchandise amounted to \$11,692,305. The total foreign commerce of the United States in 1879-'80 amounted to \$1,613,770,803, an increase of \$411,062,194, or 32 per cent. over the aggregate exports and imports of 1878-'79. The following statement, going back ten years, gives the aggregate export and import trade of the United States for each year, and the increase and decrease compared with the year immediately preceding:

FISCAL YEAR.	Total commerce of the United States.	Increase.	Decrease.
1879-'80.....	\$1,613,770,803	\$411,062,194	
1878-'79.....	1,202,708,609		\$7,810,790
1877-'78.....	1,210,519,899	8,421,974	
1876-'77.....	1,207,097,425	58,685,550	
1875-'76.....	1,153,411,875		\$1,619,193
1874-'75.....	1,235,031,068		89,073,688
1873-'74.....	1,324,104,706		16,794,515
1872-'73.....	1,340,899,221	128,570,988	
1871-'72.....	1,212,328,238	79,855,975	
1870-'71.....	1,132,472,258	140,575,869	

A summary of the total foreign commerce of the leading commercial nations, comparing the returns for 1878 (for 1879 in the cases of Great Britain and the United States) with those for 1875, showing the fluctuation in the trade of each in the four (or respectively five) years, is given by the Secretary of State in the volume of Consular Reports, for the purpose of comparing the development of the international trade of the United States of late with that of other countries. In Austria, the total volume of commerce increased from \$422,806,000 in 1875 to \$528,252,000 in 1878, an increase of 25 per cent., and the balance of trade changed from \$17,232,000 against her to \$49,046,000 in her favor, a gain of \$66,278,000. In Belgium, the volume of commerce grew from \$464,912,000 to \$498,927,000; increase, 7 per cent.; the adverse balance increased from \$31,786,000 to \$69,559,000; loss, \$37,773,000. China's total trade increased from \$211,790,000 to \$213,588,000, 1 per cent.; the balance changed from \$3,162,000 in favor to \$1,868,000 against; loss, \$5,030,000. The trade of France was \$1,430,130,000 in 1875, and \$1,419,708,000 in 1878; decrease, $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent., the favorable balance of \$64,848,000 changing to an adverse one of \$192,228,000; loss, \$257,076,000. Germany's commerce increased from \$1,612,266,000 to \$1,686,820,000, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the adverse balance from \$68,586,000 to \$92,882,000; loss, \$24,296,000. Italian commerce fell off from \$430,117,000 to \$397,177,000, decrease $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the adverse balance decreased from \$35,530,000 to \$11,698,000; gain, \$23,832,000. Russian commerce advanced from \$639,160,000 to \$703,862,000, increase 10 per cent.; the balance was altered from \$104,374,000 against to \$35,248,000 in favor; gain, \$139,622,000. British trade decreased in volume from \$3,165,665,000 in 1875 to \$2,947,795,000 in 1879, $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the adverse balance growing from \$428,397,000 to \$573,577,000; loss, \$145,180,000. American trade increased in the five years from \$1,106,402,000 to \$1,157,415,000, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the favorable balance from \$12,074,000 to \$265,859,000; gain, \$253,785,000.

The following is the statement of the merchandise exports and imports in 1879-'80:

Exports of domestic merchandise.....	\$223,946,353
Exports of foreign merchandise.....	11,692,305
Total.....	\$235,638,658
Imports of merchandise.....	\$667,954,746
Excess of exports over imports of merchandise	\$167,683,912
Aggregate of exports and imports.....	\$1,503,593,404

Compared with the previous year, there was an increase of \$125,199,217 in the value of exports of merchandise, and an increase of \$222,176,971 in the value of imports. The annual average of the excess of such imports over exports for ten years previous to June 30, 1873, was \$104,706,922; but for the last five years there has been an excess of exports over imports of merchandise amounting to \$920,955,-

387, an annual average of \$184,191,077. The specie value of the exports of domestic merchandise increased from \$376,616,473 in 1870 to \$823,946,353 in 1880, an increase of \$447,329,880, or 119 per cent. The imports of merchandise increased from \$435,958,408 in 1870 to \$667,954,746 in 1880, an increase of \$231,996,338, or 53 per cent.

There was an increase in the value of the exports of wheat, wheat-flour, and corn, as compared with similar exports of the preceding year, of \$78,253,837, or 39 per cent.; an increase in the value of the exports of cotton of \$49,231,655, or 30·3 per cent.; an increase in the value of the exports of provisions of \$10,184,592, or 8·7 per cent.; and an increase in the exports of live animals of \$4,394,366, or 38·3 per cent. There has also been a noticeable increase in the value of the exports of tallow, oil-cake, vegetable oils, seeds, clocks and watches, hops, wool, and a few other commodities. The export trade in neat-cattle for the eight months ending August 31st amounted to \$12,462,837, which was nearly double that of the same period in 1879. During the year breadstuffs constituted 35 per cent. of the value of the exports of domestic merchandise; cotton, 27 per cent.; and provisions, 15 per cent.

The imports of merchandise for the year exceeded such imports during any previous year in the history of the country. The leading articles, showing marked increase in quantity or value imported, are coffee, hides and skins, raw silk, and tea, all of which are free of duty, and copper, manufactures of cotton, silk, and wool, fruits, glass, iron and steel, lead, leather, precious stones, leaf-tobacco, wool, and zinc. The imports of unmanufactured wool increased from 39,000,000 pounds in 1879 to over 128,000,000 pounds in 1880. The value of the imports of railroad-bars of iron and steel increased from \$70,071 in 1879 to \$4,952,286 in 1880.

Of the total commerce of the United States 57 per cent. has been conducted on an average for the last ten years through the port of New York. In 1879-'80 the share of New York in the total was 58 per cent.; in 1878-'79 it was 55 per cent. The large imports of 1879-'80 account for the relative increase in the trade of that city. The imports of New York, including coin and bullion, in 1879-'80, were \$543,595,398; the exports, \$388,441,664—there was, therefore, an excess of imports at that port of \$155,153,734, while the total commerce of the whole country shows an excess of exports of \$72,305,190. The following statement exhibits the values of the leading classes of imports, with the aggregate value of all other classes and the bullion imports, entering through New York, the aggregate imports of the other ports of the United States, and the total imports of the United States, with the quantities and values of special articles for the port of New York, in the year ending June 30, 1880:

COMMODITIES.	Port of New York.	All other ports.	Total United States.
Sugar and molasses:			
Sugar, 1,261,455,570 lbs.	\$58,338,344	\$30,488,102	\$88,761,946
Molasses, 12,771,493 gallons.			
Melado, 32,065,036 lbs.			
Coffee, 316,041,921 lbs.	43,512,094	16,848,675	60,360,769
Silk manufactures.	30,758,123	1,430,567	32,188,690
Woolen manufactures.	28,138,775	5,475,119	33,613,897
Cotton manufactures.	26,592,501	3,436,365	29,929,866
Flax manufactures.	18,776,280	8,705,177	22,481,407
Iron and steel manufactures:			
Pig-iron, 832,770,324 lbs.	23,088,149	19,673,794	42,766,943
Scrap-iron, 232,141 tons.			
Steel ingots, bars, sheets, and wire.			
Railroad bars of iron, 153,045,314 lbs.			
Railroad bars of steel, 100,002,651 lbs.			
Bar-iron, 83,141,386 lbs.			
Hides and skins, other than furs.	20,430,171	9,572,083	30,002,254
Tin—in bars, blocks, or pigs, 259,004 cwt.	\$5,701,804	7,318,415	23,446,442
“ in plates, 2,027,310 cwt.	10,426,223		
Tea, 51,941,410 lbs.	13,715,368	6,067,263	19,782,631
Wool and leather manufactures.	10,093,891	2,169,142	12,263,033
India-rubber and gutta-percha, crude, 13,931,964 lbs.	9,313,866	144,05,784	23,727,650
Tobacco and manufactures:	8,034,438	1,571,751	9,606,239
Leaf, 8,790,649 lbs.	6,564,760	751,183	7,315,993
Cigars, 599,349 lbs.			
Precious stones.	6,294,492	403,996	6,693,483
Wines, spirits, and cordials.	5,742,203	1,994,324	7,736,532
Fancy goods.	5,345,124	638,039	5,983,163
Rags of cotton or linen, 140,649,028 lbs.	4,248,111	1,226,626	5,474,737
Furs and dressed fur skins.	3,640,325	287,510	3,927,835
Total value of leading articles of merchandise.	\$398,541,950	\$127,407,970	\$465,949,920
Total value of all other articles of merchandise.	121,395,203	80,609,623	202,004,826
Total value of coin and bullion.	83,655,245	9,370,965	93,034,310
Total value of foreign imports, 1879-'80.	\$543,595,393	\$217,398,653	\$760,989,056

The corresponding statement of the amounts of the leading classes of merchandise exports, with the aggregate amount of the minor classes, and the exports of precious metals, for the port of New York, for all the other ports of the

United States together, and the sum showing the total exports of the United States in each class, with the details of the exportation of the great staples from the port of New York, is as follows:

COMMODITIES.	Port of New York.	All other ports.	Total United States.
Breadstuffs:			
Wheat, 67,307,343 bushels.	\$134,671,446	\$153,365,389	\$288,036,835
Wheat-flour, 3,628,291 bbls.			
Indian corn, 39,489,387 bushels.			
Rye, 2,624,941 bushels.			
All other breadstuffs.			
Cotton, 308,515,321 lbs.	36,218,941	175,321,964	211,535,905
Provisions:			
Bacon and hams, 513,404,956 lbs.	69,228,380	32,671,984	121,900,814
Lard, 265,736,447 lbs.			
Cheese, 119,760,142 lbs.			
Preserved meats.			
Beef, fresh, 60,659,725 lbs.			
Beef, salted or cured, 33,177,673 lbs.			
Butter, 31,061,610 lbs.			
Pork, 52,442,156 lbs.			
Oils, mineral:			
Illuminating, 266,841,227 gallons.			
Crude, 24,034,260 gallons.	26,133,094	8,764,917	34,908,011
Naphtha, 15,257,520 gallons.			
Tobacco, leaf, 121,768,712 lbs.			
Cotton manufactures.	8,893,270	7,480,837	16,379,107
Horned cattle, No. 65,151.	7,442,398	2,539,020	9,981,418
Furs and fur skins.	6,047,914	7,296,251	13,344,195
Tallow, 14,393,340 lbs.	4,971,047	433,371	5,404,418
Leather—sole, upper, and all other, 13,907,621 lbs.	4,957,129	2,732,112	7,689,232
Oil-cake, 231,962,161 lbs.	4,306,150	779,983	5,086,133
Sugar, refined, 23,913,432 lbs.	3,798,505	2,461,022	6,259,527
	2,157,504	560,059	2,717,563
Total value of leading articles of merchandise.	\$328,831,519	\$394,406,924	\$723,238,443
Total value of all other articles of merchandise.	56,675,083	44,032,827	100,707,910
Total value of domestic coin and bullion.	2,935,062	6,412,831	9,347,893
Total value of domestic exports, 1879-'80.	\$388,441,664	\$444,852,582	\$833,294,246

A review of the prices of exports for the years 1879-'80 shows an advance, compared with the previous year, of 8½ per cent., al-

though still 6 per cent. below the gold prices of the same articles in 1870. The total exports of domestic merchandise and specie during the

twelve months ending November 30, 1880, amounted to \$866,865,844, the reexports to \$21,006,243; making the total exports \$887,872,087. The imports of foreign merchandise and specie were \$784,577,033. The total exports of domestic merchandise and specie, during the same months in 1879, were \$759,235,839; the reexports, \$17,622,520; total, \$776,858,359; and the total imports for the same period were \$572,364,296.

The Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, in his statement of the imports and exports of the United States for the month of December, 1880, reports that the excess of exports of merchandise stated in specie values was as follows: Month ending December 31, 1880, \$51,483,844; month ending December 31, 1879, \$21,277,042; twelve months ending December 31, 1880, \$192,846,407; twelve months ending December 31, 1879, \$251,557,929. The excess of imports of gold and silver coin and bullion was as follows: Month ending December 31, 1880, \$15,764,154; month ending December

31, 1879, \$5,877,322; twelve months ending December 31, 1880, \$69,229,822; twelve months ending December 31, 1879, \$67,371,960. The excess of the value of exports over imports of merchandise during the first six months of 1880-'81 amounted to the sum of \$161,682,913.

Both in quantity and in value the merchandise exported from the United States exceeded those of any previous year; and the importations were still more in excess of the transactions of any other year. The next largest export trade was that of 1879, which was less than that of 1880 by \$116,973,671. The highest previous total of imports in any one year was in the year 1873, when the imports for the fiscal year are reported as \$642,136,210, the next highest having been those of 1879.

The merchandise transactions for the month of November and the twelve months ending November 30, 1880, compared with the same periods in the preceding year, are presented in the table below:

MERCHANDISE.		November, 1880.	November, 1879.	Twelve months ending November 30, 1880.	Twelve months ending November 30, 1879.
Exports	Domestic.....	\$81,646,874	\$78,347,341	\$858,257,790	\$741,284,119
	Foreign.....	1,354,381	956,224	13,408,556	10,417,055
Total.....		\$83,001,255	\$79,304,065	\$871,666,346	\$751,761,204
Imports.....		47,106,915	50,467,271	709,028,302	485,516,166
Excess of exports over imports.....		\$35,894,340	\$28,836,794	\$162,638,044	\$266,245,088

The bullion movement for the same periods was as follows:

GOLD AND SILVER.		November, 1880.	November, 1879.	Twelve months ending November 30, 1880.	Twelve months ending November 30, 1879.
Exports	Domestic.....	\$744,198	\$483,226	\$8,688,054	\$17,951,720
	Foreign.....	452,710	624,060	7,597,687	7,145,485
Total.....		\$1,226,908	\$1,107,286	\$16,205,741	\$25,097,155
Imports.....		10,601,773	18,395,850	75,548,731	86,548,130
Excess of imports over exports.....		\$9,374,865	\$17,288,564	\$59,342,990	\$61,750,975

The records of the Register of the Treasury show that the total tonnage of vessels of the United States at the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, was 4,068,034 tons. Of this amount 1,352,810 tons were comprised in 2,378 vessels registered for the foreign trade, and 2,715,224 tons in 22,334 vessels enrolled and licensed for the coasting trade and fisheries. There has been a decrease of 138,723 tons in vessels employed in the foreign trade, and a decrease of 37,157 tons in such as were engaged in the domestic trade.

The vessels built during the year 1879-'80, with their tonnage, are exhibited in the following table:

VESSELS BUILT.	Number.	Tonnage.
Sailing-vessels.....	460	59,057
Steam-vessels.....	348	75,854
Canal-boats enrolled.....	17	1,857
Barges.....	77	17,612
Total.....	902	157,410

The decrease in the tonnage built during the fiscal year, as compared with that of the preceding year, was 35,620 tons.

The total tonnage of vessels entered at the seaboard ports from foreign countries was 13,768,137 tons during the year ending June 30, 1879, and 15,240,534 tons during the fiscal year 1880, showing an increase of 1,472,397 tons, or about 10½ per cent. The American tonnage entered exhibited an increase of only 78,631 tons, or 2½ per cent., while the foreign showed an increase of 1,393,766 tons, or about 13 per cent. The tonnage in these cases is computed on the basis of the number of entries of vessels, and not on the number of vessels, and is restricted to the seaboard ports. Of the merchandise brought in at seaboard, lake, and river ports during the fiscal year, an amount of the value of \$149,317,368 was imported in American vessels and \$503,494,913 in foreign. Of the exports of merchandise, an amount of the value of \$109,028,860 was shipped in American and \$720,770,521 in foreign vessels. Of

the combined imports and exports of merchandise, 17 per cent. only of the total value was conveyed in American vessels.

In 1856 over 75 per cent. of the total value of the imports and exports was carried in American vessels, while in 1880 but 17 per cent. was carried in such vessels, though the total volume of commerce has risen from a value of \$724,000,000 to over \$1,500,000,000.

The annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury contains the following allusions to the decline of the American shipping trade, and the plans proposed for its remedy :

The adoption by the United States of the new code of sailing regulations now used by most maritime nations is urged by the Secretary.

The disproportion between the commodities carried in American and those carried in foreign vessels still continues, and is even greater than during the fiscal year 1879, the amount of merchandise transported in our vessels during the fiscal year 1880, estimated on the basis of value, being five per cent. less than that transported during the former year.

The foreign carrying trade in American bottoms is more than 50 per cent. less than it has been, or than it might be, and if it is desirable to save to the country the annual freightage on merchandise of the value of \$1,200,000,000, the only course to reach that result would seem to be to increase our registered shipping. But while the ordinary demand for increased tonnage causes no annual increase in the building of vessels, the only method available, as a measure of public policy, of effecting such an increase, is either to allow American citizens the privilege of purchasing vessels of foreign build, to give a bounty on home-built vessels, or to await the increase of American-built vessels and their tardy substitution in the foreign trade for those of other nationalities. Doubtless the number of vessels of home-build will be adequate in time to take up the freightage lost to American bottoms in consequence of the war of the rebellion. At present, however, the demand for vessels to carry on our immense import and export trade does not seem to so stimulate the ship-building industry as to prevent an annual decrease in the number of ships built. The present facilities for freighting in foreign vessels appear to be a greater discouragement to that industry than would be the privilege of purchasing such vessels.

A buoyant tone prevailed in the markets, and a general advance in values took place in the beginning of the year. But in May and

June the speculative movement met a sudden check, the confident spirit disappeared, and prices again fell. Iron was the first article to decline; and the principal cause of the momentary arrest of the advancing tide of prosperity was probably the sudden cessation of an over-stimulated demand for this great staple, which is usually looked upon as a commercial thermometer, which marks the rise and fall of general prosperity. The fall in iron was extraordinary; the price declined from \$41 a ton in February to \$23 in June. A combination of speculators, controlling money and credit to a vast amount, had made an effort to create an artificial scarcity in wheat, by buying up the available supplies, intending to compel merchants and speculators, in order to fulfill their contracts, to buy of them the immense stock which they had accumulated at arbitrary prices. While these operators were buying freely in the market to obtain a monopoly, the price of wheat advanced to \$1.59 a bushel in Chicago; but it was beyond the power of this combination of a few individuals to hem or control the leading staple of the United States, and the great pool collapsed, the price dropping suddenly to \$1.03 a bushel in September. The price of cotton declined from 13½ cents a pound in March to 10¼ cents in November. The effect upon the stock market was still more marked. The fall in prices was so great that a general financial panic was apprehended. After June, the tone improved gradually and prices slowly recovered; but the pending national election prevented any great commercial activity. After the State elections in Ohio and Indiana on October 12th, which were generally accepted as indicating the result of the Presidential election, a remarkable upward movement took place on the stock exchange, and a business of enormous volume, with generally improving prices, was done in all the markets. A comprehensive survey of the commercial year, and a comparison of the most salient data of the commerce of 1880 with the corresponding data for 1879, are presented in the appended table :

VARIABLES.	1880.	1879.
Coin and currency in United States, November 1st.....	\$1,802,793,480	\$1,165,553,508
Imports of gold and silver *.....	75,543,781	86,843,130
Exports of merchandise *.....	871,666,346	751,761,204
Imports of merchandise *.....	709,028,302	489,516,166
Excess of exports over imports *.....	162,638,044	266,245,083
New railroads constructed..... miles	(est.) 6,500	4,721
Earnings of forty-three railroads (eleven months).....	\$180,663,789	\$143,840,129
Stock dividends distributed.....	49,700,000	
Wheat produced..... bushels	(est.) 480,849,000	(est.) 448,755,000
Cotton in year ending September 1st..... bales	5,757,397	5,073,581
Iron..... tons	(est.) 3,800,000	2,741,853
Anthracite coal..... tons	23,600,000	26,142,639
Gold (Valentine's estimate).....	\$33,522,182	\$32,539,920
Silver (Valentine's estimate).....	40,005,364	85,623,512
Number of immigrants †.....	457,257	177,826

Concurrently with the extension of the railroad network of the United States, the concentration of the control of the railroads into fewer and fewer hands is going on continually.

The year 1880 has been a notable one in regard to the formation of gigantic combinations and the consolidation and merging of companies, many of which had been but struggling concerns, into enormously wealthy and powerful corporations. The evils and danger of this

* Twelve months ending November 30th.

† Year ending June 30th.

movement, which has already proceeded so far that fifteen companies have in their direct possession or under their indirect control fully one half of the total length of railway in the United States, have been described oftener than has the advantage—that, owing to the unification and better systematization of the business, and to mechanical and technical improvements which the employment of ready capital has facilitated upon roads that had been crippled for lack of means, the cost of transportation has been reduced on an average 40 per cent. The extension of railroads during the year was unprecedented. About 7,150 miles were built, against 4,721 in 1879. The corporations which added most largely to their mileage were the Chicago and Northwestern, which operated at the end of the year 2,624 miles; the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul, with 3,627 miles; the Northern Pacific, which had extended its length to 991 miles; the Union Pacific, with a total length of 3,126 miles; the Wabash, St. Louis and Pacific, operating 2,487 miles; the Missouri Pacific, with 731 miles of road; the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, with about 2,800 miles of rail; the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé, with 1,501 miles; the St. Louis and San Francisco, with 596 miles; the Texas and Pacific, with 550 miles; and the Central and Southern Pacific, with 2,586 miles of road. These eleven companies control together nearly 22,000 miles of railroad, the total mileage of the country being 93,637 miles, as estimated by the "Railroad Gazette." The extraordinary changes which were brought about in the character of the corporations, by the extension of the lines, the buying up of other roads, and coalition of separate companies under one charter, the issue of scrip dividends, etc., are such that no fair comparison is presented by ranging together the quoted values of the stocks for 1880 and former years. The gross earnings of forty-three railroads for the twelve months of the calendar year amounted to \$193,036,245, against \$152,056,126 in 1879, an increase of about 26 per cent. The roads taken operate about 32,500 miles of rails, or about one third of the total mileage of the United States. The operations in railroad stocks and bonds in the year 1880 far exceeded those of any previous year. The reported sales of railroad stock on the New York Stock Exchange amounted for the year to 100,000,000 shares, the number sold in 1879 having been about 75,000,000. The sales of railroad bonds footed up \$570,000,000, against \$413,000,000 the previous year. Many new stocks and bonds were admitted to the list. The extraordinary depression in stocks which occurred in May and June carried down the price of nearly every stock on the list 20 or 30 per cent. In the late summer and autumn a remarkable buoyancy and rise of values set in.

The most noteworthy financial events of the year in the stock market were the transfer of New York Central stock to the syndicate, by

Vanderbilt; a sale of \$10,000,000 Central Pacific stock, by Huntington and associates, to another syndicate; the acquisition by Jay Gould of the Missouri, Kansas and Texas, the St. Louis and Iron Mountain, and other roads, until he controlled every important through line west of the Mississippi and south of the latitude of St. Louis, except the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé and the Atlantic and Pacific; the suspension of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad and Coal Company, which took place in May; the contest for the control of the Western roads between the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy company and Gould's Wabash, St. Louis and Pacific combination, which commenced in August and was settled in October; the fall in Western Union Telegraph stock on the publication of an alleged decrease in earnings in December. The Louisville and Nashville and the Chicago and Rock Island railroad companies each declared a scrip dividend of 100 per cent., the total amount of stock dividends distributed by these and other railroad corporations during the year summing up nearly \$40,000,000. Three vast combinations were formed to force up the prices of staple commodities, which produced mischievous effects both in the money and in the goods markets. These were: the attempted corner in wheat, in Chicago, by Keene and associates, which broke down with great loss to the manipulators; the coffee syndicate, which ended in the disastrous failures of B. G. Arnold & Co. and Bowie, Dash & Co., of New York, in December; and the corner in pork, managed by Armour & Co., of Chicago, the same operators who had attempted to obtain a monopoly of the same article the year before, but had been obliged to close out their transactions with a heavy deficit. This year the scheme was conducted, with larger means at command, to a successful issue. The combination obtained the complete command of the market, and controlled the supply for months, winding up the operation in the fall with very large gains.

The money market in the first months of the year, and at its close, presented the natural phenomenon, in such times of activity, of an abundant general supply with high rates prevailing, and occasionally great stringency. From January to May the rates for call loans were usually four to six per cent.; prime commercial paper was discounted at five and six per cent.; and in March and April one sixteenth of one per cent. per diem was the common price for advances to meet engagements in Wall Street. The fall in the values of many commodities, and the sudden decline in stocks and severe depression in the stock market, which was followed by a period of lassitude, continuing long after the upward turn in prices had again set in, left the money market very slack. The ordinary rates for call loans until the October elections were two and three per cent., while prime notes were in good demand at close rates, four to five per cent. being the prevailing rates up to

August, afterward five to six per cent. until the middle of November. The unexampled financial activity of the late fall and winter drove the rates up to five and six per cent. again on call loans, while the discount rates on prime business paper advanced to six and six and one half per cent. In December the minimum price of money in New York was frequently as high as six per cent. on Government-bond collaterals, and one sixteenth per cent. per day was charged for carrying margins. In the beginning of the month the market was so tight that operators paid three eighths of one per cent. per diem commission. Foreign exchange was in favor of Europe, and the demand for sterling bills was strong and steady for the first half of the year on account of the large imports of merchandise that took the place of the large amounts of American securities which were brought back from Europe in 1879, and had the same effect of keeping up the demand for bills of exchange. In the latter half of the year the course of exchange was in the opposite direction, as the large importations were arrested by the decline in the prices of merchandise; so that an influx of specie took place, which continued until the close of the year, \$69,000,000 being imported between the dates of August 1st and December 31st.

The number of mercantile failures in the calendar year 1880 is given in Dun's report as 4,735, the aggregate liabilities \$65,752,000, a still more favorable exhibit than that for 1879. The following comparative statement gives the annual number of failures and aggregate liabilities for the period of fifteen years past:

YEAR.	Failures.	Amount of liabilities.
1866.....	1,505	\$53,783,000
1867.....	2,750	96,666,000
1868.....	2,608	68,694,000
1869.....	2,739	75,054,054
1870.....	3,546	88,242,000
1871.....	2,915	85,252,000
1872.....	4,069	121,056,000
1873.....	5,183	228,499,900
1874.....	5,830	155,289,000
1875.....	7,740	201,000,000
1876.....	9,092	191,117,000
1877.....	8,872	190,669,936
1878.....	10,478	284,888,132
1879.....	6,658	98,149,053
1880.....	4,735	65,752,000

The distribution of the failures in the different sections of the United States, and those of the Dominion of Canada, for 1880, with the average liabilities and the proportion of the failures to the total number of mercantile houses in the different geographical divisions, are given below:

STATES.	No. in business.	No. of failures.	Percentage of failures.	Am't of liabilities.	Av'ge liabilities.
Eastern States.....	85,774	723	1 in every 118	\$6,460,117	\$8,535
Middle States.....	237,062	1,472	1 in every 161	33,953,292	23,066
Southern States.....	109,821	835	1 in every 131	8,813,442	10,555
Western States.....	275,672	1,171	1 in every 235	11,519,419	9,837
Pacific States and Territories.....	38,494	534	1 in every 72	6,005,730	9,374
Total for United States.....	746,823	4,735	1 in every 158	\$65,752,000	\$13,886
Dominion of Canada.....	57,100	907	1 in every 63	\$7,988,077	\$8,807

The following tabulated survey of prices shows the rates obtaining in the stock and exchange markets for the leading lines dealt in, the quotations of Government bonds, and the

rates for money and exchange, ruling on or about the 31st of December, in 1880 and the preceding two years, together with the prices of the staple articles of merchandise:

ARTICLES QUOTED.	December 31, 1880.	December 31, 1879.	December 31, 1878.
MONEY AND EXCHANGE:			
Call loans.....	6	6 to 6 and $\frac{1}{2}$ com.	4 to 7
Prime paper.....	5 to 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 6	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5
Silver in London, per oz.....	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	49 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.
Prime sterling bills, sixty days.....	4 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 80 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 81 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 82 to 4 82 $\frac{1}{2}$
UNITED STATES BONDS:			
6s, 1881, coupon.....	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	106 $\frac{1}{2}$
6s, currency, 1893.....	183	122	119 $\frac{1}{2}$
5s, 1881, coupon.....	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	107
4 $\frac{1}{2}$ s, 1891, coupon.....	112	106 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$
4s of 1907, coupon.....	112 $\frac{1}{2}$	108	99 $\frac{1}{2}$
RAILROAD STOCKS:			
New York Central and Hudson River.....	150	129 $\frac{1}{2}$	114 $\frac{1}{2}$
Erie (New York, Lake Erie and Western).....	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	22 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lake Shore and Michigan Southern.....	180 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	69
Michigan Central.....	121 $\frac{1}{2}$	90	73 $\frac{1}{2}$
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific.....	136 $\frac{1}{2}$	149	120 $\frac{1}{2}$
Illinois Central.....	126	99 $\frac{1}{2}$	80 $\frac{1}{2}$
Chicago and Northwestern, com.....	124	91	50 $\frac{1}{2}$
Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul, com.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	75 $\frac{1}{2}$	87 $\frac{1}{2}$
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western.....	107	84	43 $\frac{1}{2}$
Central of New Jersey.....	83	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$
MERCHANDISE:			
Cotton, middling uplands..... per lb.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wool, American XX..... per lb.	37 to 45 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 to 53	30 to 36
Iron, American pig, No. 1..... per ton	24 00 to 36 00	33 00 to 35 00	16 50 to 15 00
Wheat, No. 2 red winter..... per bushel	1 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 18 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 55 to 1 59	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 108 $\frac{1}{2}$
Corn, Western mixed..... per bushel	54 to 58	60 to 63	44 to 48
Pork, mess..... per barrel	14 00	12 75 to 13 00	7 10 to 7 20

The estimated cereal production of 1880 and the estimated yield per acre, compared with the crop of 1879, are as follows:

CROP.	Aggregate yield, 1880.	Yield per acre.	Aggregate yield, 1879.	Yield per acre.
Wheat.....	480,849,723	18·3	448,756,113	18·7
Corn.....	1,537,535,900	29·2	1,547,901,790	29·2
Oats.....	355,553,684	27·8	364,238,180	28·7
Buckwheat....	13,695,000	22·8	13,140,000	20·5

The United States wheat-crop in 1878 aggregated 420,122,400 bushels. Of the estimated wheat-crop of 1880, the Agricultural Department estimates that 275,000,000 bushels will be required for the home consumption of food and seed, leaving an exportable surplus of 205,000,000 bushels. The following statement of the exportable surplus of the various wheat-growing regions of the globe producing wheat in excess of the domestic requirements, and the deficiency to be supplied from abroad in the importing countries, was calculated upon information received in Mark Lane, and gives the estimated surplus crops or consumptive demand for foreign wheat in each country in millions of bushels: Exporting countries—United States, 188; Canada, 8; Australia, 12; Austro-Hungary and Southeast Europe, 24; Chili, 4; British India, 8; Egypt, 4; Algeria, 2; Russia, 16; total exporting countries, 266 million bushels. Importing countries—United Kingdom, 120; France, 14·66; Germany, 16; Holland and Belgium, 16; Switzerland, 6;

Spain and Portugal, 4; Central and South America, 12; West Indies, 4; Cape Colony, 4; total quantity required by importing countries, 196·66 million bushels, leaving a surplus to remain in the exporting countries beyond their needs, or to be exported to replenish stocks or form a surplus supply, of 69·34 million bushels.

The imports of wheat and flour from the United States into Great Britain for the crop year ending July 31, 1880, amounted, according to the British Board of Trade returns, to 38,138,729 cwt. of wheat and 7,026,966 of flour, equivalent together to 89,259,969 bushels of wheat; in addition to which about 7,500,000 bushels of American wheat were imported through Canada, the aggregate constituting about seventy per cent. of the total importation into the United Kingdom for the year.

The exports of wheat from the United States for the last four fiscal years, flour included and reduced to its equivalent in wheat, were reported as follows: 74,750,682 bushels in 1875-'76; 57,043,935 bushels in 1876-'77; 92,138,286 bushels in 1877-'78; 147,687,649 bushels in 1878-'79; 180,304,168 bushels in 1879-'80.

The receipts and exports of grain of the five principal Atlantic ports, including Montreal, for the whole calendar year 1879, and eleven months of the year 1880, flour and meal being reduced to their equivalent in grain, with the percentage of each port in the total receipts and exports for the two years, are shown in the annexed statement:

PORT.	1879.				1880 (eleven months).			
	Receipts.	Per cent.	Exports.	Per cent.	Receipts.	Per cent.	Exports.	Per cent.
New York.....	\$168,124,890	49·1	\$123,513,859	49·6	\$161,127,886	51·1	\$122,618,312	50·5
Boston.....	32,798,829	9·9	15,891,088	6·3	31,762,548	10	18,761,267	7·7
Philadelphia..	47,398,455	14·2	82,743,462	18·1	45,276,697	14·3	30,470,758	12·6
Baltimore.....	66,798,211	20·1	55,300,000	22·2	53,550,524	17·1	45,146,811	18·6
Montreal.....	22,363,324	6·7	21,956,154	8·8	28,567,454	7·5	25,764,447	10·6
Total.....	\$332,438,709	100	\$249,409,568	100	\$315,565,112	100	\$242,761,590	100

Of the New York receipts, from January 1 to November 30, 1880, 69,440,901 bushels were brought by rail, 3,982,751 by river and coastwise, and 87,704,237 by canal. Of the Montreal receipts, about 4,500,000 bushels came by rail. The exports of the Pacific coast for the latter half of 1880 were about 13,000,000 bushels.

The receipts and exports of grain of all kinds in bushels, and flour and meal reduced to bushels of grain, from the port of New York for each of the last four years, ending December 31, are given in the next column.

CEREAL.	1880.	1879.	1878.	1877.
Flour.....barrels	7,005,514	7,943,690	5,321,0·5	5,107,581
Wheat.....bushels	86,148,567	98,649,598	90,095,853	58,776,909
Corn.....	150,471,156	107,525,847	92,574,547	77,995,208
Oats.....	89,156,897	80,425,322	80,521,101	28,387,081
Barley.....	10,158,553	10,291,286	9,972,627	9,342,646
Rye.....	8,854,160	4,734,927	5,016,652	4,979,944
Total grain.....	289,814,338	251,687,280	228,190,780	169,431,738

YEAR.	Receipts.	Exports.
	Bushels.	Bushels.
1877.....	102,233,498	62,677,596
1878.....	152,728,184	109,445,579
1879.....	162,014,479	124,850,932
1880.....	171,776,749	135,204,800

The following statements give a comparative view of the grain movement at the Western lake and river ports for the year 1880 and the three years immediately preceding. The total receipts at the Western shipping ports from January 1st to December 25th, for four years, were as follows:

Total receipts (crop movement) at the same ports from August 1st to December 25th, inclusive, for four years:

CEREAL.	1880.	1879.	1878.	1877.
Flour.....barrels	8,786,152	8,198,751	2,824,856	2,878,689
Wheat.....bushels	58,196,849	58,296,018	56,088,564	43,485,291
Corn.....bushels	60,788,908	41,667,530	40,067,395	35,089,616
Oats.....bushels	21,129,485	13,433,255	16,859,950	12,511,637
Barley.....bushels	7,877,822	7,852,549	7,041,776	6,488,860
Rye.....bushels	2,461,806	2,822,856	957,348	2,026,537
Total grain.....	145,454,864	124,071,738	121,015,858	99,602,161

Comparative shipments of flour and grain from the same ports from January 1st to December 25th, inclusive, for four years:

CEREAL.	1880.	1879.	1878.	1877.
Flour.....barrels	6,009,744	7,462,551	6,164,351	5,340,423
Wheat.....bushels	68,647,770	77,598,914	65,574,866	44,683,587
Corn.....bushels	126,155,292	84,604,268	79,014,652	67,587,819
Oats.....bushels	81,436,609	21,850,828	21,950,108	17,976,642
Barley.....bushels	4,804,279	5,611,127	5,398,415	5,515,635
Rye.....bushels	8,104,329	4,079,808	8,729,865	2,372,660
Total grain.....	283,645,278	193,244,445	175,302,406	133,886,848

The closing grain quotations on the New York Produce Exchange, on December 31st, were as follows:

Wheat—No. 2 spring.....	1 14 to 1 17
Red winter.....	1 12 " 1 25
Red winter, No. 2.....	1 17 " 1 13 1/2
White.....	1 10 " 1 16
Corn—Western mixed.....	54 " 58
Western No. 2.....	56 " 57 1/2
Southern yellow, new.....	53 " 56
Southern white, new.....	54 " 58
Rye.....	95 " 98
Oats—mixed.....	42 " 45
White.....	44 " 48
Barley—Canada West.....	1 17 " 1 35
State, four-rowed.....	1 05 " 1 12
State, two-rowed.....	1 00 " 1 05
Peas—Canada, bond and free.....	82 " 95
Buckwheat.....	56 " 58

The exports of provisions from the United States for the eleven months ending Novem-

ber 30, 1880, aggregated in value \$128,110,921, against \$99,190,038 for eleven months in 1879. During this period the shipments of fresh beef were 88,325,197 lbs., against 57,797,230 lbs. in 1879; of salted beef, 41,104,012 lbs., against 35,840,768 lbs. in 1879; of bacon and hams, 715,848,524 lbs., against 674,138,580 lbs.; of butter, 35,796,542 lbs., against 40,824,749 lbs.; of cheese, 127,545,379 lbs., against 125,693,974 lbs.; of lard, 373,021,149 lbs., against 312,208,448 lbs.; of pork, 84,260,514 lbs., against 83,356,090 lbs.; of tallow, 110,200,794 lbs., against 92,128,447 lbs. The exports of pork, lard, and hams and bacon for the twelve months of the packing season ending October 31, in 1879 and 1880, and their destinations, are presented in the statement below given:

EXPORTED TO—	LARD.		BACON AND HAMS.		PORK.	
	1878-'79.	1879-'80.	1878-'79.	1879-'80.	1878-'79.	1879-'80.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Bbls.	Bbls.
Great Britain.....	99,711,126	113,586,502	531,099,448	576,227,923	124,084	124,940
Continent.....	172,618,708	221,152,927	214,461,873	186,056,428	26,524	15,342
South and Central America.....	20,188,059	17,247,518	1,492,511	1,404,295	16,926	16,995
West Indies.....	84,718,053	82,564,550	11,108,122	10,107,452	140,810	128,519
British colonies.....	362,237	444,815	345,734	1,350,642	49,772	38,564
The East.....	1,744,781	918,951	587,964	1,164,179	20,509	19,170
Total.....	329,342,969	385,985,558	759,348,658	776,849,919	372,625	346,493

The summary of the exports of pork products for the two years, with the increase or decrease in 1870-'80, is as follows:

EXPORTS.	Year ending October 31, 1879.	Year ending October 31, 1880.	Increase or decrease.
Salt pork.....lbs.	74,525,000	69,298,600	5,226,400 decrease.
Hams and bacon.....lbs.	759,348,658	776,849,919	17,501,261 increase.
Lard.....lbs.	329,342,969	385,985,558	56,642,589 "
Total.....lbs.	1,163,216,627	1,232,084,077	68,867,450 increase.

The exports of petroleum from the seven principal shipping ports from January 1 to December 11, 1880, and for the correspond-

ing portions of the three preceding years, were as follows: In 1880, 331,626,483 gallons; in 1879, 393,616,075 gallons; in 1878, 321,766,-

627 gallons; in 1877, 344,872,422 gallons. The value of the shipments for ten months of 1880 was \$28,829,945, against \$30,087,807, a falling off of six per cent., the falling off in quantities being over thirteen per cent.

The total cotton-crop of the United States for the year ending September 1, 1880, was 5,757,397 bales of 481.55 pounds each. The exports for the year, with the figures of the preceding crop for comparison, are presented in the following table:

EXPORTS TO—	1879-'80.	1878-'79.
	Bales.	Bales.
Great Britain.....	2,554,569	2,058,514
Channel.....	85,657	49,313
France.....	899,324	419,005
Other countries.....	876,041	940,733
Total exports.....	3,865,621	3,467,565

The stock on hand at the seaports on September 1, 1880, was 137,419 bales, against 59,110 bales at the close of the preceding crop year.

The takings in bales of American factories, found by deducting the exports, the stocks remaining in port and at the mills, the burned cotton, and the consumption of the mills estimated on the outturn of goods, are given in the subjoined statement, covering the last six years ending September 1st:

CROP YEAR.	Northern mills.	Southern mills.	Total takings.	Estimated consumption.
1890.....	1,624,805	179,000	1,803,805	1,760,000
1879.....	1,416,960	152,000	1,568,960	1,625,000
1878.....	1,398,298	148,000	1,546,298	1,580,000
1877.....	1,288,418	147,000	1,435,418	1,485,000
1876.....	1,211,598	145,000	1,356,598	1,310,000
1875.....	1,062,522	145,079	1,207,601	1,225,000

The relative position of the several cotton-raising States in the production of cotton is indicated in the following table, giving in round numbers the crop of each:

STATES.	Bales.
North Carolina.....	200,000
South Carolina.....	400,000
Georgia.....	710,000
Florida.....	162,000
Alabama.....	650,000
Mississipp.....	720,000
Louisiana.....	695,000
Texas.....	900,000
Arkansas.....	770,000
Tennessee.....	400,000
All others.....	150,000
Total.....	5,757,000

The average weight of the bales has increased from 468 pounds in 1875 to 481.55 pounds in 1880. The following statement exhibits the number of bales and the aggregate gross weight of each crop since 1873:

SEASON.	Bales.	Pounds.
1879-'80.....	5,757,397	2,772,448,480
1878-'79.....	5,073,591	2,400,205,525
1877-'78.....	4,811,265	2,309,908,907
1876-'77.....	4,455,423	2,100,465,086
1875-'76.....	4,669,288	2,201,410,024
1874-'75.....	3,882,991	1,786,934,765
1873-'74.....	4,170,388	1,956,742,297

For the crops of previous years, as far back

as 1830, see COTTON in "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1877.

Between September 1 and December 31, 1880, the receipts at the seaports were 3,454,099 bales, against 3,120,871 bales in the same four months of 1879; the overland shipments were 331,468 bales, against 342,192 bales in 1879; making the total quantity marketed during these months in 1880, 3,823,567; in 1879, 3,491,063 bales. The quantity taken by Northern spinners was 920,840 bales, against 921,000 bales taken during this part of 1879; the takings of Southern mills are estimated to have been 38,000, against 28,000 bales in 1879 for the four months. The visible stocks in the interior amounted to 4,117,567 bales on December 31, 1880, against 348,000 bales at the end of 1879; making the total quantity in sight at the close of the calendar year 4,117,567 bales, against 3,839,063 bales at the beginning of the year. The average weight of the bales was 485.53 pounds. The estimated extent of the new crop, according to the report of the Agricultural Bureau, is about 5,719,000 bales, and, according to the returns of the cotton exchanges, 5,300,000 bales. The indications gathered by the Bureau predict an increase of 30 per cent. in the crop of Texas; an increased product in South Carolina, Georgia, North Carolina, and Florida; and a falling off in the crops of the other States of from 7 per cent. in Arkansas to 17 per cent. in Mississippi.

The overland shipments of cotton have increased from 497,083 bales in 1873-'74 to 1,181,147 bales in 1879-'80, or 137.61 per cent., while the increase in the quantity raised has only been 38.05 per cent. The recently effected consolidation of railroad lines, and the improvements in rails, road-beds, etc., which have been introduced within a few years, have rendered rail transportation much cheaper than formerly, and promise to lessen the cost still more in the future, and cause greater quantities of cotton to be shipped by rail.

The year has been a busy one for cotton-manufacturers. The first impulse to the revival of the cotton industry in Manchester was given by the signs of returning prosperity in the United States in the last half of 1879 and the beginning of 1880. The sudden demand for English cottons soon ceased in the United States, but was replaced by the reviving markets of other countries. The considerable exportation of cotton cloths from the United States which took place in 1878-'79 was much reduced in value and quantities in 1879-'80, owing to the better prices and active request prevailing at home. In Europe, according to Ellison's statistics, the consumption of cotton during the first three months of the season, beginning October 1, 1880, was 871,000 bales of 400 lbs. in Great Britain, and 689,000 on the Continent. The quantities and value of the leading cotton manufactures exported from the United States for the years 1880, 1879, 1878, and 1874, are given in the following table:

EXPORTS.	YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.			
	1880.	1879.	1878.	1874.
Colored goods.....yards	37,758,166	45,116,058	37,765,318	4,600,447
value	\$2,956,760	\$3,209,285	\$2,959,910	\$660,262
Uncolored goods.....yards	68,821,567	84,081,319	88,928,192	13,227,510
value	\$5,834,541	\$6,288,181	\$7,053,463	\$1,686,297
Other manufactures of.....value	\$1,190,117	\$1,356,534	\$1,422,257	\$744,773
Total cotton manufactures exported....value	\$9,951,418	\$10,853,950	\$11,435,660	\$3,091,832

The price of printing-cloths commenced at $4\frac{3}{8}$ cents per yard in the beginning of September, 1879; declined to $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents at the end of the month; ruled the same the first week of October; rose by gradual stages to $4\frac{1}{4}$ cents at the end of October, and $4\frac{1}{8}$ cents at the end of November; remained at $4\frac{1}{4}$ cents during the greater part of December and January, advancing to $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents in the middle of February, and to $5\frac{1}{4}$ cents in the middle of March, which was the highest point touched during the year. After this the price steadily declined till the middle of August, standing at $5\frac{1}{8}$ cents at the beginning of April, at 5 cents at the end of that

month, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents in the middle of May, and then descending by eighths and sixteenths to 4 cents in the middle of June, which price ruled firm until the beginning of August. In the middle of August the declension was arrested at $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents, the lowest rate since the 13th of October, 1879. The price was then raised to 4 cents, and then fell off again an eighth, standing at $3\frac{7}{8}$ at the close of August, 1880. The relative prices of materials and goods are presented in the following tabulated review of the selling rates for ordinary milling cotton, and for sheetings and printing-cloths, on the first day of every month of the last three crop years:

FIRST DAY OF EACH MONTH.	1879-'80.			1878-'79.			1877-'78.		
	Low middling upland cotton.	Standard sheetings.	Printing-cloths.	Low middling upland cotton.	Standard sheetings.	Printing-cloths.	Low middling upland cotton.	Standard sheetings.	Printing-cloths.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September.....	$11\frac{1}{2}$	8	$4\frac{3}{8}$	$11\frac{1}{8}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
October.....	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
November.....	11	8	$4\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
December.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9	$4\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	11	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
January.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9	$4\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	11	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4
February.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9	$5\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
March.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
April.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
May.....	$11\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	$11\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
June.....	$11\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	11	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
July.....	$11\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$12\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
August.....	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$11\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$

At the close of the calendar year, low middling upland cotton was quoted at $11\frac{1}{2}$ cents in the New York Cotton Exchange, printing-cloths were selling for $4\frac{3}{8}$ cents, and standard sheetings for $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

The prevailing rates during the cotton year 1879-'80 were exceedingly favorable for the millers. The cost of manufacturing standard sheetings per pound is approximately, when the price of raw cotton is $12\frac{1}{4}$ cents a pound, 21 cents, counting the waste 2-2 cents, and the expense of manufacture and marketing 6-3 cents; making the cost per yard 7-37, reckoning 2-85 yards to the pound of piece goods: the approximate profit of the manufacturer at the rates which have prevailed is therefore $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound or $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard. On printing-cloths the profit is 1 cent per yard and 7 cents per pound, when the cotton costs 12 cents per pound, and the goods are sold at 4-84 cents, the average rates for the year, counting the waste in manufacture 2-12 cents per yard, and the cost of making and selling 12-76 cents. The prices in the home market being thus favorable, the export trade has languished, while the mills have been pushed to the extent of their capacity, and manufacturing facilities

augmented. Over half a million spindles have been added during the year in the Northern mills, the total number in the United States aggregating nearly 11,000,000, as determined by the census enumeration, which makes the total about 500,000 less than the computations published periodically by the New York "Commercial and Financial Chronicle." The export trade, though likely for some time to fluctuate with the home demand, and to fall off when the domestic market is higher than the export price at which the Orientals will buy, is governed to a large extent by the price of raw cotton, the price of the material being a relatively greater factor in the cost of cotton goods, of which 2-85 yards go to the pound, than in those manufactured in Manchester for the China trade, of which a pound of cotton will make six yards. In December the goods market was somewhat weakened by a decline in cotton, but began to rally at the close of the month.

The following report, made to the Census Bureau, exhibits the manufacturing facilities, the consumption of cotton, and persons employed in the manufacture of cotton goods proper in each manufacturing State, and the aggregates for the whole United States:

STATES.	Looms.	Spindles.	Bales cotton used.	Persons employed.
Alabama.....	1,060	55,072	14,887	1,600
Arkansas.....	28	2,015	720	64
Connecticut.....	18,086	981,588	107,877	15,497
Delaware.....	828	48,888	7,512	695
Florida.....		816	850	88
Georgia.....	4,718	200,974	67,874	6,678
Illinois.....	24	4,860	2,261	281
Indiana.....	776	38,896	11,558	720
Kentucky.....	73	9,022	4,215	359
Louisiana.....	120	6,096	1,354	108
Maine.....	15,978	696,655	112,861	11,819
Maryland.....	2,325	125,014	46,947	4,159
Massachusetts.....	94,758	4,465,290	578,580	62,794
Michigan.....	181	12,120	600	208
Mississippi.....	704	26,172	6,411	748
Missouri.....	341	19,812	8,399	515
New Hampshire.....	25,487	1,008,521	172,746	16,657
New Jersey.....	3,344	282,805	20,569	4,658
New York.....	12,822	578,512	70,014	10,710
North Carolina.....	1,960	102,767	27,508	3,428
Ohio.....	42	14,328	10,597	568
Pennsylvania.....	10,541	446,379	86,855	11,871
Rhode Island.....	30,274	1,649,295	161,694	22,228
South Carolina.....	1,776	92,758	33,099	2,195
Tennessee.....	1,068	46,268	11,699	1,812
Texas.....	71	2,648	246	71
Utah.....	14	432	None	29
Vermont.....	1,180	55,088	7,404	735
Virginia.....	1,824	44,386	11,461	1,112
Wisconsin.....	400	10,210	3,173	282
Total U. S.....	280,223	10,921,147	1,586,481	181,628

The above does not include the hosiery-mills, nor any of the mills known as woolen-mills where large quantities of cotton are worked up in woolen mixtures, or in imitations of woolen hosiery and underwear. The consumption of these mills can not fall far short of 200,000 bales.

New England still remains the great center of the cotton industry, manufacturing more than five sevenths of the cotton consumed in the United States. The capacity of the New England mills has increased since 1870 from 114,900 looms and 6,498,000 spindles, to 185,700 looms and 8,806,000 spindles, while the consumption of cotton has risen from 275,639,000 to 503,312,000 lbs.; of the latter amount 260,365,000 lbs. were used in Massachusetts. The most suggestive result shown by the census statistics is the growth of the cotton industry in the South. In 1870 the Southern mills had 11,000 looms and 417,000 spindles. They now have more than 15,000 looms and 714,000 spindles. This is a large increase of mill capacity, but the progress made is more forcibly shown by a comparison of the consumption of cotton. In 1870 this amounted to 45,000,000 lbs., and in 1880 it had increased to nearly 102,000,000 lbs. The population of the cotton-growing States has increased during the ten years from about 8½ to nearly 11½ millions, about 39 per cent.; that of the New England States from nearly 3½ to 4 millions, not quite 15 per cent.; that of the whole United States, 30 per cent.

CONGREGATIONALISTS. I. UNITED STATES.—The following is a summary of the statistics of the Congregational Churches of the United States, as given in the "Congregational Year Book" for 1880:

STATES, ETC.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.
Alabama.....	15	14	808
California.....	61	68	4,594
Colorado.....	13	18	410
Connecticut.....	298	887	55,852
Dakota.....	21	18	411
District of Columbia.....	1	18	599
Florida.....	1	1	74
Georgia.....	12	18	804
Illinois.....	245	251	29,115
Indiana.....	81	21	1,789
Indian Territory.....	2	1	11
Iowa.....	224	188	15,566
Kansas.....	156	104	6,758
Kentucky.....	8	4	564
Louisiana.....	17	17	1,303
Maine.....	238	190	21,807
Maryland.....	2	1	155
Massachusetts.....	528	674	91,787
Michigan.....	238	208	17,162
Minnesota.....	135	111	6,617
Mississippi.....	4	2	181
Missouri.....	68	58	8,642
Nebraska.....	111	76	8,121
Nevada.....	1	1	80
New Hampshire.....	187	196	20,547
New Jersey.....	23	29	8,379
New York.....	254	258	88,886
North Carolina.....	6	5	807
Ohio.....	216	162	22,808
Oregon.....	10	11	785
Pennsylvania.....	76	59	5,685
Rhode Island.....	25	35	5,214
South Carolina.....	2	5	224
Tennessee.....	5	8	884
Texas.....	11	8	288
Utah.....	2	2	58
Vermont.....	198	195	20,117
Virginia.....	8	4	221
Washington Territory.....	14	10	260
West Virginia.....	2	3	82
Wisconsin.....	189	169	18,311
Wyoming.....	1	2	45
Total.....	8,674	8,585	382,920

During the year the denomination has collected contributions for benevolent purposes amounting to \$1,098,691, and for home expenditures, \$2,594,228.

The receipts of the *American Home Missionary Society* for the year were \$266,720, and the expenditures were \$259,709. The Society had employed 1,015 missionaries, who had supplied 2,308 congregations and missionary stations and established 86 churches, and who returned about 6,000 additions to the Church.

The seventy-first annual meeting of the *American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions* was held at Lowell, Massachusetts, October 6th. About 1,500 delegates were present. The Rev. Mark Hopkins, D. D., presided. The total receipts for the year had been \$430,752, and the expenditures had been \$495,074. Of the receipts, \$103,657 had been contributed through the agency of the three woman's boards, and \$2,800 had come in the form of special contributions for the new mission in Bihé, Central Africa. The statistics of the mission showed that an increase had taken place in every item except in that of the number of missionaries. A hundred preaching-places had been added, eleven churches organized, 2,500 members added, and 500 additional scholars enrolled in the higher institutions of learning, and 1,000 pupils in the common schools. About \$50,000 had been contributed by members of the churches of the missions.

The following is the general summary of the statistics of the missions for the year:

Number of missions.....	17
Number of stations.....	75
Number of out-stations.....	689
Number of ordained missionaries (seven being physicians).....	156
Number of physicians not ordained.....	6
Number of other male assistants.....	8
Number of female assistants.....	246
Whole number of laborers sent from the United States.....	416
Number of native pastors.....	142
Number of native preachers and catechists.....	425
Number of native school-teachers.....	523
Number of other native helpers.....	174
	1,260
Whole number of laborers connected with the mission.....	1,685
Pages printed, as far as reported (Turkish, Japan, North China, and Zooloo missions only).....	20,606,473
Number of churches.....	272
Number of church-members as nearly as can be learned.....	17,165
Added during the year, as nearly as can be learned, with additions not previously reported.....	2,485

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

Number of training and theological schools, and station classes.....	29
Number of pupils in the above.....	1,051
Number of boarding-schools for girls.....	87
Number of pupils in boarding-schools for girls.....	1,361
Number of common schools.....	709
Number of pupils in common schools.....	25,374
Whole number of pupils.....	28,098

The thirty-fourth anniversary of the *American Missionary Association* was held at Norwich, Connecticut, October 12th. The receipts of the Association for the year had been \$187,480, and its expenditures \$188,172, of which \$12,000 were appropriated to the mission in Africa. The following is a summary of the statistics of the missionary work of the Association:

Missionaries.—Among the freedmen in the South, 84; among the Indians, 1; in Africa, 8; total, 93.

Teachers.—In the South, 180; among the Chinese, 22; among the Indians, 6; native helpers in Africa, 5; total, 213; matrons, 11; persons employed in the business department, 13; whole number of workers, 330.

Churches.—In the South, 73; among the Indians, 1; in Africa, 2; total, 76.

Church-members.—In the South, 4,961; among the Indians, 36; in Africa, 87; total, 5,084. Whole number of Sunday-school scholars, 8,073.

Schools.—In the South, 51; among the Chinese, 12; among the Indians, 5; in Africa, 3; total, 71.

Pupils.—In the South, 8,052; among the Chinese, 1,556; among the Indians, 233; in Africa, 179; total, 10,020.

The high-schools at Atlanta, Georgia, and Tongaloo, Mississippi, were aided by the States within whose territories they are situated. Sixteen young ministers from Howard University had gone South to labor among the freedmen. The experiment of educating Indian youth at the schools at Hampton, Virginia, and Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania, was pronounced a con-

firmed success. Four Indian agents were still appointed by the Association. Among the Chinese 180 had abandoned idol-worship, against 137 in the previous year; and 127 had given evidence of conversion, against 84 in the previous year. The Mendi mission in Western Africa was now manned by colored missionaries, but a white superintendent was needed. It was declared to be demonstrated that colored men could endure the climate of the country.

The fourth triennial *National Council* of the Congregational Churches of the United States met at St. Louis, Missouri, November 11th. The Rev. H. M. Dexter, D. D., was chosen moderator. A statistical report was presented showing that a net gain had accrued to the denomination, during the three years past, of 165 churches and 17,325 members. A committee appointed by the previous Council to consider and report upon ministerial responsibility and standing and the means of maintaining them, presented a report reviewing the usages of the Congregational churches on the subject, and proposing a system of measures consistent with those usages, to be submitted to the churches and adopted by them, if approved by them. As amended and agreed to by the Council, the proposed plan provides: "1. That a *pro re nata* council is the origin of ministerial standing in our fellowship, and the last resort in all cases of question. 2. That the continued certification of ministerial standing can well be left to ministerial associations or the organizations of churches. 3. That the body of churches in any locality have an inalienable right of extending ministerial fellowship or withholding it from any person within its bounds, no matter what his relations may be in church-membership or ecclesiastical affiliations, the proceedings to be commenced by any church, and due regard being had to equity in the method of proceedings." It further recommends that the name be indicated in the minutes of the State Associations of the local organization to which each associated minister may belong, and that this information be added, together with a list of the names of the scribes or registrars of the said organizations, to the lists heretofore given in the "Year-Book," and suggests a course of proceedings to be adopted in reference to ministers charged with heresy or immorality. The subject of proposing a statement of articles of belief was brought before the Council in memorials from State Associations and Conferences, in an elaborate paper reviewing the whole subject by Professor H. Mead, and in a favorable report of a committee to which the subject was referred. It was generally agreed that a creed could not be imposed on the churches by any kind of authority, but that the object of the proposed statement should be to obtain a doctrinal declaration which all the churches might judge worthy of adoption. The Council decided to appoint a committee of seven persons, who should as soon as practicable select twenty-five persons of ability and piety, representing all

the different modes of theological thought in the Congregational body, and willing to co-operate with each other in the production of an acceptable symbol of faith—a creed or catechism, or both—who should, without specific instructions and with full liberty of time, report the result of their labors to the churches, to be judged by them. A resolution was adopted approving the erection of a memorial tablet to John Robinson, pastor of the Leyden Pilgrims, in the Cathedral of St. Peter's, at Leyden, where he is buried. A report was presented by a Committee on Pastorless Churches and Churchless Pastors, which declared that the principal cause of the evil of vacancies was the smallness, weakness, and poverty of a large number of the churches, 1,272 of them not having more than fifty members each. The Council resolved to address a memorial to the President and Congress asking for the enforcement of the law against polygamy, and to endeavor to procure from the Government a modification of rulings which have led to the restriction and curtailment of missionary work among the Indians. The continued existence of the Council on its present plan was objected to in resolutions sent up by several State Congregational bodies. Answer was returned to these objections that the Council as it is was generally approved by the churches as a safe and useful bond between them, but that suggestions looking toward improvement would be welcomed. Statements were made concerning the work of the American Missionary Association among the freedmen, of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, of the Congregational Publishing Society, of the American Home Missionary Society, of the American Congregational Union, of the College and Educational Society, and of the measures that had been taken in different States for the relief of disabled ministers and their families. A delegation of twenty-five representatives was appointed to attend the Jubilee Meeting of the Congregational Union of England and Wales in 1881.

II. BRITISH DOMINIONS.—The following is a summary of the statistics of the Congregational Churches in Great Britain and the colonies, as given in the "Congregational Year-Book" for 1880:

ASSOCIATIONS AND UNIONS.—England, 36; Wales, 16; colonies, 13; total, 65.

CHURCHES.—*England*.—Churches, 2,013; branch churches, 119; preaching-stations, 1,004; evangelists' stations, 78. Of these churches eight are returned as having lay pastors, 136 are variously supplied, and 231 are vacant.

Wales.—Welsh churches, 814; branch churches, 36; preaching-stations, 17; English churches, 82; preaching-stations, 3; vacant churches, 121.

Scotland.—Churches, 106; vacant churches, 12.

Ireland.—Churches, 30; vacant churches, 5.

Islands of the British Seas.—Churches, 17; vacant churches, 2.

Canada and Newfoundland.—Churches, 121; vacant churches, 30.

Australia.—Churches, 172; preaching-stations, 115; vacant stations, 15.

New Zealand.—Churches, 19; vacant churches, 7.

Natal.—Churches, 2; preaching-stations, 10.

Congregational Union in South Africa.—Churches, 27.

Jamaica.—Churches, 14.

British Guiana.—Churches, 16; churches aided by the London Missionary Society,

India.—Churches, 14; churches aided by the London Missionary Society, 9; native churches, 17.

China.—Churches independent of the London Missionary Society, 2.

MINISTERS.—English ministers in England and Wales, 2,119; Welsh ministers, 453; Scotland, 121; Ireland, 20; Channel Islands, 5; English ministers on the Continent, 7; ministers in colonies, 333; missionaries of London Missionary Society, 137; native ordained missionaries, 357; total, 3,552, of whom 672 were without pastorates.

The number of Congregational colleges and institutes for ministerial training were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Colleges.	Professors.	Students.
England.....	10	33	361
Wales.....	3	7	108
Scotland.....	1	3	11
Colonies.....	4	13	50
Total.....	18	56	530

There are also ten institutions in heathen lands belonging to the London Missionary Society, containing about 300 native students.

The annual meeting of the *Congregational Union of England and Wales* was held May 10th. The Rev. Dr. Newth presided. The Executive Committee reported that much time and attention had been occupied with the question of raising the standard of education of ministers; that two conferences, representative of the colleges connected with the denomination, had been held in the south and north of England; that steps had been taken with a view to the formation of Boards of Education; and that it was anticipated that in a few years at most advantage would be taken of the opening of the colleges and universities to Nonconformists, so as to give to as many of the students of the Congregational body as possible the benefits of a university education. The political action of the committee had been chiefly directed against the proposed Census Bill in so far as it sought to inquire into the religious views and professions of the community. The Memorial Hall had been constructed at a cost of £75,520, of which not more than £2,500 was owing. Within it was a library of 8,000 volumes and 2,000 manuscripts and pamphlets, some of them of

rare value, which was open to the use of the denomination. The Union adopted a resolution of congratulation over the accession of the Liberal party to power, and of Mr. Gladstone to the head of the Government, in which, while approving the reserve which had been maintained by Nonconformists at the late elections in regard to their peculiar questions, it expressed the hope that the new Parliament would promptly grant the redress of the grievances of which Nonconformists had hitherto in vain complained, and that substantial progress would be made toward just and sound legislation on all questions affecting religion and the churches. The Rev. Henry Allon, D. D., was elected chairman of the Union for 1881-'82.

The autumnal session of the Union was held in Birmingham, beginning October 12th. The opening sermon was preached by the Rev. E. R. Conder. Resolutions were passed expressing gratification at the passage of the act respecting burials; expressing anxiety to secure the largest degree of union and coöperation with the members of the Established Church compatible with the manly assertion of the Union's own principles; explaining that the Union felt bound to protest against the continuance of a national establishment of religion, but that that protest was altogether independent of the Church which might enjoy the patronage of the state, and that it felt the highest regard for the Episcopal Church and its religious work. Inasmuch as the next year would be the fiftieth year since the organization of the Union, it was decided to celebrate it as a year of Jubilee, and for that purpose to invite the Congregational churches of other countries and the Evangelical Union of Scotland to send representatives to the autumnal meetings of 1881; also, to found a special fund for the strengthening of the church aid and home missionary operations of the Congregational body, and "for such denominational uses as may seem to be most urgent." A committee was appointed to prepare a scheme for such a fund and report upon it at the meeting of the Union in May, 1881. Many papers were read during the meetings of the Union on subjects relating to religious work.

The eighty-sixth annual meeting of the *London Missionary Society* was held in London, May 13th. Mr. J. K. Welch presided. The contributions to the Society during the year, for special purposes, had been £93,333, and those for general objects had been £8,829, making a total of £102,162, besides which £1,700 had been received from the sale of property in South Africa. The expenditures had been £100,174. The report described the progress of the missions in China, India, and Polynesia as encouraging, but represented that the work in South Africa had been seriously checked. The mission in Central Africa (Lake Tanganyika) was being reënforced.

E. C. Hore visited the south end of Lake Tanganyika, with a view to selecting suitable

locations for mission-stations. In the execution of his commission he passed the Lukuga, and found it to be a true outlet, carrying the overflow of the lake into the Lualaba, as was reported by Cameron, but denied by Stanley. (See GEOGRAPHICAL PROGRESS AND DISCOVERY.) Mr. Hore crossed the lake in a small vessel belonging to the Society from the mission-station at Ujiji, in May, 1879. He found the country of Ulungu, lying between the Zinga and Lofu River, inhabited by a peaceable tribe of distinct nationality, having their own peculiar customs, dress, and ornaments—not, as was supposed, by a mixed population of nomads, living in constant dread of the Watuta; these appear to have left this region. It is a most promising region for the work of evangelization and civilization, as the soil when cleared is exceedingly fertile, and native food is now abundant. The *tsetse* fly, however, is common. On the coast-line of Ulungu the villages are found clustered together in districts, with forest-clothed hills intervening. Each district seems to have a separate and independent chief. Mr. Hore recommends three of these districts as favorable sites for missionary stations—Liemba Harbor, Sombe's country, and the Lofu River. Liemba Harbor (so named by Dr. Livingstone, though *liemba* is only the Kilungu word for lake) and the mouth of the Lofu River are comparatively populous districts. The advantage of Sombe's country (Stanley's Mazombe) is that it lies at the southeast corner of the lake. There is a regular highway from the south end of Tanganyika to Unyamwebe and Ujiji, so that stations planted there would be little more remote and isolated than the present one at Ujiji. The Society has established its new station at Mtowa, on the western shore, just north of the Lukuga outlet, and has given it the name of Plymouth Rock.

The Jubilee of the Missions in the South Seas, which was begun in Samoa in 1830, it was stated in the May meeting of the Society, would be celebrated during the year. The prevalence of malaria had been found to be a serious obstacle to the organization of the mission in New Guinea.

Post Moresby and the neighboring coast-region has proved unhealthy, not only for Europeans but for natives of eastern Polynesia, who act as mission-teachers. Rev. James Chalmers has explored the interior, in order to locate a salubrious site for a station. He ascended the Goldie River and its affluent, Muni-kahila Creek, to the Elkiri district. Here in the valleys between the foot-hills and the main ridge of the Owen Stanley range is a large population, well supplied with sugar-cane and all kinds of native food, with abundant water accessible. From Mount Astrolabe he obtained a view of the finest stretch of country which he has seen in New Guinea. This tract, which is drained by the Laloki, he described as composed of well-watered and fruitful valleys, separated by green ridges.

CONGRESS, UNITED STATES. The second session of the Forty-sixth Congress commenced on December 1, 1879, and closed on June 16, 1880. In the Senate, the Vice-President, William A. Wheeler, presided; and in the House, the Speaker, Samuel J. Randall, of Pennsylvania.

The following is a list of members :

SENATE.

<i>Alabama.</i>	<i>Arkansas.</i>
1883, John T. Morgan, D.	1888, A. H. Garland, D.
1885, G. S. Houston, D.	1885, James D. Walker, D.
<i>California.</i>	<i>Colorado.</i>
1881, Newton Booth, R.	1883, H. M. Teller, R.
1885, James T. Farley, D.	1885, N. P. Hill, R.
<i>Connecticut.</i>	<i>Delaware.</i>
1881, W. W. Eaton, D.	1881, Thomas F. Bayard, D.
1885, Orville H. Platt, R.	1883, Eli Saulsbury, D.
<i>Florida.</i>	<i>Georgia.</i>
1881, C. W. Jones, D.	1883, Benjamin H. Hill, D.
1885, Wilkinson Call, D.	1885, John B. Gordon, D.
<i>Illinois.</i>	<i>Indiana.</i>
1883, David Davis, I.	1881, J. E. McDonald, D.
1885, John A. Logan, R.	1885, D. W. Voorhees, D.
<i>Iowa.</i>	<i>Kansas.</i>
1883, S. J. Kirkwood, R.	1883, P. B. Plumb, R.
1885, William B. Allison, R.	1885, John J. Ingalls, R.
<i>Kentucky.</i>	<i>Louisiana.</i>
1883, James B. Beck, D.	1883, W. P. Kellogg, R.
1885, J. S. Williams, D.	1885, B. F. Jonas, D.
<i>Maine.</i>	<i>Maryland.</i>
1881, H. Hamlin, R.	1881, William P. Whyte, D.
1883, James G. Blaine, R.	1885, James B. Groome, D.
<i>Massachusetts.</i>	<i>Michigan.</i>
1881, H. L. Dawes, R.	1881, H. P. Baldwin, R.
1883, George F. Hoar, R.	1883, Thomas W. Ferry, R.
<i>Minnesota.</i>	<i>Mississippi.</i>
1881, S. J. R. McMillan, R.	1881, B. K. Bruce, D.
1883, William Windom, R.	1883, L. Q. C. Lamar, D.
<i>Missouri.</i>	<i>Nebraska.</i>
1881, F. M. Cockrell, D.	1881, A. S. Paddock, R.
1885, George G. Vest, D.	1883, Alvin Saunders, R.
<i>Nevada.</i>	<i>New Hampshire.</i>
1881, William Sharon, R.	1883, Edward H. Rollins, R.
1885, John P. Jones, R.	1885, Henry W. Blair, R.
<i>New Jersey.</i>	<i>New York.</i>
1881, T. F. Randolph, D.	1881, Francis Kernan, D.
1883, J. R. McPherson, D.	1885, E. Conkling, R.
<i>North Carolina.</i>	<i>Ohio.</i>
1883, M. W. Ransom, D.	1881, A. G. Thurnam, D.
1885, Zeb. B. Vance, D.	1885, G. H. Pendleton, D.
<i>Oregon.</i>	<i>Pennsylvania.</i>
1883, Lafayette Grover, D.	1881, William A. Wallace, D.
1885, James H. Slater, D.	1885, J. Don Cameron, R.
<i>Rhode Island.</i>	<i>South Carolina.</i>
1881, A. E. Burnside, R.	1883, M. C. Butler, D.
1883, H. B. Anthony, R.	1885, Wade Hampton, D.
<i>Tennessee.</i>	<i>Texas.</i>
1881, James E. Bailey, D.	1881, S. B. Maxey, D.
1883, I. G. Harris, D.	1883, Richard Coke, D.
<i>Vermont.</i>	<i>Virginia.</i>
1881, G. F. Edmunds, R.	1881, R. E. Withers, D.
1885, J. S. Morrill, R.	1883, J. W. Johnston, D.
<i>West Virginia.</i>	<i>Wisconsin.</i>
1881, F. Hereford, D.	1881, Angus Cameron, R.
1883, H. G. Davis, D.	1885, M. H. Carpenter, R.

Recapitulation.

Democrats.....	42	Independent.....	1
Republicans.....	83	Democratic majority.....	8

REPRESENTATIVES.

<i>Alabama.</i>	<i>Arkansas.</i>
1, Thomas Herndon, D.	5, Thomas Williams, D.
2, Hilary A. Herbert, D.	6, Burwell B. Lewis, D.
3, W. J. Samford, D.	7, William H. Forney, D.
4, Charles M. Shelley, D.	8, William M. Lowe, N.
<i>California.</i>	<i>Colorado.</i>
1, Poindexter Dunn, D.	3, Jordan E. Cravens, D.
2, William F. Slemons, D.	4, Thomas M. Gunter, D.
<i>Connecticut.</i>	<i>Delaware.</i>
1, Horace Davis, R.	3, C. P. Berry, D.
2, Horace F. Page, R.	4, Romauldo Pacheco, R.
<i>Florida.</i>	<i>Georgia.</i>
1, James B. Belford, R.	6, James H. Blount, D.
2, Joseph E. Hawley, R.	7, William H. Felton, D.
3, James Phelps, D.	8, Alexander H. Stephens, D.
	9, Emory Speer, D.
<i>Illinois.</i>	<i>Indiana.</i>
1, John C. Nicholls, D.	11, James W. Singleton, D.
2, William E. Smith, D.	12, William M. Springer, D.
3, Philip Cook, D.	13, Adlai E. Stevenson, N.
4, Henry Persons, D.	14, Joseph G. Cannon, R.
5, N. J. Hammond, D.	15, A. P. Forsyth, N.
	16, W. A. J. Sparks, D.
	17, William R. Morrison, D.
	18, J. R. Thomas, R.
	19, R. W. Townshend, D.
<i>Iowa.</i>	<i>Kansas.</i>
1, William Aldrich, R.	8, A. J. Hostetler, D.
2, George R. Davis, R.	9, Godlove S. Orth, R.
3, Hiram Barber, Jr., R.	10, William H. Calkins, R.
4, John C. Sherwin, R.	11, Calvin Cowgill, R.
5, R. M. A. Hawk, R.	12, W. G. Colerick, D.
6, Thomas J. Henderson, R.	13, John H. Baker, R.
7, Philip C. Hayes, R.	
8, Greenbury L. Fort, R.	
9, Thomas A. Boyd, R.	
10, Benjamin F. Marsh, R.	
<i>Louisiana.</i>	<i>Maine.</i>
1, William Hellman, R.	4, George W. Ladd, D.
2, Thomas R. Cobb, D.	5, Thompson H. Murch, N.
3, George A. Bicknell, D.	
4, Jephth D. New, D.	
5, Thomas M. Browne, R.	
6, William R. Myers, D.	
7, Gilbert de la Matyr, N.	
<i>Massachusetts.</i>	<i>Maryland.</i>
1, Moses A. McCold, R.	4, Robert M. McLane, D.
2, Hiram Price, R.	5, Eli J. Henkle, D.
3, Thomas Updegraff, R.	6, Milton G. Urner, R.
4, N. C. Deering, R.	
5, William G. Thompson, R.	
<i>Michigan.</i>	<i>Mississippi.</i>
1, John A. Anderson, R.	1, Daniel M. Henry, D.
2, Dudley C. Haskell, R.	2, J. F. C. Talbot, D.
	3, William Kimmell, D.
<i>Minnesota.</i>	<i>Nebraska.</i>
1, Oscar Turner, D.	
2, James A. McKenzie, D.	
3, John W. Caldwell, D.	
4, J. Proctor Knott, D.	
5, Albert S. Willis, D.	
<i>Missouri.</i>	<i>Nevada.</i>
1, Randall L. Gibson, D.	
2, E. John Ellis, D.	
3, Joseph H. Acklen, D.	
<i>Montana.</i>	<i>New Hampshire.</i>
1, Thomas B. Reed, R.	
2, William P. Frye, R.	
3, Stephen D. Lindsey, R.	
<i>Nebraska.</i>	<i>New Jersey.</i>
1, Daniel M. Henry, D.	
2, J. F. C. Talbot, D.	
3, William Kimmell, D.	
<i>Nevada.</i>	<i>New York.</i>
<i>New Hampshire.</i>	<i>North Carolina.</i>
<i>New Jersey.</i>	<i>Ohio.</i>
<i>New York.</i>	<i>Oregon.</i>
<i>North Carolina.</i>	<i>Rhode Island.</i>
<i>Ohio.</i>	<i>Tennessee.</i>
<i>Oregon.</i>	<i>Vermont.</i>
<i>Rhode Island.</i>	<i>West Virginia.</i>
<i>Tennessee.</i>	<i>Wisconsin.</i>
<i>Vermont.</i>	<i>Wyoming.</i>
<i>West Virginia.</i>	<i>Wyoming.</i>

Massachusetts.

- 1, William W. Crapo, R.
- 2, Benjamin W. Harris, R.
- 3, Walbridge A. Field, R.
- 4, Leopold Morse, D.
- 5, S. Z. Bowman, R.
- 6, George B. Loring, R.
- 7, William A. Russell, R.
- 8, William Claflin, R.
- 9, William W. Elce, R.
- 10, Amasa Norcross, R.
- 11, George D. Robinson, R.

Michigan.

- 1, J. S. Newberry, R.
- 2, Edwin Willets, R.
- 3, J. H. McGowan, R.
- 4, J. C. Burrows, R.
- 5, John W. Stone, R.
- 6, Mark S. Brewer, R.
- 7, Omar D. Conger, R.
- 8, Roswell G. Horr, R.
- 9, Jay A. Hubbell, R.

Minnesota.

- 1, M. H. Dunnell, R.
- 2, Henry Poehler, D.
- 3, W. D. Washburn, R.

Mississippi.

- 1, H. L. Muldrow, D.
- 2, Van H. Manning, D.
- 3, H. D. Money, D.
- 4, Otho R. Singleton, D.
- 5, Charles E. Hooker, D.
- 6, J. R. Chalmers, D.

Missouri.

- 1, Martin L. Clardy, D.
- 2, Erasmus Wells, D.
- 3, R. G. Frost, D.
- 4, L. H. Davis, D.
- 5, Richard P. Bland, D.
- 6, John R. Waddill, D.
- 7, Alfred M. Lay, D.
- 8, Samuel L. Sawyer, D.
- 9, Nicholas Ford, N.
- 10, G. F. Rothwell, D.
- 11, John B. Clark, Jr., D.
- 12, William H. Hatch, D.
- 13, A. H. Buckner, D.

Nebraska.

- 1, Ed. K. Valentine, R.

Nevada.

- 1, Rollin M. Daggett, R.

New Hampshire.

- 1, Joshua G. Hall, R.
- 2, James F. Briggs, R.
- 3, Everts W. Farr, R.

New Jersey.

- 1, George M. Robeson, R.
- 2, Hezekiah B. Smith, D.
- 3, Miles Ross, D.
- 4, Alvah A. Clark, D.
- 5, C. H. Voorhis, R.
- 6, John L. Blake, R.
- 7, L. A. Brigham, R.

New York.

- 1, James W. Covert, D.
- 2, Daniel O'Reilly, D.
- 3, S. B. Chittenden, R.
- 4, A. M. Bliss, D.
- 5, Nicholas Muller, D.
- 6, S. S. Cox, D.
- 7, Edwin Einstein, R.
- 8, A. G. McCook, R.
- 9, Fernando Wood, D.
- 10, James O'Brien, D.
- 11, Levi P. Morton, R.
- 12, Waldo Hutchins, D.
- 13, J. H. Ketcham, R.
- 14, John W. Ferdon, R.
- 15, William Lounsberry, D.
- 16, John M. Bailey, R.
- 17, Walter A. Wood, R.
- 18, J. K. Hammond, R.
- 19, A. B. James, R.
- 20, John H. Starin, R.
- 21, David Wilbur, R.
- 22, Warner Miller, R.
- 23, Cyrus D. Prescott, R.
- 24, Joseph Mason, R.
- 25, Frank Hiscock, R.
- 26, John H. Camp, R.
- 27, E. G. Lapham, R.
- 28, Jere W. Dwight, R.
- 29, D. P. Richardson, R.
- 30, J. Van Voorhis, R.
- 31, Richard Crowley, R.
- 32, Ray V. Pierce, R.
- 33, H. H. Van Aernam, R.

North Carolina.

- 1, Joseph J. Martin, R.
- 2, W. H. Kitchin, D.
- 3, D. L. Russell, N.
- 4, Joseph J. Davis, D.
- 5, Alfred M. Scales, D.
- 6, Walter L. Steele, D.
- 7, R. F. Armfield, D.
- 8, Robert B. Vance, D.

Ohio.

- 1, Benjamin Butterworth, R.
- 2, Thomas L. Young, R.
- 3, J. A. McMahon, D.
- 4, J. Warren Keifer, R.
- 5, Benjamin Lefevre, D.
- 6, W. D. Hill, D.
- 7, Frank Hurd, D.
- 8, E. B. Finley, D.
- 9, George L. Converse, D.
- 10, Thomas Ewing, D.
- 11, H. L. Dickey, D.
- 12, Henry S. Neal, R.
- 13, A. J. Warner, D.
- 14, Gibson Atherton, D.
- 15, George W. Geddes, D.
- 16, Wm. McKinley, Jr., R.
- 17, James Monroe, R.
- 18, J. T. Updegraff, R.
- 19, James A. Garfield, R.
- 20, Amos Townsend, R.

Oregon.

- 1, John Whitaker, D.

Pennsylvania.

- 1, H. H. Bingham, R.
- 2, Charles O'Neill, R.
- 3, Samuel J. Randall, D.
- 4, William D. Kelley, R.
- 5, A. C. Harner, R.
- 6, William Ward, R.
- 7, William Godshalk, R.
- 8, Hiestor Clymer, D.
- 9, A. Herr Smith, R.
- 10, R. K. Bachman, D.
- 11, Robert Klotz, D.
- 12, H. B. Wright, D.
- 13, John W. Ryon, D.
- 14, John W. Killingner, R.
- 15, Edward Overton, R.
- 16, John I. Mitchell, R.
- 17, A. H. Coffroth, D.
- 18, Horatio G. Fisher, R.
- 19, F. E. Beltzhoover, D.
- 20, Seth H. Yocum, N.
- 21, Morgan R. Wise, D.
- 22, Russell Errett, R.
- 23, Thomas M. Bayne, R.
- 24, W. S. Shallenberger, R.
- 25, Harry White, R.
- 26, S. B. Dick, R.
- 27, J. H. Hosmer, R.

Rhode Island.

- 1, N. W. Aldrich, R.
- 2, Latimer W. Ballou, R.

South Carolina.

- 1, J. S. Richardson, D.
- 2, M. P. O'Connor, D.
- 3, D. Wyatt Aiken, D.
- 4, John E. Evins, D.
- 5, G. D. Tillman, D.

Tennessee.

- 1, Robert L. Taylor, D.
- 2, L. C. Houk, R.
- 3, George C. Dibrell, D.
- 4, Benton McMillan, D.
- 5, John M. Bright, D.
- 6, John F. House, D.
- 7, W. C. Whitthorne, D.
- 8, John D. C. Atkins, D.
- 9, C. B. Simonton, D.
- 10, H. Casey Young, D.

Texas.

- 1, John H. Reagan, D.
- 2, D. B. Culberson, D.
- 3, Olin Welborn, D.
- 4, Roger Q. Mills, D.
- 5, George W. Jones, N.
- 6, Columbus Upson, D.

Virginia.

- 1, E. L. T. Beale, D.
- 2, John Goode, Jr., D.
- 3, Joseph E. Johnston, D.
- 4, Joseph Jorgenson, R.
- 5, George C. Cabell, D.
- 6, J. R. Tucker, D.
- 7, John T. Harris, D.
- 8, Eppa Hunton, D.
- 9, J. B. Richmond, D.

Vermont.

- 1, Charles H. Joyce, R.
- 2, James M. Tyler, R.
- 3, Bradley Barlow, R.

West Virginia.

- 1, Benjamin Wilson, D.
- 2, Benjamin F. Martin, D.
- 3, John E. Kenna, D.

Wisconsin.

- 1, Charles G. Williams, R.
- 2, Lucien B. Caswell, R.
- 3, George C. Hazleton, R.
- 4, P. V. Denuster, D.
- 5, Edward S. Bragg, D.
- 6, Gabriel Bouck, D.
- 7, H. L. Humphrey, R.
- 8, Thaddeus C. Pound, R.

Recapitulation.

Democrats.....	150	Nationals.....	11
Republicans.....	132	Democratic maj. over all..	7

Territorial Delegates.

- Arizona*—H. S. Stevens. *New Mexico*—T. Romero.
Dakota—J. P. Kidder. *Utah*—G. Q. Cannon.
Idaho—S. S. Fenn. *Washington*—O. Jacobs.
Montana—M. Maginnis. *Wyoming*—W. W. Corlett.

In the House, on February 4, 1880, a bill to amend the act to determine the jurisdiction of circuit courts of the United States and regulating the removal of causes from State courts was considered.

Mr. Culberson, of Texas, said: "Mr. Speaker, I present this bill under instructions of the Committee on the Judiciary, and in doing so I desire to state that while in my opinion it does not present a full and adequate relief for the evils which have followed the legislation of Congress extending the jurisdiction of the circuit courts of the United States, it will, if it shall become a law, afford some relief, and as much, perhaps, as we may reasonably hope to

secure under the circumstances which attend legislation in Congress at this time.

"I propose as briefly as possible to call the attention of the House to the changes in existing law proposed by the bill under consideration.

"The first amendment proposes to change the minimum jurisdiction of the circuit courts of the United States from \$500 to \$2,000, exclusive of costs and interest.

"It will be remembered that the present minimum jurisdiction of the circuit courts was fixed at \$500 by the act of 1789. It is believed, in view of the unprecedented growth of business and the great increase of population since 1789, that \$2,000, exclusive of interest and costs, would not be too large. The present minimum was fixed when the population of the country did not exceed four millions, and when the business of the country as compared with present circumstances was undeveloped.

"In almost all the States of the Union the circuit courts are crowded and overloaded with business. It is almost impossible in many of the States to accomplish an end to litigation in those courts. This condition of affairs is attributable mainly to the small amount at which the minimum jurisdiction is fixed, the enlarged subject-matter of jurisdiction, and the facility and ease by which causes may be removed from State to Federal courts.

"The Supreme Court, with jurisdiction of appeals, with a minimum limit of \$5,000, and a revisory jurisdiction of other causes, without regard to the sum or amount in controversy, is unable to dispose of the business which has accumulated upon its docket.

"I now call the attention of the House to the changes proposed in the law regulating the removal of causes from a State to a Federal court. The committee propose to strike out that part of section 2 of the act of 1875 which reads as follows:

"SECTION 2. That any suit of a civil nature, at law or in equity, now pending or hereafter brought in any State court, when the matter in dispute, exclusive of costs, exceeds the sum or value of \$500, and arising under the Constitution or laws of the United States, or treaties made or which shall be made under their authority, or in which the United States shall be plaintiff or petitioner, or when there shall be a controversy between citizens of different States, or a controversy between citizens of the same State, claiming lands under different States, or a controversy between citizens of a State and foreign states, citizens or subjects, either party may remove said suit into the circuit court of the United States for the proper district.

"And in lieu of it to insert into section 2 the following, as shown by the bill which is now under consideration:

"SEC. 2. That any suit of a civil nature, either at law or in equity, of which the circuit courts of the United States are given original jurisdiction by the last preceding section, but which may be now pending, or which may hereafter be brought in any State court, may be removed by the defendant or defendants therein to the circuit court of the United States for the proper district.

"It will be observed, Mr. Speaker, that the

mischief intended to be remedied by the committee arises from the authority granted by the act of 1875 to either the plaintiff or defendant to remove the cause. It was the opinion of the committee, and I believe unanimous in that regard, that a plaintiff, who, having the right to sue in the Federal court, shall have elected to bring his suit in a State court, ought to be held to his election.

"In this connection I desire to call attention to the amendment offered by me at the outset. My amendment proposes as follows:

"Strike out all from the word 'follows' in line 47, down to the word 'and' in line 54, and insert:

"SEC. 2. That any suit of a civil nature, at law or in equity, arising under the Constitution or laws of the United States, or treaties made or which shall be made under their authority of which the circuit courts of the United States are given original jurisdiction by the preceding section, which may now be pending or which may hereafter be brought in any State court, may be removed by the defendant or defendants therein to the circuit court of the United States for the proper district whenever it is made to appear from the application of such defendant or defendants that his or their defense depends in whole or in part upon a correct construction of some provision of the Constitution or law of the United States or treaty made by their authority. And any other suit of a civil nature, at law or in equity, of which the circuit courts of the United States are given jurisdiction by the preceding section, and which are now pending or which may hereafter be brought in any State court, may be removed into the circuit court of the United States for the proper district by the defendant or defendants therein: *Provided*, Such defendant or defendants are non-residents of the State in which the suit is pending.

"I think that this amendment ought to be adopted, and so much of the bill of the committee as is referred to in the amendment should be stricken out.

"I submit that if the bill of the committee should become the law, any defendant will be authorized to remove a cause whether he is a resident or not of the State in which the suit is brought. I do not believe that the committee contemplated the scope to which that provision in its bill extends.

"By reference to the provisions under discussion, it will appear that any suit, of which the circuit court is given original jurisdiction by the bill, which may be pending or hereafter brought in a State court, may be removed to a Federal court 'by the defendant or defendants.' Suppose a citizen of Illinois sues a citizen of Texas in a State court in Texas, under the provision reported from the committee, such a defendant is authorized to remove the cause. Now, the amendment which I propose obviates such results.

"The next change proposed in the law is a very important one.

"The committee propose to add to section 3 of the act of 1875 the following:

"That the circuit courts of the United States shall not take original cognizance of any suit of a civil nature, whether at common law or in equity, between a corporation created or organized by or under the laws of any State and a citizen of any State in which such corporation, at the time the cause of action ac-

crued may have been carrying on any business authorized by the law creating it, except in like cases in which said courts are authorized by this act to take original cognizance of suits between citizens of the same State. Nor shall any such suit between such a corporation and a citizen or citizens of a State in which it may be doing business be removed to any circuit court of the United States except in like cases in which such removal is authorized by the foregoing provisions in suits between citizens of the same State.

"Mr. Speaker, I desire the Clerk to read the following extract from a late speech made by the Senator from Delaware [Mr. Bayard]."

The Clerk read as follows:

I do not shut my eyes, Mr. President, to the fact that the equal and wholesome distribution of property which it was hoped by the founders of our Government would be attained by the abolition of the rules of primogeniture, of entailments, of perpetuities, and the division of intestate estates among daughters and sons alike, has been greatly defeated. And I am inclined to believe the *system of incorporation* which we have introduced into all branches of industrial pursuits will be found nearly equal to the effects of primogeniture and mortmain combined in its influence upon the aggregation of wealth into a single and never-dying grasp.

Mr. Culberson: "The effect of the amendment is simply to place such corporations upon the same plane with citizens of a State in which they carry on their business. I, for one, believe that the time has arrived when Congress should intervene in every constitutional method to protect the people against 'the never-dying grasp' of associated capital, and to place a check upon the greed, rapacity, and oppression by which corporations dominate the entire business of the country."

Mr. Wellborn, of Texas: "Mr. Speaker, it is claimed that in every suit against a Federal corporation it necessarily has a defense arising under, because chartered by, a law of the United States, and therefore that all suits against these corporations are removable under section 640. Nor is the claim unsupported by authority. As has already been indicated by my colleague, the Supreme Court of the United States as far back as 1824, through Chief-Justice Marshall, enunciated and applied the general principle that a Federal corporation could in no instance have a case for judicial cognizance which did not arise literally as well as substantially under the law of its creation. Fifty years later, in the eighth circuit, Judge Miller, construing this very law of 1868, sustained the right of removal upon this same general principle. Other eminent jurists, without undertaking to determine the question, pronounce it to be a close one. What authoritative construction the Supreme Court will ultimately place upon the law is of course a mere matter of conjecture.

"So we are confronted with this state of things: a Federal corporation probably—not to use a stronger word—probably can remove at its option from a State court into a Federal court for trial any suit commenced against it in the former, no matter what may be the character of the litigation, no matter what may be

the issues which it really presents for adjudication, and no matter whether or not any of those issues involve the construction of the Constitution or any law or treaty of the United States. This unrestricted right of removal, so convenient and valuable to these corporations, so onerous, so hurtful to the general public with whom they deal, constitutes one of the most striking anomalies, most flagrant solecisms in our whole judicial system, and was, as reference to the debates in the Senate of the Fortieth Congress will show, conceived in the interest of those corporations which under different titles of Pacific Railroads have constructed and are now operating our lines of transcontinental railway.

"Now, Mr. Speaker, when we consider the great length of these lines of road, the immense extent of territory they traverse, the innumerable thousands of people with whom they come in contact and have business relations, the widespread wrong and injustice of this law must become obvious to the commonest understanding. All causes of complaint, all grounds of defense, whether they in point of fact involve or not a construction of a law of the United States, can probably be removed into the Federal courts."

Mr. Willits, of Michigan: "When the morning hour closed yesterday I was commenting on the amendment which strikes out the right to bring suits in the United States courts on assigned promissory notes, thereby restoring the law as it was prior to the act of March 3, 1875. I need not make any extended remarks on the evils that have arisen under the law as it now is. Suffice it to say that under it great injustice has been done in what are called patent-right cases, or notes given for patent rights, in nominally assigning in innumerable instances causes of action to citizens of other States than the one in which the contract was made or in which the defendant resides, for the express purpose of their prosecution in the Federal courts. In all these cases the cause is on the removal more than half won by the plaintiff, and in many instances the cause is wholly won by reason of the different constructions of the law given by the State and Federal courts. In my judgment the assigned contract should have the same tribunal that the unassigned contract would have. Section 2 of the bill confers upon defendants the power of removal in all cases of which the United States Circuit Court has original jurisdiction by section 1. The law of 1789 gave this right of removal to defendants only. The law of 1875 gave it to either party, plaintiff or defendant. This bill takes away the right of a plaintiff to remove his cause. He has selected his forum, and let him abide by it.

"The only changes in section 3 of the act of March 3, 1875, preceding line 126 of this bill, are in reference to the time when the defendant may remove his cause and the amount, to wit, \$2,000, requisite for the removal. Under

the law as it now stands, the party seeking to remove his cause may do so before or at the time at which said cause would be tried and before the trial thereof. This bill proposes to amend the law so that the defendant only may remove his cause, and he may remove it at any time before the defendant is required, by the law of the State and the rule of the State court in which said suit is brought, to answer or plead to the declaration or complaint. In other words, the time has been changed from any time before the trial to the time when under the State laws the defendant is required to plead to the declaration.

"The chief amendment, however, to section 3 is from line 126 to line 140 of the bill. That amendment proposes to take away original jurisdiction or removal of causes between a corporation organized or created by or under the laws of any State and a citizen of a State in which said corporation is doing business, except in cases where the subject matter authorizes such jurisdiction or removal in suits between citizens of the same State, to wit, when it is a matter of a treaty or a land grant from different States.

"Mr. Speaker, this amendment is a radical change of existing law. Under the decision of the Supreme Court, a corporation is held to be a citizen of the State in which it is organized or created. The result is that in every State in which it does business, aside from the one in which it is created, the present law authorizes the removal of any case, involving the requisite amount, in which it is a party, from the State to the Federal courts. This amendment cuts off that right, and remits the corporation to the State court alone. The evils arising from the existing practice have for a long time been manifest and the subject of great complaint. There seems to be no valid reason why a corporation that competes with local corporations, that goes into every hamlet and almost every household in the land, should not be the subject of State control in that business, and should have the right to remove its causes to a distant court for reasons that differ in no essential degree from the reasons that obtain in other cases. Insurance companies are persistent in seeking risks and money from our citizens; yet in case of loss are hasty in taking their causes to the United States courts, perhaps hundreds of miles away, the expense of which is a practical denial of justice, and the threat of which is used as a basis of an unjust compromise. The proposed amendment cuts this evil up by the roots and remands the parties to the community in which the liability was incurred and in which it was known it would be incurred when the contract was made.

"It will be observed that one notable feature in the proposed amendment is the curtailing of the use of the United States courts by corporations. It is astonishing to see the amount of time and labor devoted by these

courts to the interests of corporations, to the exclusion of the interests of individual citizens.

"Again, a citizen in his individual contests with corporations is turned over to the tender mercies of a litigation which it is ruin for him to incur, but which these corporations with their accumulated capital can sustain. The United States courts have grown to be largely corporation mills, in which the tolls are largely taken from the individual citizen, and generally amount to his whole interest in the grist. So that it has become the fact that the only party or entity which in the United States represents the old feudal system of property tenure, so unanimously opposed by our fathers, transmitted from generation to generation in increasing value and influence, has sought refuge behind the judicial system of a government that boasts it has no primogeniture, and that large estates are divided up by the natural order of things in one or two generations. As a rule this system of transmitting tenure is strong enough if remanded to the State courts; and the expense of individual litigation will be sufficiently onerous in any event. It seems to me a healthy thing to call a halt in the tendency of accumulating legislation, especially of this kind, in the United States courts."

Mr. Weaver, of Iowa: "Since the passage of the act of 1789, corporations of every description have sprung up throughout the entire country. Their name is legion. The tendency of the wealth of the country is toward associated capital. Colossal insurance companies, gigantic railroad enterprises, and other and multifarious corporate organizations exist in every locality and permeate every avenue of business life.

"Take for illustration a railroad corporation. It is organized, perhaps, under the law of Massachusetts. It stretches its iron arms westward until it reaches the Missouri River, passing through the great States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and perhaps others. It enters these States, and by the right of eminent domain condemns the property of the citizen, proceeds to build and lay the foundation of a colossal fortune. It builds its roads and occupies the territory, and proposes to occupy for all future time.

"Now, in contemplation of law this corporation should be held to be a citizen of the State or States, respectively, where it is carrying on or operating its business. They come into a State for the purpose of making money, carrying on transactions with citizens of the State, and why should they not be compelled to go into the State courts, there to adjudicate matters arising between themselves and citizens of the State? They are citizens of the State for all other practical purposes; but, when a controversy arises under the law as it now stands, the corporation has only to go into the State court and there set forth the fact that it is a foreign corporation, organized under the law of Massachusetts or of some other

State, and the cause is removed to the Federal court.

"One of the essential elements in the administration of justice in all free countries, Mr. Speaker, is that at all times the citizen shall have the right to be tried, not only for criminal offenses but in respect to his civil rights, by a jury of the vicinage, where he resides, near his home. The construction which has been given to the judiciary act of 1789, however, and the subsequent amendatory acts, has absolutely had the effect to abrogate that sacred right of the citizen, and has placed in the hands of these corporations, and others, powers and privileges never contemplated by the framers of our Government. At the organization of our Government, our fathers had the political chart of the world before them. They undertook to lay broad and deep the foundations of a republic where the power should reside substantially with the great body of the people.

"To accomplish that they threw around the cradle of the young republic certain safeguards. One of these safeguards was that there should be no titles of nobility in this country; another that the right of primogeniture should not obtain here, that there should be no entailed estates, so that the wealth of the country should diffuse itself among the people according to natural and beneficent laws. They did not contemplate the creation of these corporations that are as real entities as are individuals—ideal persons that never die, and yet possess the power to acquire and hold property equally with real persons. They did not, I say, contemplate the rise and progress of these legal Goliaths. Had they foreseen their coming, they doubtless would have made ample provision for their restraint.

"Sir, their influence in this country to-day is tremendous. They are Briarean monsters, and exceed in ferocity and power any or all of the beasts that John saw in his apocalyptic vision. The republic itself will have to struggle with them, and no man can now foresee the result of that struggle. The existence of such corporations seems to be necessary to the progress of our civilization; they are inseparable from it; but they should not be clothed by legislation with exclusive privileges over the citizen. The people must put hooks into the jaws of these leviathans, and control them.

"The accumulation of capital in the hands of these corporations of itself gives them immense power and tremendous advantage over individuals. But if you, in addition to that, load them with exclusive privileges by law—the privilege of shirking and shunning the ordinary tribunals in which the common people have to litigate their rights—and if you allow them the power and the privilege of dragging the citizen to remote tribunals, then, indeed, you more than double or treble their power. The corporation should seek no exclusive privileges, and the citizen should be just to the corporation. Then all will be harmony."

Mr. New, of Indiana: "The first change proposed to be made by this bill in the act of 1875 is to require the sum or value of the matter in dispute to exceed, exclusive of interest and costs, the sum of \$2,000 instead of \$500 exclusive of costs. I believe this increase of the sum or value in dispute to be one of the best provisions in the bill. No good reason in my judgment can be urged against it. The increase from five hundred to two thousand dollars should be made for the same reason that caused the same Congress that passed the act of 1875 to pass another act at the same session, which provided that an appeal should not be had from the circuit to the Supreme Court, unless the amount involved exceeded \$5,000. The minimum amount before that was \$2,000.

"The change from five hundred to two thousand dollars is not out of proportion to the growth of our population and wealth since 1789. Within the last two decades the history of the jurisdiction of the Federal courts has been one of constant and rapid growth; so much so, that you hear from judges of all those courts the opinion expressed that the districts, circuits, and judicial force must be multiplied, and an intermediate appellate court created, unless something can be done to check the surging tide of litigation with which these courts are being overflowed.

"Although our population has increased more perhaps than fifteen-fold since 1789, our wealth still more, and litigation in even greater proportion, yet the three circuits of 1789 have been added to by only six. It is true that the districts and district courts have been increased in a larger proportion. But those courts have had all they could do, the district judges doing largely circuit court duty in addition to holding their own courts. This has come from the overloaded condition of the circuit court dockets, and also from the strong desire on the part of the people and Congress not to enlarge the Federal judicial force beyond the strictest necessity.

"It has also come from the fact that the large litigations of the country have been in the circuit courts of the United States, and the judges of those courts have had their time mostly occupied in the trial of those causes. I know that the number of cases on the circuit court dockets have been reduced by the repeal of the bankrupt law. But the actual work of the judges has not been lightened in anything like the same ratio, for, as we all know, most of the bankrupt work was done by the registers in bankruptcy.

"This bill further provides as follows:

"That the circuit courts of the United States shall not take original cognizance of any suit of a civil nature, either at common law or in equity, between a corporation created or organized by or under the laws of any State and a citizen of any State in which such corporation, at the time the cause of action accrued, may have been carrying on any business authorized by the law creating it, except in like cases in which said courts are authorized by this act to take original

cognizance of suits between citizens of the same State. Nor shall any such suit between such a corporation and a citizen or citizens of a State in which it may be doing business be removed to any circuit court of the United States, except in like cases in which such removal is authorized by the foregoing provision in suits between citizens of the same State.

"That is to say, in a case such as is here named the corporation would, for the purposes of that suit, be deemed to be a citizen of the State in which it had been carrying on business, and of which the defendant was a citizen. I can not doubt but this provision will commend itself to all. Gentlemen will see that this is of the utmost importance to fair dealing and an impartial administration of justice. It will have the effect to make all kinds of corporations careful to contract fairly and squarely with the people. I say it will tend to the impartial administration of justice also, because the corporation, having found it to be the best policy to take no unconscionable advantage of the citizen in the beginning, will not regard it necessary to have unfair advantage upon the trial in order that it may secure a just finding or verdict, and the people thereafter having been dealt with honorably in the main by corporations, and having equal advantages in the forum of trial, will rapidly divest themselves of the bias and prejudice now so strong against corporations.

"Mr. Speaker, I do not believe there can be any serious doubt as to the constitutionality of that part of the bill which I have just quoted. I know, sir, that the Supreme Court has held that a corporation was a citizen of the State that created it, and therefore within the clause of the Constitution which extends the judicial power of the Federal courts to controversies between citizens of different States. But it does not follow by any means that Congress may not constitutionally require a corporation organized under the laws of any State to sue in the State courts, under the circumstances named in that part of the bill which I have just read. With as much and more plausibility, reason, and force might it be said that that part of section 11 of the act of 1789 is unconstitutional, which provided that no district or circuit court of the United States should have cognizance of any suit to recover the contents of any promissory note or other chose in action in favor of an assignee, unless suit might have been prosecuted in such court to recover thereon if no assignment had been made."

Mr. Phillips, of Missouri: "In the very limited time allotted to me, I shall not attempt to speak of the general provisions of this bill; and I should not have obtruded any remarks upon the House at so early a period after my entry into it but for the experience I have had under the administration of this law of 1875. Its general purpose has my unqualified sympathy, for it strikes at an evil in the administration of justice which no man not fresh from the practice of the law can fully appreciate. Step by step has the jurisdiction of the Federal courts

been extended by positive statutory enactment and the construction of the judge on the bench, until these courts have in a large measure taken to themselves the control and trial of cases which in the opinion of the statesmen and jurists of the best epoch of the republic belonged exclusively to the domestic courts of the States. 'This ravenous expropriation of the State' has been accomplished by an insidious process, silent in its operations, stealthy in its approach, and most dangerous in its tendency; for a more cunning and surreptitious method of taking from the citizen his self-government could scarcely be devised. A more effectual instrumentality of despoiling the weak and the timid, and oppressing the poor man, could scarcely suggest itself to the most selfish of governments. The practitioner who a few years ago brought and tried his causes in his home courts, with whose methods of procedure he and his clients were familiar, where he tried his causes before a jury of the vicinage, where the common law and the Bill of Rights gave him a right to be heard, to-day, in the pursuit of his causes, is dragged hundreds of miles from his home to try his cases before a jury who are strangers to him, where the litigant does not get the benefit of his good character, and, while often before judges who are most accomplished jurists and who administer the laws with impartiality, he too frequently finds himself before judges on the bench who, something like the heathen, are a law unto themselves.

"Such was the holding of the Supreme Court in its early history; and the majority of the present Supreme Court are struggling to bring back the law to its original foundation. I beg for one moment to call the attention of the House to two or three decisions of the Supreme Court, for the purpose of showing that the amendment offered by the gentleman from Texas [Mr. Culberson] is no innovation upon the Constitution, and in no manner interferes with the rightful jurisdiction of the United States circuit courts, but is in accord with the earlier and the later decisions of the Supreme Court. In the case of *Cohens against Virginia*, 6 Wheaton, decided by Chief-Justice Marshall, the following language is used:

"A case may truly be said to arise under the Constitution or a law of the United States whenever its correct decision depends upon the construction of either. The title or right set up by a party may be defeated by one construction of the Constitution or law of the United States, or sustained by an opposite construction. In either of these cases the jurisdiction of the Federal court may rightfully attach.

"In *G. W. & W. Co. vs. Keyes*, 6 Otto, a majority of the present Supreme Court say:

"A cause can not be removed from a State court simply because in the progress of the litigation it may become necessary to give a construction to the Constitution or a law of the United States. The decision of the case must depend upon that construction; the suit must, in part, at least, arise out of a controversy between the parties in regard to the operation and effect of the Constitution or the law upon the facts involved.

"So in a late case in 9th Otto, of Hartell vs. Tighlman. That was merely a case arising upon a common-law contract between the patentee and a third party. It was claimed that, because the patent had issued under the patent laws of the United States, therefore the Federal court had jurisdiction to try the matter of contract between the parties, which in no manner involved the validity of the patent. Strange to say, a very respectable and large minority of the Supreme Court delivered a minority opinion in that case, holding that the United States Circuit Court should take jurisdiction over the case simply because the patent originally emanated from the Government.

"Now, it may be said that there is no necessity for the amendment of the gentleman from Texas [Mr. Culberson], in view of these decisions of the Supreme Court. The answer to that is this: the *nisi* judge upon the bench, after all, is human. As such he loves power, and he loves that dignity which as he thinks adheres to enlarged jurisdiction; and where that jurisdiction, under a proper interpretation, is wanting, he too often secures it by the liberality of construction.

"It may be said that the injured party has the right of appeal. He has not this right in some cases, on account of the amount involved, but, even if he had, Mr. Speaker, the moneyless, timid litigant ought not to be driven to the necessity of incurring the extraordinary and ruinous expense and delay of prosecuting his case to the Supreme Court of the land. It would amount practically to a denial of justice. This Congress, as the law-making power of the land, should send out its law with its own interpretation, with its just limitation and cure incorporated in the act itself, so that it may be a shield of protection to the citizen instead of a mere instrument for oppressing, and a snare for despoiling, harassing, and annoying him.

"The bill and amendment under consideration hits the blot, and I trust we have the wisdom and courage to enact it into a law.

"The only criticism to which, in my humble opinion, the amendment of the gentleman from Texas is justly subject, is, that it does not go far enough in its safeguards. It provides that the defendant may have the right of removal by simply stating in his application and making affidavit to the fact that his cause of action arises under the Constitution or law of the United States, and in whole or part involves its proper construction. Now, suppose, as the history of litigation under the act of 1875 shows has frequently been the case, and as will be the case in the future, the applicant falsely makes this statement for the purpose of obtaining delay and getting his cause transferred to the Federal court. The remedy should go one step further and provide that if, upon the trial of the cause in the court to which it is removed, it should be disclosed that in truth the defense or the right of recovery does

not in fact depend upon the proper construction of the Constitution or law of the United States, the United States Circuit Court should *eo instanti* discontinue the trial of the cause and remand it to the State court, at the cost, of course, of the party who has improperly had it transferred.

"The gentleman in charge of the bill has already explained fully the changes which its adoption will make in the law. I shall, therefore, not go into a detailed comment on the provisions of the bill, but direct my remarks to the evils of the present law—the *encroachments of the United States courts* upon the judiciary of the States.

"There are but few questions of more importance than the one we now have under consideration. It pertains to a speedy and impartial trial by a judicial tribunal near parties concerned. It involves the respective rights and powers of the General Government and of the States, and hence the dearest interests of the citizen.

"From the organization of our Government it has been thought that two dangers threatened it. They might appropriately be compared to the centrifugal and centripetal forces in philosophy. One was the tendency of the States to separate and set up for themselves or form new alliances; the other, the tendency on the part of the General Government to usurp or absorb the authority of the States, thereby virtually obliterating their lines and converting the government from one of limited to one of unlimited powers. Scylla on the one hand and Charybdis on the other never gave more just cause of alarm to the mariner than these have given the sages and patriots who founded and maintained our institutions. But one of these dangers is past. The question of dissolving the Union of the States has been submitted to that tribunal from the decisions of which no appeal can be taken—to the arbitrament of war; but has the other peril—that of the destruction of our form of government by consolidation—ceased to exist? Unfortunately, it has not. No million of men have marched forth to impede its progress and crush it. 'No braying horn and screaming fife' have given notice that the march of the Federal Government against the reserved rights of the States was to be stopped; and no booming salute has announced to us that it is ended. On the contrary, the Government of the United States has gradually assumed authority which of right belongs to the States, until they are left the mere skeletons of what they were under the Constitution, and of what it was intended by those who framed that instrument they should be.

"Of all the means employed by those who have either designedly or inadvertently participated in this attempted and partially successful wreck of the States and of their reserved rights, the most efficient have been the Federal judiciary and Congressional legislation

increasing its power and jurisdiction. And in saying this I mean no reflection upon the *integrity* of the individuals who compose the judicial department of our Government. I am glad to bear testimony to the fact that in many instances our Supreme Court has stood as a bulwark against passionate and inconsiderate legislation. The trouble arises in a great measure from Congressional interference and from too great an increase of the jurisdiction of the inferior United States courts.

"That the tendency of Federal legislation for the last fifteen years has been toward the concentration of too much power in the Federal judiciary and to an unwarranted interference with the judicial authority of the States, no candid man acquainted with the history of the country will deny. I am glad to see that Representatives on both sides of this Chamber realize this fact. I was pleased to hear the gentleman from Maine [Mr. Frye], when speaking on this subject, say:

"I agree with the gentleman entirely in the view that in the past we have gone too far in extending the jurisdiction of the Federal courts and allowing the transfer of causes from the State courts. I think that the time has now come when we can and ought to correct this matter.

"To remedy this evil the bill before us was introduced and has been recommended by the committee. It is not and can not be made a sectional question. It is equally important to Maine and California, to Michigan and Louisiana.

"Before coming directly to the sections to be repealed, let us examine what has been said by some of the founders of our Government, and see whether or not they thought there was danger in our situation. Among the signers of the Declaration of Independence was the man who wrote that great charter of liberty; who conceived our form of government and was chief of those who kept it up during the struggle for independence; who presided over the young republic for eight years as Chief Magistrate; and who was spared to witness the operation of our system for half a century. Firm and honest in his convictions, he was not moved by passion nor terrified by peril. He saw the dangers ahead, and, like the faithful sentinel on the watch-tower, warned his people against them. My limited time will not permit me to produce all he has said on the subject, but I quote a few of his utterances.

"Mr. Jefferson wrote to Judge Roan, March 9, 1821:

"The great object of my fear is the Federal judiciary. That body, like gravity, ever acting, with noiseless foot and unalarming advance, gaining ground step by step, and holding what it gains, is ingulfing insidiously the special governments into the jaws of that which feeds them. The recent recall to first principles, however, by Colonel Taylor, by yourself, and now by Alexander Smith, will, I hope, be heard and obeyed, and that a temporary check will be effected. Yet be not weary of well-doing. Let the eye of vigilance never be closed.—*Jefferson's Works*, volume vii, page 212.

"On November 21, 1821, he wrote Nathaniel Macon:

"Our Government is now taking so steady a course as to show by what road it will pass to destruction, to wit, by consolidation first, and then corruption, its necessary consequence. The engine of consolidation will be the Federal judiciary; the two other branches the corrupting and corrupted instruments.

"He wrote to Mr. Nicholas on the 11th of December, 1821, as follows:

"I fear, dear sir, we are now in such another crisis, with this difference only, that the judiciary branch is alone and single-handed in the present assaults on the Constitution. But its assaults are more sure and deadly as from an agent seemingly passive and unassuming. May you and your contemporaries meet them with the same determination and effect as your father and his did the alien and sedition laws, and preserve inviolate a Constitution which, cherished in all its chastity and purity, will prove in the end a blessing to all nations of the earth.

"Still later, on the 25th of March, 1825, after (to use Mr. Jefferson's own language) 'chilling winters had rolled over *his* head and whitened every hair on it,' he wrote to Mr. Edward Livingston:

"One single object, if your provision attains it, will entitle you to the endless gratitude of society—that of restraining judges from usurping legislation. And with no body of men is this restraint more wanting than with the judges of what is commonly called our General Government. . . . They are practicing on the Constitution by inferences, analogies, and sophisms as they would on an ordinary law.

"They do not seem aware that it is not even a constitution formed by a single authority and subject to a single superintendence and control, but that it is a compact of many independent powers, every single one of which claims an equal right to understand it and to require its observance. . . . This member of the Government was at first considered as the most harmless and helpless of all its organs. But it has proved that the power of declaring what the law is *ad libitum*, by sapping and mining slyly and without alarm the foundations of the Constitution, can do what open force would not dare to attempt.

"These are a few of the prophecies of the immortal Sage of Monticello touching the danger to our institutions from the Federal judiciary. They are the predictions of one whose 'Declaration' has controlled the destiny of a hemisphere, turning the tide of the world from the darkness of despotism to the delights of freedom, and whose

'fame on brightest pages,
Penned by poets and by sages,
Shall go sounding down the ages'

as long as man loves to be free.

"We would do well to pause and ponder his admonitions, and not pass by in silence and unheeded the warnings of the greatest political philosopher and prophet of all countries and all times.

"Mr. Speaker, I have said that unwarranted encroachments have been made upon the State courts by Federal tribunals. We have only to look at the United States statutes and the judicial construction of them for painful proof of this fact. Let us first examine the law as to civil cases. By the judiciary act of 1789, Re-

vised Statutes, section 639, subsection 1, it is provided that—

“When the suit is against an alien, or is by a citizen of the State wherein it is brought, and against a citizen of another State, it may be removed on the petition of such defendant filed in such State court at the time of entering his appearance in such State court.

“It will be observed that before the cause could be removed under this act the party removing must be a *defendant*, must also be an *alien* or a *non-resident* of the State in which the cause is pending, and must make his application for removal *at the time of entering his appearance*. These requirements tended to restrict the jurisdiction of the Federal courts. But in 1866 Congress lifted the floodgates, and since that a tide of litigation sufficient to arouse the gravest apprehension has flowed continuously into the United States courts. By the act of 1866 aliens and citizens of other States than that in which the suit was brought are authorized to divide the suit under certain circumstances, removing a portion to the United States courts, and leaving it as to part of the defendants in the State courts, a thing unheard of in former times, and an innovation which should never have been tolerated.

“The next step taken to degrade the State courts was the act of 1869, which authorized *either the plaintiff or the defendant* to remove the cause, and *at any time* before final hearing. In other words, a party might select his court, and commence his suit therein, and after experimenting he might turn his back upon the forum of his choice, and upon his own petition have the cause removed to the United States courts, and there still further harass his victim, till, from exhaustion or want of means to defend his rights, he yielded the matter in controversy. What justice is there in allowing the party bringing a suit to abandon and fly from the forum of his choice? What justice in permitting him to vex his victim by requiring him to dance attendance on every court known to our complex system?

“The Federal court takes jurisdiction of the navigable rivers. What more? The Federal judiciary have not only had their jurisdiction extended over the lands of the United States, but over the waters also. In the earlier history of our Government the Federal court assumed jurisdiction over the waters only so far as tide-water extended. But in this, as in everything else, the jurisdiction of these courts has been enlarged till it extends now over all of our navigable rivers. It is true that thus far the courts have only *exercised* jurisdiction of civil causes on the watercourses; but how long will it be, at their present rate, till they take jurisdiction of crimes committed there?

“The Civil Rights Bill was passed and jurisdiction given to the United States courts of causes arising under it, without any regard to whether the parties to the suit were citizens of the same or of different States, and without any limitation of time within which the appli-

cation for transfer shall be made. By this legislation, for the first time in the history of this or, so far as I know, any other country, the complexion of the suitor determined the court that should administer justice to him, and we had established one court for one color, and a different tribunal for the other, when all the parties were citizens with equal rights and privileges under the Constitution.

“Mr. Speaker, this all-pervading Federal judiciary, by virtue of section 5486, assumes the right to go into our county courts under certain circumstances, take the ward's guardian therefrom, and carry him to the Federal court to be tried for not discharging the duties of his trust. The section is in these words:

“If any guardian having the charge and custody of the pension of his ward shall embezzle the same in violation of his trust, or fraudulently convert the same to his own use, he shall be punished by fine not exceeding \$2,000, or imprisonment at hard labor for a term not exceeding five years, or both, at the discretion of the court.

“Is any man deluded enough to suppose that the founders of the republic ever anticipated that this authority would be claimed by the Government or yielded by the States? If, because the money came from the Government as a pension, the Government may follow up and punish the custodian for embezzlement, why may it not for the same reason follow it for all purposes and control the ward, guardian, and fund, to the exclusion of the county courts of the States? If this assumption of authority goes unchallenged, who can tell but that ere long we shall have the General Government, through its judiciary, directing where the ward shall live, how much shall be paid for support, supervising settlements, directing the investment of the fund, and determining who shall inherit upon the death of the ward?

“But, Mr. Speaker, as if not content while a vestige of exclusive jurisdiction remained to the States, Congress in its wild career went further and provided that corporations and individual members of corporations might remove their causes from the State to the Federal court. This change is made by section 640 of the Revised Statutes, which is as follows:

“Any suit commenced in any court other than a circuit or district court of the United States against any corporation other than an banking corporation organized under a law of the United States or against any member thereof, as such member, for any alleged liability of such corporation, or of such member as a member thereof, may be removed, for trial, in the circuit court for the district where such suit is pending, etc.

“This is the law as to corporations organized under the laws of the United States.

“As to corporations organized under the laws of any State, the courts have held that the residence of all of the persons owning or controlling the corporation within the State where the suit is instituted makes no difference. They are still entitled to the removal if the corporation was organized out of the State. Nor will the court hear evidence upon the

question of residence of the individuals composing the corporation.

"We have reached a point where the citizen is almost powerless in a litigated contest with an immense corporation, and yet we give foreign corporations, or those that are not wholly within a single State, an advantage over the resident citizen in the right to remove the cause to a distant court. Without the people, through their representatives, rise in their legal might and check them, I fear that the day is not far distant when individual property and constitutional liberty may both give way in the *unequal* contest. Let us take railroad corporations for an example. They are allowed the full protection of the law along their lines, as is the citizen, which is right. They even have the privilege of charging the resident on the line more per mile for carrying his freight than is charged for carrying freight the full length of the line. But, when the citizen conceives himself aggrieved and sues, he may find himself suddenly carried into the Federal court, to wait for years, and expend much in costs before he gets justice administered. Year after year the people pour out their treasures and build new roads, and year by year larger corporations swallow them up at reduced prices. They never die. If a small road ceases to exist under its charter name, it is only to begin a state of immortality as a branch of a large corporation. Daniel Webster and the Baltimore and Ohio road were in Washington together. The great constitutional lawyer has been gathered to his fathers a quarter of a century, but the corporation which bore him to 'the Monumental City' is yet in its infancy, and only strengthened by the years which have elapsed. When another century shall have passed, and the United States teem with two hundred millions of people, these roads will be more active and powerful than to-day by the increase of commerce from an increase of population.

'Men may come and men may go,
But they flow on for ever.'

"Where is the necessity for extending superior advantages to those so able to take care of themselves and so able to crush out the individual? Let favoritism for them cease. Let those who build or support corporations be placed on an equality before the law with them. Let corporations be subject to the judicial authority of the State where they do business. If there is no conflict between the citizen and the corporation, no injury can result from this course. If there is a conflict, let us give the people an equal chance in that conflict.

"To illustrate the maternal care with which our Federal system hovers over and protects corporations, let us look to the decisions of the courts concerning them. An act was passed by the Legislature of Wisconsin in 1870, providing—

"That any fire-insurance company, association, or partnership, incorporated by or organized under the laws of any other State or the United States, desiring

to transact any such business as aforesaid by any agent or agents in this State, shall first appoint an attorney in this State, on whom process of law can be served, containing an agreement that such company will not remove the suit for trial into the United States Circuit Court or Federal courts, and file in the office of the Secretary of State a written instrument, duly signed and sealed, certifying such appointment, which shall continue until another attorney is substituted.

"This statute being in force, the Home Insurance Company of New York, a corporation organized under the laws of the State of New York, established an agency in Wisconsin, complying with the requirements of the act quoted, and agreeing as follows:

"And said company agrees that suits commenced in the State courts of Wisconsin shall not be removed by the acts of said company into the United States circuit or Federal courts.

"The Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of the Insurance Company *vs.* Moss, 20 Wallace, 445, have held that notwithstanding this State statute, notwithstanding the solemn agreement of the corporation to the contrary, it may remove the suit to the United States court. The same has been held in the case of the Hartford Fire Insurance Company *vs.* Doyle, reported in 3 Central Law Journal, 41.

"It is not my purpose to enter into any argument concerning the soundness of these decisions. It is sufficient for us to know that they stand. They are a barrier over which no State Legislature or State Constitution can pass and take hold of corporations. The people, after years of patient, hopeful, but unavailing forbearance, cry out for relief. There is but one tribunal on earth which can give it to them, and that is the Congress of the United States. I hope that this, their only city of refuge, will not close its gates against them. They ask nothing more than to be placed on an equality before the courts with corporations, and nothing less should be accorded them.

"Congress can not, and should not attempt to, interfere with the rightful and constitutional jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. There are also some classes of cases which are properly triable in the inferior United States courts. But Congress may regulate the jurisdiction and practice of such inferior courts, and should do so to the extent of relieving us of the hardships which the present system entails.

"The evil does not stop with civil causes. Congress has, by various acts which I will not delay the House by reading, given the district and circuit courts of the United States jurisdiction to remove criminal causes thereto, which arise in the State courts against internal-revenue officers and their assistants for offenses committed by them against the State laws. The gentleman from Indiana [Mr. Orth], in a speech delivered here on this subject, defends the right and propriety of the giving of this jurisdiction to the inferior courts of the United States, and says:

"Such jurisdiction of both civil and criminal cases

carries with it as an inseparable incident the laws of the State so far as applicable and necessary, from whose courts such transfer has been made.

"I insist that this is not in harmony with the genius of our institutions; is not consistent with reason or sound policy, and is in direct conflict with the law as decided by the Supreme Court of the United States. In proof of this position I read from the case of the United States *vs.* Hudson and Goodwin, 7 Cranch Reports:

"The powers of the General Government are made up of concessions from the several States. Whatever is not expressly given to the former the latter expressly reserve. The judicial power of the United States is a constituent part of these concessions. That power is to be exercised by courts organized for the purpose, and brought into existence by an effort of the legislative power of the Union. Of all the courts which the United States may under their general powers constitute, one only—the *Supreme Court*—possesses jurisdiction derived immediately from the Constitution, and of which the legislative power can not deprive it. All other courts created by the General Government possess no jurisdiction but what is given them by the power which created them, and can be vested with none but what the power ceded to the General Government will authorize them to confer. . . . The legislative authority of the Union must first make an act a crime, *affix a punishment to it*, and declare the court that shall have jurisdiction of the offense. . . . Certain implied powers must necessarily result to our courts of justice from the nature of their institution, but jurisdiction of crimes against the State is not among these powers. . . . To fine for contempt, etc., . . . are powers which can not be dispensed with in a court; but all exercise of criminal jurisdiction in common-law cases we are of opinion is not within their implied powers.

"This case is cited and approved in the case of *The United States vs. Cooledge et al.*, 1 Wheaton, 415:

"In the case of the United States *vs. Burr*, which arose in the Circuit Court of Virginia in 1807, the Chief-Justice of the United States declared that the laws of the several States could not be regarded as rules of decision in trials for offenses against the United States, because no man could be condemned or prosecuted in the Federal court on a statute law.—*Kent's Commentaries*, I, section 334.

"Further:

"The great difficulty and danger is in leaving it to the courts to say what is an offense against the United States when the law has not sufficiently defined it. The safer course undoubtedly is to confine the jurisdiction in criminal cases to statute offenses duly defined and to cases within the express jurisdiction given by the Constitution.—*Kent's Commentaries*, I, section 341.

"Under these authorities the district and circuit courts of the United States can not convict its officers after their causes are removed, Congress having never made their 'act a crime' or 'affixed a punishment to it.' No such authority can result by mere implication. Life is not taken nor liberty destroyed in any such slipshod way by implication and resultant criminal jurisdiction. And, as these courts have no power to punish, they become merely tribunals to turn loose those who are charged with high crimes.

"I presume it is not the purpose of any one to go back and change the mode of disposing of cases which are founded upon difficulties

that occurred fifteen or twenty years ago. But for offenses committed recently, in times of profound peace, every man should be amenable to the law he has violated and to the tribunal authorized to vindicate that law.

"The gentleman from Indiana [Mr. Orth] also says of a bill now before the House for the restriction of inferior Federal courts:

"But it goes further, and repeals all laws transferring criminal cases from the State to the Federal courts. That would be the effect of the law if passed.

"The same position has been assumed by others who have spoken in opposition to this bill.

"Mr. Speaker, no such consequence flows from the legislation proposed in this Congress. A complete, ay, the best, remedy for the transfer of all causes containing a Federal ingredient, or against parties on account of any act done as officers or representatives of the Government, is left. Section 709 of the Revised Statutes is not touched by the legislation, and provides for a transfer to the highest court in our republic. I send it to the Clerk to be read, that members may see that we are not attempting any inroad upon constitutional rights, nor to leave officers of the Government without an impartial hearing."

The Clerk read as follows:

A final judgment or decree in any suit in the highest court of the State, in which a decision in the suit could be had, where is drawn in question the validity of a treaty or statute of, or an authority exercised under the United States, and the decision is against their validity; or where is drawn in question the validity of a statute of, or an authority exercised under any State, on the ground of their being repugnant to the Constitution, treaties, or laws of the United States, and the decision is in favor of their validity; or where any title, right, privilege, or immunity is claimed under the Constitution, or any treaty or statute of, or commission held or authority exercised under the United States, and the decision is against the title, right, privilege, or immunity specially set up or claimed by either party, under such Constitution, treaty, statute, commission, or authority, may be reexamined and reversed or affirmed in the Supreme Court upon a writ of error. The writ shall have the same effect as if the judgment or decree complained of had been rendered or passed in a court of the United States.

The Supreme Court may reaffirm, reverse, modify, or affirm the judgment or decree of such State court, etc.

Mr. Philips: "And what are the consequences of these changes in the forum of justice? The expense of litigation is increased enormously. The trouble of attending to it is more than doubled. By the process of dividing the suit already mentioned, there are two suits where there should be but one, and they probably hundreds of miles apart, and possibly standing for trial on the same day. Strong corporations and wealthy individuals are able to attend and litigate in these courts, while the poor are not, and are virtually deprived of their legal 'right to a speedy . . . trial,' on account of the crowded state of the dockets and the impossibility of reaching the courts.

"One of the charges our fathers made against

the King of England in the Declaration of Independence was that of 'transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses.' We had as well be tried 'beyond seas' as beyond our county, if in both instances we are alike deprived of the power of obtaining justice. The world has heaped anathemas upon the tyrant who placed his laws so high they could not be read. How much more blamable was he for placing his laws out of sight than we are when we place our courts (through which alone the laws can be enforced) out of reach?

"Again, by the present judicial system the citizen may be twice tried for the same offense—once by the State and once by the Government, where the same act is made criminal by the statutes of both. It is true that this grows out of our anomalous dual system of government. But that fact should restrain us from extending the jurisdiction of Federal courts further than is absolutely necessary.

"If there was one feature of our judicial system in the States held more sacred by our forefathers than all others, it was that which secured to parties a trial before an impartial jury of the county or vicinage where the cause of action arose. So sedulous were they in the protection of this right that most of the States ingrafted it into their Constitutions. It is virtually destroyed in the Federal courts. There the juries are taken from remote parts of the State or district, and had almost as well come from a different State, being total strangers to the parties and their surroundings.

"I have already spoken of the great cost to litigants from the administration of justice in the Federal courts. But this is not all; they are immensely costly to the Government. Under Democratic rule, before the changes of which I have spoken, the cost of these courts was only a few hundred thousand dollars a year. Now it is millions, and increasing yearly. Too true is it, as stated by Judge Dillon in his work on the 'Removal of Causes,' that 'the small tide of litigation that formerly flowed in Federal channels has swollen into a mighty stream.' He might have added, 'and that stream threatens to deluge the country with cost, and bear away the dearest privileges of the citizen.'

"There is another great evil which flows from our present judicial practices. Deputy-marshals and their *posses* may go through the States armed, shooting, destroying property, driving off hogs and cattle of the citizens, beating and killing citizens, and when arrested and prosecuted by the State officials they are permitted to file their petitions in the United States district courts and remove their causes thereto, away from those who witnessed the offense and suffered by it. What more? The district attorney and the Attorney-General for the United States are instructed by the Government to appear and defend the criminal and try to turn him loose. The people of the United States thereby pay officials to

defend those who violate law. Is this right? Is it an effort to terrify criminals, or does it tend to encourage crime? I refer to this not as an evil in which the constituents I have the honor to represent are alone interested; for happily for them they have now administering revenue laws in their midst resident officials who are more observant of their rights than non-residents were; but I mention it as a question which affects all of our people alike.

"The tendency to centralization is so ably described in an article recently published by a distinguished citizen of Indiana that I quote his language on the subject:

"The centralizing tendency of our national legislation is dangerous for another reason, namely: It is creating discontent, and poisoning the affections of the people toward the Government, thus weakening the spirit of patriotism, upon which exists the ultimate hope of that Government for its just authority and long-continued existence. The humble citizen who, for some technical violation of law, is arrested and taken two hundred or three hundred miles to be tried in a United States court, and after much delay is, perhaps, mulcted in the trifling sum of ten dollars, and finds that the expenses attending the same have amounted to several hundred more, very likely causing the loss of his home and the impoverishment of his family, is painfully impressed with the idea that injustice has been done him, and he becomes from that moment a disaffected member of society. He sees in such treatment a wrong that for ever after rankles in his bosom, and causes him to look upon the Government as his oppressor and enemy rather than his protector and friend. In vain may you talk to him of the necessity of a strong government. In vain may you explain that her shield covers him as one of her children. In vain may you point to the insignia of her power and the evidence of her wealth and magnificence. In vain may you contrast the splendor of those granite temples which lavishly multiply so rapidly multiplying all over the land for the dispensation of Federal justice, with the modest courthouse of his home, for, to him, what are they all but the domed and turreted mausoleums of expiring liberty?

"Such courts are not the courts for the people. No matter how learned and impartial their judges may be; no matter how pure the ermine with which they are clothed; no matter how exalted the social position which they occupy, they are the creatures of encroaching power, and, like the magnates of the Church of England, are expected to 'magnify their offices.' Their rules are arbitrary and their predilections are in the line of absolutism. They live in the gilded sphere of power and luxurious splendor and their sympathies are not with the homely virtues of the masses. No system that takes the citizen a long distance from his home to be tried for general offenses can ever be satisfactory to a people imbued with a proper spirit of liberty.

"These are words of warning from a man who is of the political party which has been most instrumental in passing these laws. Surely he can not be accused of political bias. I have seen some of the citizens whom I have the honor to represent arrested and carried more than one hundred miles to be tried in a Federal court for a simple misdemeanor. I have seen them required to attend term after term when there was either no case ever made out against them, or so light a case that a mere nominal fine only could properly be im-

posed. But the poor unfortunates were not liberated till weeks of time and all the money they could get was spent. I have seen those dragged a long distance who were so poor they either had to walk or club together and go in wagons, camping out on the road at night. My object in speaking of these individual cases and their hardships is to show the importance of having justice administered near the parties interested. Why, the gentleman from Ohio told us of two cases in his State where parties had to expend in court costs \$300 each in defending themselves against a simple misdemeanor where they were acquitted.

"Mr. Speaker, unfortunately, the story of the aggressions of the Federal court, backed up by Congressional legislation, does not end even here. There is a glorious privilege for which our fathers fought and died—a privilege 'dearer . . . than light and life' to every freeman through whose veins Anglo-Saxon blood flows. It is the right of local self-government through an untrammelled ballot. Sacred as is this franchise—blood-bought though it was—it, too, has been seized by the Federal court and prostrated by the power which Jefferson predicted would be the destruction of our institutions. Section 2012 of the Revised Statutes, passed in 1871, provides for the appointment of supervisors of elections. By section 2017 they are required—

"To personally inspect, from time to time, and at all times, on the day of election, the manner in which the voting is done, and the way and methods in which the poll-books, registry-lists, and tallies or check-books, whether the same are required by any law of the United States, or any State, territorial, or municipal law, are kept.

"Section 2021, also passed in 1871, provides for the appointment of special deputy-marshals.

"Section 2022 provides that—

"The marshal and his general deputies, and such special deputies, shall keep the peace, and support and protect the supervisors of election in the discharge of their duties, preserve order at such places of registration and at such polls, prevent fraudulent registration and fraudulent voting thereat, or fraudulent conduct on the part of any officer of election, and immediately, either at the place of registration or polling-place, or elsewhere, and either before or after registering or voting, to arrest and take into custody, *with or without process*, any person who commits, or attempts or offers to commit, any of the acts or offenses prohibited herein, or who commits any offense against the laws of the United States, etc.

"Thus it will be seen that a deputy-marshal appointed by a United States court is sent into States to control elections there. He is made the judge of the qualifications of voters and of their good or bad intentions in voting. With no higher process than the policeman's club, he may arrest and carry away from the ballot-box an American freeman about to engage in the exercise of the highest political privilege ever bestowed on man.

"Can these things be and our liberties last? Can they continue and we be other than slaves?

Unfortunately, they can not. They are the handwritings upon the wall which require neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet to interpret, and which tell us that our republican institutions are in danger.

"Under what plea have all these wrongs been perpetrated? What excuse is given for this subversion of the grand system devised and bequeathed to us by the founders of the republic? It is the same plea under which Napoleon I tore down the Republic and built up the Empire of France. It is the same excuse given by Napoleon III for destroying the liberties of his people and placing upon them monarchy. It is the same under which ambitious men and tyrants have worked from the downfall of the first republic to the establishment of the last despotism. 'Necessity for a strong government.' What is the necessity for a stronger government than we have? It is already, when considered in all its bearings, the most powerful upon which the sun shines. It resisted successfully, when much weaker than it is to-day, the greatest shock to which any free government was ever subjected—far greater than can menace it now. When our unfortunate civil war came and scattered the States of the Union, this mighty republic was strong enough to gather them up, replace them in their orbits, and move on the brightest constellation in the firmament of nations. And all of this without the *post-bellum* legislation which I have mentioned. This cry of 'necessity for strong government' is only a subterfuge. It is the cloak under which are working those who are not content with our form of government. Let us meet it by constitutional methods, but firmly, as becomes men. Let us not, after the lightnings of heaven have yielded to our philosophy, permit the temptations of earth to seduce our patriotism.

"The maelstrom on the coast of Norway is the most celebrated whirlpool of the world. Over an area of more than one hundred and twenty-five square miles the circling flood sweeps. It is known now to be very dangerous to navigation, and according to ancient mariners whatever came within the compass of this monster of nature—whether ship or shark, whether whale or whaler—was drawn into the vortex, hurled to the center, and dashed to destruction by the whirling flood.

"When the student of history looks out on Time's broad ocean, he sees a political maelstrom more dire, more destructive, than that on Norway's stormy coast. It has circled since the first republic rose, and has wrecked and borne down all the free commonwealths of ancient times by drawing them to centralization, despotism, and ruin.

'Its doom is like the Dead Sea air,
And nothing lives that enters there.'

"There may be seen the wrecks of Rome, of Greece. Strong as they were when they started toward centralized despotism, they were as powerless to resist as is the straw to

resist the tornado which impels it. Had the proud Roman been asked whether his country's liberties would not be thrown away, he would have replied indignantly: 'No; they are to be perpetual.' Yet the pretorian guards, standing upon the ramparts of 'the Eternal City,' 'with a loud voice proclaimed that the Roman world was to be disposed of to the best bidder by public auction,' and it was done. Didius Julianus became the purchaser, and was thereby made emperor, and mankind were shocked to see the 'mistress of the world' bought, paid for, and controlled by the money of one selfish, scheming, ambitious man. The Appian Way now no longer resounds with the shouts of victorious Roman freemen, and the soft-voiced Italian has sung his sad song in misery and chains in the 'City of the Cæsars.'

"Had the Greek been asked how long his freedom would last, he would have replied with the same infatuation which seems to have seized us, 'For ever!' And yet the matrons who raised up sons for the state, and sent them forth commanding them to 'return bearing their shields or borne on them,' have been succeeded by the groveling tenants of the harem, and slavish degenerate sons have succeeded free and noble sires all over the land of Leonidas and Lyncurgus. Let us take warning by their sad fate, and not permit ourselves to be drifted into this focus of centralized despotism and destruction either by Congressional mal-legislation or by judicial construction.

Mr. Robinson, of Massachusetts: "We have considered this one point thus far, how the business of the court will be diminished by the removal of this one provision from the act. Is there a demand we shall go further? Is there a demand that we shall have no United States courts that shall adjudicate upon the rights of parties, citizens of different States? I think not. Events are so fresh and so powerful in their instruction that it will not be found in this House that it has a standing here, that we are to dismiss the national power—dismiss the national courts and ignore their usefulness. We want to maintain them. We are here to-day with a Union more strongly cemented than ever before, and destined to be perpetual. That Union is not by the agreement of the States, but by the decree of the people of this great country, renewed, ratified, sanctified in the blood of the war. That is accomplished, and with the United States court everywhere in this land I shall look in vain to find any gentleman rise and say he would banish them or shear them of their power. Nay, the lesson of the legislation in the last Congress and in this teaches us volumes as to the opinion of the people and the legislators here assembled. Why, in the Forty-fifth Congress we passed bills securing joint action, giving additional facilities in the United States courts, establishing new courts, making new districts, and divisions of districts—in how many States? Why,

in Colorado, the District of Columbia, Florida, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Ohio, and West Virginia. That in the Forty-fifth Congress. What is the record in the Forty-sixth? Gentlemen have only to consult the files of the House. Go to the Committee on the Judiciary and you will find there bills in the same direction for Ohio, Indiana, Louisiana, Iowa, Mississippi, Tennessee, Illinois, South Carolina, Texas, Kentucky, North Carolina, Missouri, New York, and Kansas. Does that legislation show that the people tire of the pressure of the national power and the authority of the Federal courts? While I would not divulge the secrets of the consultation of the committee-room, yet I feel that I may say to this House that, in the discussions and testimony before us in regard to the establishment of a circuit court in a certain State in this Union, it appeared that the people wanted the United States court there because they had more confidence in it than they had in their State courts. And I say further, so that the credit may go where it is due, that this was in one of the Southern States of this Union.

"I like that evidence. That is very gratifying. With this legislation accomplished and proposed and with that feeling prevailing I receive any such expression as that with cordiality. Let us have, then, this recognition of the United States power, and let us see to it that we do not here strive to strip it of its authority."

The amendment of Mr. Culberson was agreed to.

Some other less important amendments were made, and the bill passed the House—yeas 162, nays 74, not voting 56. It made no progress in the Senate.

In the House, on February 4th, Mr. Morton, of New York, called up the following joint resolution from the Committee on Foreign Affairs:

"Whereas, all civilized nations take part in the international fishery exhibition to be held in the city of Berlin, Germany, in April, 1880, it is deemed both right and expedient that the prominent and effective action of the United States in the line of the artificial propagation of fish and the stocking of depleted fishing waters should be conspicuously and well exhibited on the occasion: therefore,

Resolved, etc., That, to enable the United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries to exhibit America in Berlin in April, 1880, a fair and full collection of the different specimens of American food-fishes, casts thereof, models of, and implements, etc., used in the prosecution of American fisheries, the sum of \$20,000 is hereby appropriated, out of any moneys not otherwise appropriated in the Treasury of the United States, or so much thereof as may be necessary for the purpose, to be immediately available on the passage of this resolution.

SECTION 2. That the United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries be, and is hereby, authorized to represent the United States, either in person or by a deputy to be appointed by the President of the United States; and that, at his discretion, he may use any portion of the collections at present forming part of

the National Museum in making up the proposed exhibition by the United States.

SEC. 3. That the United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries be, and is hereby, instructed to present to Congress, through the Department of State, a report upon the Berlin Exhibition, showing the recent progress and present condition of the fisheries and of fish culture in foreign countries.

Mr. Morton: "Mr. Chairman, at first glance a proposition to expend money on an international fishery exhibition at Berlin is likely to be viewed with indifference. This indifference to our fisheries and to these exhibitions has existed for years, and was never more manifest than now.

"Other countries do not look upon fisheries as we do. One of these international exhibitions was held at Bergen, Norway, in 1865, at which the fish of all the great countries and many of the lesser ones were well represented. Insignificant Bavaria sent 69 contributions; Great Britain, 174; Sweden, 368; and Holland, 435. How many came from this country? One! Another exhibition was held in France in 1866, and our fish were not presented at all.

"The French Government has given so much material aid to this business of fish-culture that nearly all her waste waters have been turned into nests for the propagation of fish. One of the earliest and most extensive establishments for the culture of fish is that erected by France at Huningen, which went into operation in 1852, and in six months had artificially fecundated three million eggs and produced sixteen hundred thousand living fish.

"In view of the possibilities of our shores, our measureless streams, and our inland seas, we should lead all nations in the world in availing ourselves of every item of information on a subject of such importance to our people and their industries. The annual value of salmon alone in Ireland is now about \$2,500,000, while in this country it averages from thirty to forty cents a pound. The oyster-beds in Virginia alone cover an area of about seventeen hundred thousand acres, containing about eight hundred millions of bushels. The following are a few figures showing the comparative production and consumption of fish by the leading nations in the world:

COUNTRIES.	Annual product.	Annual consumption.
Norway	\$13,600,000	\$1,000,000
France	12,307,000	9,845,756
United States	8,598,000	8,777,000
Great Britain	7,803,500	9,423,000
Russia	5,745,000	8,659,000

"The United States exported in 1874 about twenty-two hundred thousand dollars worth.

"It appears from this statement that in 1874 Norway and France, each smaller than some of our States, produced respectively one-third more fish than the United States. In 1862 the tonnage of American ships engaged in the sea-fisheries amounted to 204,197, in 1874 it had fallen to 78,290 tons.

"In the report of the United States Fish Commissioner for 1877 there is a description of a fish of most excellent quality found on the American coast. It existed in great numbers, and yet was unknown to our fishermen—for the reason that they were not acquainted with the apparatus of European fishermen. This should teach us how important it is for us to be familiar with those improvements and methods which prevail in the Old World.

"In the fish-trade in 1865, Norway had a balance of trade in her favor of \$12,588,975. Why was this? Because she resorted to fish production as it is proposed the United States should do. In this connection the United States Fish Commissioner again says:

"Norway is the only European nation that has a scientific commission occupied officially in the supervision of the fisheries, and in devising methods by which they may be carried on and extended with the least possible waste. To the labors and observation of such men as Dr. Boeck, Professor Sars, and others, is due much of the present efficiency of the Norwegian fisheries.

"Mr. Chairman, I now call attention to some of the results which have been achieved by the United States Fish Commission since its creation in 1872, in respect to which it is safe to assert that the United States is in advance of foreign nations in the methods and machinery of the fisheries; in the use of better equipped vessels, some steam and some under sail, a large fleet being now employed continually on the coast and off the coast; in the use of greatly improved means of taking fish, especially the replacing of the hook and line by means of labor-saving nets, and particularly by the purse-seine, by which a thousand barrels of fish are frequently taken at one haul, instead of depending upon the capture of the fish one at a time.

"In catching mackerel, the United States first used a line with a baited hook dragged along the surface of the water, the vessel being under sail. Sometimes the baited hook was sent below the surface, the vessel being either under gentle sail or anchored. Here only such fish were taken as happened to be in the vicinity of the vessel. Next, the vessel was anchored or hove to, and the mackerel brought up to the boat by means of a lure consisting of finely-chopped fish, thrown overboard, thus attracting the schools from a distance sometimes of several miles. Next, seines or nets of various forms of construction were introduced, and last of all the purse-seines for fishing in deep water were employed, which surrounded the fish and captured an entire school at one operation. The use of similar seines in connection with specially constructed steamers, in the capture of the moss-bunker or menhaden and the conversion of the fish into valuable oil and manure in costly establishments, either floating or on shore, is peculiar to the United States.

"Another peculiar American feature in the capture of sea-fish is the use of the so-called dory, a boat from sixteen to twenty-two feet in length, and much lighter and more secure at

sea, and superior in every way to any boat used in Europe. Applications are being constantly received by the Commissioner for models, drawings, and descriptions of this boat.

"The original methods of fish-culture consisted in allowing the natural current of water, as that from a spring or hydrant, to pass through wooden troughs, having on the bottom a layer of gravel, among which the eggs were placed; this essentially represents to this day the inventive genius of Europe. The next mode was in anchoring the trawls in a river so as to get the natural flow of the water instead of depending upon springs or hydrants. This, as at first applied by Seth Green, rendered the hatching of shad practicable on a large scale.

"Again, advancing on its own method of having the eggs in actual layers and trays, the United States devised the method of placing the eggs in large vessels of a conical shape, and allowing the water to come in at the bottom and flow over at the top, by which means enormous numbers can be hatched on a given area. Such is the apparatus used to a considerable extent by the United States at its salmon-hatching establishments in Maine and California. As the result, with a very small force of operatives, as many as fifteen millions of eggs have been treated in a single season on the Sacramento River hatchery—a product much more than that of all the salmon-hatching establishments, public and private, in Europe combined.

"The funnel apparatus was next placed by the United States Commission on floating scows, so that the water used in developing the eggs could be drawn directly from the subjacent river where they were anchored. With this was combined a form of buckets filled with eggs and plunged up and down in the water continually by means of steam-power. The success of the method of the use of scows led to the construction of a large steamer especially fitted for this purpose and nearly ready for us, by which the amount of work of previous seasons can be increased many fold.

"The efforts of Europe in the artificial propagation of fish have been confined chiefly to the treatment of different species of salmon, trout, and white-fish, and this by the rude methods first indicated—all breeding in fresh water. The United States Fish Commission first conceived the idea and made the experiments of artificial impregnation of and hatching the eggs of the various sea-fishes, which require a totally different treatment from the eggs of fresh-water species, the latter sinking to the bottom of the water, while the former float on the surface. Experiments were prosecuted in the harbor of Gloucester in the hatching of eggs of the cod, during the winters of 1878-'79, which, after many failures, resulted in entire success. The steamer referred to is an essential factor in the work contemplated for the future, being capable of producing hundreds of millions of young fish in a single season.

"The hatching of cod, mackerel, halibut, sea-herring, and indeed any of the fish of our coast, with the exception of the blue-fish and menhaden (which do not spawn at a time when they can be reached), becomes perfectly practicable. Not only can the old off-shore and other grounds be increased in their productiveness, but new stations can be established. It is especially anticipated that productive cod-fisheries can be developed as far south as the Chesapeake Bay or even Cape Hatteras, thus giving lucrative occupation to a large class of the community in the winter season, when the cod would be on the coast and when other fishing would be intermitted. The benefit to the people of the South in this increase of a supply of cheap fish-food during the winter will of course be readily appreciated. The fitful appearance and disappearance of mackerel on the American coast can also, in a great measure, be regulated.

"It is hoped to transfer the general seat of the cod and of the mackerel fisheries from the distant Banks and the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the coast of the United States, thus settling some very serious international fishery questions, and making the American cod-fisheries especially similar to those of Norway, where twenty-five thousand men are employed for four months of the year in fishing in open boats, going out in the morning and returning at night.

"The European nations, especially the Germans and Norwegians, have been kept advised of the success of the United States Fish Commission in the hatching of various species of sea-fishes, through the public papers, but no reports of the commission have appeared later than that for 1877; they are without the detailed information desired, most of the discoveries having been made in 1878 and 1879.

"European nations are aware that all the more recent improvements in the hatching of fish, both fresh-water and marine, have been developed by the United States Commission, and especially by Mr. T. B. Ferguson, the assistant commissioner. The agents of the North German Lloyd's have offered to carry the exhibits of the United States at half rates, and have asked permission of the director of the company in Bremen to take them free of any expense whatever.

"These results show the advantages which have already accrued from the action of Congress in enabling this country to profit by the discoveries and experiences of European nations in the culture of fish."

The joint resolution was adopted in the House—yeas 169, nays 70, not voting 54. It was passed in the Senate and approved by the President.

In the House, on February 24th, the following communication was received:

To the House of Representatives:

I transmit herewith a communication from the Attorney-General with reference to the requisite appropriation for the current fiscal year for the compensation

of the marshals of the United States, including their reimbursement for necessary expenditures in the discharge of their official duties. R. B. HAYES.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, February 24, 1880.

The Speaker: "The communication will be referred to the Committee on Appropriations."

Mr. White: "And printed."

Mr. Conger: "Let the accompanying paper be read."

The Clerk read as follows:

DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE,
WASHINGTON, February 20, 1880. }

SIR: I desire respectfully to call your attention to the subject of the appropriation for the current fiscal year for the fees and expenditures of the marshals of the United States in the performance of the duties of their offices.

The last Congress, and the present Congress at its first session, adjourned without making any appropriation for these officers. In my annual report I have fully stated to the Senate and House of Representatives the condition in which they were left by this failure. Since the 1st of July last they have carried on their offices without any appropriation, and have not only been without compensation for themselves and their deputies, but have advanced the sums necessary to be expended in order that the process of the United States might not fail, having fulfilled substantially all their official duties. I am informed from many of them that they have now reached the limit of their capacity thus to conduct their offices, and a failure by them in the administration of their offices is necessarily a failure to execute the laws of the United States, which in such case would occur by reason of the want of suitable appropriations. I need not enumerate the vast number of cases in which such failure would be attended with grave results, disastrous in some cases to individuals and in others to the public justice of the United States. Nearly eight months of the current fiscal year have now elapsed. I feel that these officers are entitled to great credit for the exertions they have heretofore made. I have no doubt they will continue to do their best; but, in view of the heavy pressure upon them, I trust that Congress will, as soon as possible, show them that the confidence they have felt that the appropriation would be made for their legitimate fees and expenditures has not been misplaced.

As the head of the Department of Justice, I have felt it my duty to inform you of the condition in which these officers now find themselves, and the consequent effects to be anticipated in the administration of public justice, in order that you may, should you deem it proper, communicate with Congress upon the subject, and urge upon that body, with as much earnestness as it may properly be done, a prompt disposition of this matter.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
CHARLES DEVENS, Attorney-General.

To the PRESIDENT.

In the House, on March 12th, the Appropriation Bill was considered.

Mr. McMahon, of Ohio, said: "Mr. Chairman, members will have observed from the reading of the bill that the appropriations it contains are for the current fiscal year only—that this bill is not the general bill which usually comes in at the close of a session to clear up all deficiencies for the past and present fiscal years.

"In this bill the appropriation for the marshals is modified in its language, and differs slightly from the bill as originally presented to the House. The clause in the present bill reads as follows:

"For the payment of the fees and expenses of United States marshals and their general deputies earned during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, \$600,000.

"Gentlemen will observe the language—'general deputies.' The bill contains nowhere any appropriation for special deputy-marshals. I call attention to this fact for the benefit of gentlemen on both sides of the House. The Committee on Appropriations thought it advisable to appropriate money for the general purposes of the courts and the prosecution of crimes only. We do not in this bill appropriate any money for special deputy-marshals; and I doubt whether the Democratic party ever will appropriate any money for such special deputies so long as the law stands in its present shape. It will be observed that the committee has confined itself to appropriation merely, and has ingrafted no legislation or words of exclusion. It has, however, failed or refused to appropriate any sum for special deputies.

"Special deputy-marshals are appointed only for Congressional elections and only upon the occasion of such elections. They are creatures unknown to the law except when appointed for an election for Representatives about to take place. The last Congress adjourned without making any appropriation for special deputy-marshals; indeed, it adjourned without making appropriation for any of the fees of marshals, because of a disagreement between the different departments of the Government. Of course the marshals and their general deputies attended to the business of the country without the appropriation, because the marshals of the United States and their general deputies do not derive their chief compensation out of the \$600,000 which we appropriate to them in this bill. They are paid out of fees in admiralty cases and the other civil suits in which the United States Government is not a party. The United States marshals, therefore, continued to perform their duties, serving writs, warrants for private individuals, and for the Government of the United States; looking to Congress to reimburse them for the expenses which they might incur in serving writs, etc., for the United States Government. This was an ordinary, legitimate service, which was never in dispute. And every one is ready to make this amount available for their use at as early a day as possible.

"But, Mr. Chairman, while it was proper for the marshals of the United States to attend to the general business of the country, being already in office and having many duties to perform, it was not proper for any officer of this Government to appoint special deputy-marshals when no appropriation had been made for that specific purpose, and when, on the contrary, all the appropriations for marshals had failed because Congress was unwilling to vote a dollar for special deputies, the President insisting upon the absence of certain restrictive

clauses in the bill containing such appropriations.

"I desire to say to gentlemen on both sides of the House that I have now no letter and know of none to offer to Congress from any officer of the Government stating we owe special deputy-marshals in California anything. Indeed, I do not suppose the Attorney-General would take the responsibility of saying that we did owe United States special deputy-marshals any particular sum of money in the absence of appropriations, because the law is very explicit on the statute-book that no department of the Government has the power to incur an obligation in the absence of an appropriation for that purpose. The law was laid down distinctly by Attorney-General Williams in regard to the printing of postal-cards when no appropriation had been made for that purpose. The President of the United States confirmed the doctrine in a message which he sent to this House in the month of June, 1876; and the Secretary of the Treasury, in an executive document which I have before me, says expressly there is no power to incur any obligation on the part of the Government unless money has been appropriated for that special purpose. Therefore, although we know by report, by telegraph, and possibly by official letters in response to inquiry to the Attorney-General, that we had seventy-six hundred dollars' worth of special deputy-marshals in the State of California at the late election in that State without knowing how many; yet they are not in a shape to claim any relief at the hands of this Government, and, in my judgment, they have long since been paid by the Republican Central Committee. Any proposition to amend this bill by inserting \$7,600 would be simply a proposition for the relief of the Republican Central Committee.

"It is a private debt when certain gentlemen are put, as they have been, upon public duty for which no appropriation has been made, and are told if the Government does not pay them the private purse would. I know no public officer who has a right to create that debt on the part of the Government; the proposition is as plain as that two and two make four, that if any debt exists it is the debt of the Republican Central Committee, and can not, in law, be the debt or obligation of the country. No department can incur an obligation in the absence of an appropriation (except in the Army and Navy), and no public officer will take the responsibility of saying that we owe (in its proper sense) any one in such a case.

"Now, special deputy-marshals are entitled, if properly appointed and there is an appropriation for them, to five dollars a day. General deputies are entitled to the ordinary fees which are specified in the statute. A general deputy-marshall is entitled to be present at elections under the election law (if it be regarded as constitutional), but he is entitled to no compensation for being present. The compensation of

five dollars a day is confined expressly to special deputy-marshals. A general deputy-marshall has no fees even for arresting a man without process on election-day, for there are no such fees allowed. The supposition is that there is always a warrant, an attachment, or process of some kind or other. Of course, if he seizes a man who violates the law in his presence, he may be entitled to the ordinary fifty cents for the commitment of the prisoner. He may be entitled to ordinary fees for attending before a United States commissioner. But these are fees to which he would be entitled if he held a warrant, and are incurred in the ordinary course of judicial proceedings.

"But the Committee on Appropriations thought, so far as their duty extended, that all they could do and all they were willing to do, in view especially of the recent decision of the Supreme Court, was this: that the general deputies' ordinary fees should be paid, but the extraordinary fees of the special deputy-marshals should not, because no appropriation had ever been made for that purpose, and their employment was not authorized and created no obligation.

"There can not be two sides, Mr. Chairman, to the question of law that, whether a law is constitutional or not, we have the right to determine how much shall be appropriated under it, especially where no amount is fixed. For example, if a public building needs \$500,000 to complete it, Congress may say that in the present state of the Treasury, or in the present state of other advanced work, we will give nothing—yet the building ought to be completed; or we will give \$50,000—yet that may not be enough; or we will give \$100,000—and that may not be enough. By committing to the House power to appropriate, the right is absolutely left in the House to determine whether it will appropriate for a certain purpose and how much it will appropriate.

"Of course I understand, as a legislator, that upon us rests the burden of refusing to carry out a law or refusing to carry it out properly. That is a responsibility we must take. We always have taken it, and I hope we always will without fear.

"And I desire to say that because the Supreme Court of the United States has decided that the election law is constitutional by a sort of eight-by-seven decision—and I mean by that a division apparently according to party lines (without impugning the good faith of any member of the Supreme Court, but to show how differently a legal question may appear to persons who have been educated in different political schools)—that although that court has decided the constitutionality of the law, that when we come, as legislators, to appropriate money it is our duty to say, Is this law constitutional? or, if constitutional, is it a good law, and are we bound to appropriate money for it? Beyond that, we have a right to determine whether the exigency for any appropriation exists, or wheth-

er any obligation exists on the part of the Government for past services, or whether in the next fiscal year the country really needs money for this purpose."

Mr. Hawley, of Connecticut: "Mr. Chairman, I am glad the House has decided to take up this bill. It contains some twenty-seven items supplying deficiencies in the service, and they are all, in the judgment of the Appropriations Committee, in which I as a member most heartily concur, immediately indispensable to the service. To pass the bill is a work of necessity, I might say of mercy; that is to say, I speak of the bill as reported from the committee."

"The proposed section for the payment of marshals is to pay the marshals and their *general* deputies. We have a bill pending before the House, reported, I believe, from the committee, proposing to devote \$600,000 to the marshals and their general deputies, and containing a proviso forbidding the use of any of this money for the payment of expenses under the national election laws. I understand it is proposed to drop the latter clause; but, nevertheless, by retaining the term '*general*' the same effect is reached. None of the money can be appropriated for the payment of expenses incurred under the general election laws save as marshals or general deputies may have been engaged, and most of the marshals so employed are special marshals. Therefore, dropping the prohibitory proviso is nearly immaterial so far as the practical effect is concerned."

"It appears, therefore, Mr. Chairman, that at the very first opportunity the Democratic majority of this House renews the tactics that compelled the long, excited, and expensive extra session of last summer. And it does not appear thus far that the Democratic party has learned anything from the debates of that session or from the public opinion of the country. The leaders seem determined to prove all that was charged against the party."

"I propose very briefly to review this practice of tacking or of attaching political legislation to appropriation bills. The attempt was made to justify this by reference to the history of Great Britain. There can be found precedents in that history previous to 1688, when Great Britain was engaged in a great political revolution. Since 1688 it has not been British practice. And since 1710 there has been an absolute rule of the House of Lords prohibiting it. It is regarded there as revolutionary and destructive of the rights of the House of Lords, barring that House from a free expression of its opinion upon bills of supply."

"It is sought to justify it by reference to precedents in the legislation of Congress while it was under Republican control. That can not be done, in my opinion; because while the Republicans, when they had a majority of both Houses, and the President, also, on their side, were in the very bad habit at times of putting

general legislation on appropriation bills, it had not the effect then of thumb-screwing the Executive. And when some of the most illustrious examples of this bad habit occurred they had a two-thirds vote in both Houses, and it was therefore, as far as compelling the Executive was concerned, a mere matter of form; they could pass the bill, whether he approved or disapproved."

"The practice, however, is not justifiable because Republicans were at times guilty of it. The only example furnished by Republicans, which is in reality applicable to the present discussion, is that occurring during the great Kansas agitation, when they proposed to forbid the use of the army in Kansas to enforce certain wicked legislation. In that instance the Republicans, having brought about an extra session and come to a serious consideration of the subject, abandoned the attempt, being satisfied that they were wrong in proposing to coerce the Government in that way; and among the protests against tacking, against thumb-screwing legislation, there are none more logical and impressive than those made by eminent Democratic Senators."

"The judgment of the country is against this. The history of constitutional legislation is against it. Some of the States of the Union condemned it as early as 1776. In their first Constitutions they emphatically condemned it, and for the very reasons that we are in the habit of assigning on this side. As time passed, Constitution after Constitution has been so altered as to prevent it. Twenty-eight of the State Constitutions rendered it impossible by a variety of provisions, but a great many of them containing this simple rule: 'Bills shall contain but one subject, which shall be distinctly described in the title.' Other Constitutions permit the Executive to veto some while approving other sections of appropriation bills. And, when the Confederates came to adopt a constitution, they took the existing Constitution of the United States with certain modifications. Among the modifications which their veteran politicians and legislators thought it necessary to make are clauses that rendered it utterly impossible to do what the Democratic party of this House is seeking to do here to-day. We have the history of the State Constitutions, the general progress of constitutional legislation in the country, the judgment of the Houses of Congress before this agitation in repeated instances, and what I am sure will weigh strongly with some gentlemen, and which weighs somewhat with all, the thoughtful action of the Confederate Convention considering the defects of the Federal Constitution."

"Under this policy of the Democratic party there can be nothing like deliberate legislation. The work becomes a farce; we are not free to vote as we please; bills become a patchwork of general and political legislation and appropriations; the freedom of voting becomes the

freedom of one subject to the highway robber, subject to the black-mailer, subject to the torture of inquisition. The call of the roll in a sense brings with it an insult, because it asks me to vote upon brass and clay, and silver and gold, all mingled in one image. No legislative body has a right to bring a member to that emergency.

"Now, as to the provision concerning the marshals, of which I hope I shall speak still more briefly. The Committee on Appropriations decided to make it an independent bill, which was rightly done. It is now proposed to put it on this appropriation bill, which is wrongly done. There is due marshals and special deputies in California some \$7,500 for labor under the election laws. The supervisors of elections are paid out of the Treasury under a permanent statute. This is not a matter of discretion with us, whether or not we will incur indebtedness of this sort. While the statute stands, any two reputable citizens applying to the marshal have the right to demand that special deputies be appointed, and the marshal is imperatively directed by law to appoint those special deputies, whose very wise and proper duties are very carefully pointed out in the statute, and whose compensation is fixed. The indebtedness, therefore, may be incurred at any time by the marshal and two reputable citizens, without waiting for a specific appropriation. To refuse to pay it is to refuse to pay a lawful debt of the United States, and that is what is proposed in this instance.

"The gentleman from Ohio [Mr. McMahon], of the Committee on Appropriations, says that the majority of this House will appropriate nothing for special deputies, supervisors, or anything of that sort, and will not do so while the election law exists. I call upon this House and upon the country to properly stigmatize the character of that declaration. If the majority had in the first place brought before us a bill repealing or modifying the election laws, I could listen with more charity. I hold it to be their first duty, before adopting this policy, even if they are ever justifiable in doing so, to show us how far they desire to modify the election laws, or whether they desire to entirely repeal them. They have not done that. In fact, by leaving in some of the appropriation bills provisions relating to supervisors, last summer, they admitted the propriety of the law, or at least they declined to put themselves in square opposition to it by supporting a bill repealing it.

"It appears, then, that they declare positively that they will not afford the necessary means for executing laws which they do not like. Now General Grant's doctrine is very much better; that the best way to bring about the repeal of an obnoxious law is to enforce it. I do not say that in some great revolutionary crisis Congress might not declare that it would not appropriate money to carry out existing law. But if it be the deliberate judgment of

the Democracy that the laws protecting elections are of the description that justify revolutionary measures, I shall be glad to have the declaration frankly made, so that the country may understand it.

"The Constitution of the United States provides very clearly that

"The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators. —Article I, section 4.

"Now, the construction of that section of the Constitution was very well understood in the Constitutional Convention. It was very thoroughly debated and defended by Mr. Madison, and other eminent gentlemen, on the exact ground that it is indispensable to the Government of the United States that it should have the power to protect the people in electing members of that Government.

"It has been claimed that this power is to be exercised by Congress only in cases where the States have failed or neglected to provide for proper Congressional elections. That point was made also in the Constitutional Convention, and it was there overruled. When the State Conventions came to consider the new Constitution they were to some extent dissatisfied with this provision; and in six of those conventions the point was again raised, and an amendment to the Constitution was proposed, providing that Congress should not legislate on this subject of elections except in cases where the States had failed to legislate.

"These proposed amendments came before the first Congress of the United States under the Constitution. They were deliberately debated in that Congress; Mr. Madison renewed his own arguments made in the Constitutional Convention. A proposition to submit to the State Legislatures an amendment giving to Article I, section 4, the construction described was voted down by 23 yeas to 28 nays; and the attempt has never been renewed.

"The Constitutional Convention, the State Conventions, and the first Congress under the Constitution understood that subject precisely as the Republican party to-day understands it. Since that time the legislation of Congress has been in accordance therewith. Some of the States were in the habit of electing their Congressional delegates in gross—by general ticket. Congress provided that Representatives should be elected by single districts. The States were in the habit of electing Representatives at different times; Congress provided that Representatives should all be elected on the Tuesday after the first Monday of November. The States were in the habit of electing their Senators at different times and in various ways, and with such irregularities that the people sometimes remained unrepresented in the Senate for long periods, and serious dissensions arose.

"The Congress of the United States provid-

ed in minute detail for the election of Senators of the United States, going into the State Legislatures and prescribing the duties of clerks and presiding officers and members, commanding them to assemble at a certain hour in the day—twelve o'clock—and vote *viva voce* for a Senator; to assemble in joint convention the next day at twelve o'clock and read the distinct record of the ballot in each House; directing them, in case the record showed disagreement, to vote jointly and *viva voce*, and directing that in case they made no choice they should meet in joint convention day after day at twelve o'clock till they had made a choice. It is impossible, therefore, that Congress could have shown any more clearly its understanding of that section and of the right and duty of Congress to supremely regulate the election of Congressmen. And what it can 'regulate' it can protect.

"The Democracy now say that an election law passed by Congress in direct, clear, incontrovertible execution of that section shall not be carried out, and they propose to put what is equivalent to that into this little deficiency bill—a work of necessity and mercy, as I have called it. I am obliged to say that this is a part of the general hostility manifested by a large body of people in this country to Federal power—just and constitutional Federal power of every description—hostility to the army, hostility to the Executive, hostility to the Supreme Court, hostility to the protection of Federal officers by Federal courts while they are executing Federal laws, hostility to any attempt on the part of the General Government to protect the rights of the people in the sacred duty of voting."

Mr. Singleton, of Mississippi: "This bill is not one of our regular appropriation bills. It is what is termed a deficiency bill, a bill to add something to the amount already granted for carrying on the business of the several departments of the Government. And while, Mr. Chairman, bills of this character are regarded by me with great disfavor, the necessity for them growing, as it frequently does, out of the extravagant and unnecessary expenditure of money in these several departments above and beyond that set apart for their use, yet candor compels me to admit that this is not always the case, but that sometimes the necessity for a deficiency bill comes of the fact that Congress has failed to make, at the proper time, sufficient appropriations, and at other times out of circumstances which are unforeseen, and which, as a matter of course, are not provided for in the general appropriation bills.

"Such is the case to a certain extent in regard to the two largest items mentioned in this bill. The six-hundred-thousand-dollar item which it is asked shall be appropriated for the payment of marshals and their regular deputies grows out of the fact that, at the last session of Congress, there was a failure to appropriate for this purpose. The circumstances under

which that failure occurred I do not propose to discuss to-day. The history of the matter is familiar not only to the members of this House but to the whole country. It will be remembered that Congress put on the bill a rider which provided that no part of the \$600,000 which we were ready to appropriate should be used for the purpose of paying special deputies who were to supervise elections, as we on this side believed, in the interest of the Republican party.

"The President was not willing to receive the \$600,000 which we offered him upon the conditions we saw fit to prescribe, and the consequence was that, the President having vetoed the bill, we adjourned without making that appropriation. Now the Committee on Appropriations comes forward and presents a bill proposing to appropriate \$600,000 for the marshals and their regular deputies, without any condition annexed; but gentlemen on the other side of the House, if I understand their purposes, propose to amend the bill and put upon it a provision for the payment of the special deputy-marshals. And the argument is that the law authorizing the employment of these special deputies having been declared constitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, therefore we should make haste and appropriate money for their payment, and that an amendment should be put on this bill to that end.

"While I admit, the law having been declared constitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, Congress has no right to resist it, and while in the future it may be deemed right and proper to make appropriations for these special deputy-marshals, I hold that there is no duty imposed upon us requiring that we hasten into the presence as it were of said court with heads uncovered and feet unshod, saying: 'May it please your honors we are ready to do your bidding; to appropriate this money, and to postpone other important business.' These special deputy-marshals are *functus officio*. They are no longer in office, and there is no special necessity for haste in this matter. We want some time to deliberate on it. It may be that we can couple some other provisions with the act making this appropriation which will save us from the presence and dictation of these pimps and spies hereafter, and therefore we ask that you accept the \$600,000 we tender in good faith, and that you do not delay the passage of this bill by any offer on your part to put upon it an amendment such as is contemplated.

"It is true the Supreme Court of the United States has decided the case. Its connection with it has ceased; it can deal with it no further. It is, then, a matter purely for the consideration of Congress, whether it make that appropriation to-day, or whether it will make it at some future day, or whether it will make it at all.

"It may be the pleasure of this House to

amend the bill according to the views of gentlemen on the other side, and make the appropriation in this bill; but if it does not, then no injustice has been done, because the same question will come up some other time during the session when we can all discuss it and vote upon it according to our respective views. We say, therefore, you had better take the \$600,000 that is offered you in good faith and not undertake to encumber this bill with amendments. The purpose of the bill, not being a general but a special deficiency bill, is to meet cases of emergency. This is the view that the Committee on Appropriations has taken, and delay in passing the bill will undoubtedly work great detriment to individuals as well as to the Government. But no such argument can be made with regard to these special deputies, and the question in reference to their payment can be determined at any time hereafter. It is not urgent at this time."

Mr. Baker, of Indiana: "It has been argued that the legislation embodied in the Revised Statutes touching elections is unconstitutional on two grounds: first, because the Constitution does not prescribe the qualifications of electors, and hence that there are no national voters; and, second, because Congress has not the constitutional power to establish a system for the conduct of elections for Representatives. It must be conceded that if Congress has the power to *make or alter all the regulations touching Congressional elections*, it must have the power to enact these provisions of the statute in controversy, as the greater includes the less. It will be my purpose to show that Congress possesses the power, whenever it chooses to exert it, to provide an entire electoral system for Representatives.

"Under the Articles of Confederation the States had sole jurisdiction over the appointment of Representatives. They had the power, which was exerted by one of the States, to refuse to send Representatives to the Continental Congress. This was one of the seeds of dissolution existing under the confederacy which the framers of the Constitution undertook to remove. They undertook to form a more perfect Union, to establish a government of the people having within itself the power to perpetuate its own existence. They provided for the choice of Representatives by the people every two years, and prescribed who should be eligible as electors. The Constitution provides, in Article I, section 2:

"The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

"This provision fixes definitely who are electors, and their qualifications. The several States have prescribed the qualifications of electors for the most numerous branch of their State Legislatures. They have thus invested certain persons with the right of suffrage for

certain State purposes, while this right is denied to the residue of the people. But, being made voters for State purposes, the Federal Constitution expressly invests them with other electoral rights of a national character, namely, the right to vote for Federal Representatives. Now, if the persons who are made voters by State Constitutions and laws possessed the right by being voters in the State to vote for Representatives in Congress, then the framers of the Constitution are chargeable with folly in prescribing who should be electors for Representatives. If the fathers had not thought this provision of the Constitution conferred some new and additional right, what folly to place it in the Constitution! That the framers of the Constitution considered it important to provide who should be voters for Representatives in Congress is apparent from the language employed in No. LII of the 'Federalist':

"The definition of the right of suffrage is very justly regarded as a fundamental article of republican government. It was incumbent on the Convention, therefore, to *define and establish* this right in the Constitution. To have left it open for the occasional regulation of Congress would have been improper for the reason just mentioned. To have submitted it to the legislative discretion of the States would have been improper for the same reason, that it would have rendered too dependent on the State governments that branch of the Federal Government which ought to be dependent on the people alone.

"Of what use would it be to 'define and establish the right of suffrage,' if Congress can not protect the voter in its enjoyment?

"The Federal Constitution having secured to the electors in the several States the right to vote for Representatives, Congress must have the power to guarantee and protect this right. The States are not required to enact laws and provide tribunals to enforce the rights conferred by and existing only under the Federal Constitution. The State governments are provided to protect and enforce State rights; while the Federal Government is established to protect national rights. But, if it was a duty incumbent on the States to guarantee to each of its citizens the enjoyment of every right conferred by the Federal Constitution, still Congress would possess no method of compelling the States to secure this constitutional right to vote against denial or abridgment. It is contrary to sound principle to remit to the States the protection and enforcement of rights conferred by the Federal Constitution. It was upon this very rock that the Articles of Confederation so nearly made shipwreck of the Union. And, notwithstanding the perils and solemn warnings of the past, the State-rights Democrats of to-day would impel the nation on the same fatal rock. If Congress can not guarantee and protect the citizen in the free and peaceable enjoyment of his constitutional right to vote, then the right is a mere glittering generality, dependent for its enjoyment upon the interests or passions of

the party leaders controlling the States. Such is the modern doctrine of State rights—a doctrine which strikes a fatal blow at the power and supremacy of the nation. When the people of this country consent to surrender to the States the enforcement and protection of rights secured to them by the Federal Constitution, the dissolution of the Union can not be long postponed. Those lately engaged in armed rebellion and their sympathizers are now employing the delusive cry of centralization to blind the people to the fatal tendency of the new State-rights conspiracy. The triumph of these doctrines under the specious guise of State rights and local self-government would be fatal alike to liberty and union. But the power of Congress to enact laws to protect and guarantee the rights secured by the Constitution is delegated to it expressly:

“The Congress shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

“These are not the only provisions of the Constitution conferring upon Congress the power to guarantee and protect the citizen in his right to vote for Representatives. The first clause of section 4, Article I, of the Constitution confers this power. We copy it:

“The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at *any time* by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

“It has been strenuously argued that Congress can not make or alter the regulations touching the times, places, and manner of conducting elections unless the States fail or refuse to make appropriate regulations therefor. This claim is shown to be indispensable both by the debates in convention on this clause of the Constitution and by the express language of the clause itself. The words ‘Congress may at any time by law make or alter regulations’ touching the conduct of elections for Representatives are too clear and comprehensive to admit of doubt or debate. The power may be asserted by Congress at any time. Doubtless it was not contemplated that the power would be exerted by Congress unless an emergency arose which seemed to demand it. But Congress alone was made the judge at the time when and the extent to which it would legislate on this subject—whether it would provide exclusively for the election of Representatives, or exert only a portion of its power, leaving to the States a partial control of the elections.”

Mr. Ward, of Ohio: “My colleague [Mr. McMahon], in his speech opening the discussion upon this bill, made the announcement in substance, and it remains uncontradicted and not protested against by any one on his side of the House, first, that ‘we have not hitherto made, do not in this bill, and will not in any future bill, make any appropriation whatever

for supervisors or special deputy-marshals, so far as they have to do with Congressional elections.’ He asserts that it was not proper for any officer of the Government to appoint special deputy-marshals when no appropriation had been made for that specific purpose.

“Then further on he declares—I quote from his printed speech:

“And I desire to say that because the Supreme Court of the United States has decided that the election law is constitutional by a sort of eight-by-seven decision—and I mean by that a division apparently according to party lines (without impugning the good faith of any member of the Supreme Court, but to show how differently a legal question may appear to persons who have been educated in different political schools)—that although that court has decided the constitutionality of the law, that when we come, as legislators, to appropriate money, it is our duty to say, Is this law constitutional? or, if constitutional, is it a good law, and are we bound to appropriate money for it?”

“He undertakes, as will be seen, to throw contempt on that decision by styling it ‘a sort of eight-by-seven decision.’ I remind him that it is a seven-to-two decision, having been adopted by a larger number of the members of the court than the majority of the decisions of that tribunal. It is a decision of a broad, sweeping character, and declares that Congress may take the whole control of Congressional elections, or a partial control, as they choose; that the election law as it stands on the national statute-book is the supreme law of the land on that subject.

“More than that: the Supreme Court, not only in this case, but in another recent case, has made a declaration which ought to be engraven upon the minds and hearts of all the people of this country. And this is its substance:

“That a law of Congress interpenetrates and becomes a part of every law of every State of this Union to which its subject-matter is applicable, and is binding upon all people and covers every foot of our soil.

“This is the voice of the Constitution. Now, therefore, under this decision the election laws of the United States are the laws of every State of this Union. No judge of election, no State officer or other person connected with any Congressional election, no elector who offers his ballot at any such election can, with impunity, lift his hand or do any act against any of the provisions of these laws. They rest down upon Congressional elections in every State like the ‘casing air,’ broad and general, protecting with their dignity every act and penetrating with their authority every function of Congressional elections. They are the supreme law of the land on that subject.

“But now a Representative, speaking for the Democratic party in this House, rises, not with the plea which he could have made with some show of plausibility last year, that the law is unconstitutional, and that therefore they would not enforce it—but, with a constitutional law, declared so by the Supreme Court, covering him and filling the republic from end to end, reaching everywhere and covering every foot

of our soil where a Congressional election can be held—he rises in his place and declares that the Democratic party will not execute that law nor permit it to be obeyed.

“We who are the sworn law-makers of the nation, and ought to be examples of respect for and obedience to the law—we who, before we took our first step in legislation, swore before God and our country that we would support the supreme law of the land—we are now invited to become conspicuous leaders in the violation of the law. My colleague announces his purpose to break the law, and invites Congress to follow him in his assault upon it.

“Mr. Chairman, by far the most formidable danger that threatens the republic to-day is the spirit of law-breaking which shows itself in many turbulent and alarming manifestations. The people of the Pacific coast, after two years of wrestling with communism in the city of San Francisco, have finally grappled with this lawless spirit, and the leader of it was yesterday sentenced to penal servitude as a violator of the law. But what can we say to Dennis Kearney and his associates, if to-day we announce ourselves the foremost law-breakers of the country and set an example to all the turbulent and vicious elements of disorder to follow us?

“My colleague [Mr. McMahon] tries to shield his violation of the law behind a section of the statutes which provides that no disbursing or other officer shall make any contract involving the expenditure of money beyond what is appropriated for the purpose. I answer that I hold in my hand a later law, a later statute, which governs the restrictive law of which he speaks, which governs him and governs the courts. It is the election law itself.

“I invite attention briefly to its substance. Sections 2011 and 2012 of the Revised Statutes provide that upon the application of any two citizens of any city of more than twenty thousand inhabitants to have a national election guarded and scrutinized, the judge of the circuit court of the United States shall hold his court open during the ten days preceding the election. The law commands the judge of the court to do so.

“In the open court from day to day, and from time to time, the judge shall appoint, and, under the seal of the court, shall commission two citizens of different political parties who are voters within the precinct where they reside, to be supervisors of the election. That law is mandatory upon the judge. Should he refuse to obey, he can be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors in office. He must not stop to inquire whether an appropriation has been made to pay these supervisors. The rights of citizens are involved, and upon their application the judge must act.

“Again, section 2021 provides that on the application of two citizens the marshal of the United States shall appoint special deputy-marshals to protect the supervisors in the execu-

tion of their duty. And the law is mandatory upon the marshal. He must obey it, under the pains and penalties of the law. What then? When the supervisors and special deputy-marshals have been appointed, they find their duties plainly prescribed in the law. And then section 5521 provides that, if they neglect or refuse to perform fully all these duties enjoined upon them, they are liable to fine and imprisonment. They can not excuse their neglect by saying, ‘We will not act because Congress has not appropriated the money to pay us.’ All these officers are confronted by the imperial command of the law—first to the judge and marshal to appoint, then to the supervisor and deputy-marshal to act, and to act under the pains and penalties of fine and imprisonment. Impeachment enforces the obedience of the judge; fine and imprisonment the obedience of the supervisors and deputy-marshals.

“Now comes one other mandatory order: in the last section of this long chapter of legislation, the majestic command of the law is addressed both to Congress and the Treasury. It declares that there ‘shall be paid’ out of the Treasury five dollars per day to these officers as compensation for their services. Here too the law is equally imperious and mandatory; it addresses itself to the conscience of every member of this House, with only this difference: we can not be impeached for disobedience; we can not be fined or locked up in the penitentiary for voting ‘no,’ and refusing the appropriation; we can not be fined or imprisoned if we refuse to do our duty. And so, shielded by the immunity of his privilege as a Representative, my colleague sets the example to all officers and all people of deliberately and with clear-sighted purpose violating the law of the land.

“Thus he seeks to nullify the law. Thus he, hopes to thwart the nation’s ‘collected will.’”

Mr. McMahon: “I wish in all good faith to ask my colleague from Ohio [Mr. Garfield], who has read us all, and me particularly, a lecture, why it is that, on every political proposition upon which he undertakes to alarm the country and lecture the Democratic party, we find that in the past he advocated the very propositions we now make and pursued the very course which he now pretends so much to reprobate? Why is it? Will my colleague look to the history of the Republican party in the country, and particularly in the State of Ohio, with its long record of nullification on the question of the Dred Scott decision and the fugitive-slave law? Gentlemen on the other side are amused. Why? Do they object to my reference to those days? Is it because the Republican party was then only in its infancy, and that it pleads minority for what it did then? In those days actual resistance to the enforcement of the law was one of the cardinal points of the majority of the Republican party, a policy we have never advocated, nor practiced, nor endorsed.

“Or, do gentlemen claim that the great pub-

lie men of their party in that day were unsound statesmen, dangerous to the country and enemies to the Government? The judgment of an impartial public would be to-day in favor of the Republican leaders of twenty years ago in preference to those of to-day.

"When the record of gentlemen has been so different in the past from their present position, on the questions of the effect of decisions of the Supreme Court, the supremacy of Federal law, and riders to appropriation bills, are we to look upon them as reformed statesmen? Does my colleague desire to appear in that rôle? Has my colleague seen the error of his ways? Has he become convinced that in those days he and his party were wrong? Are you willing, gentlemen, to admit that to the country now? Or are we to draw the proper conclusion that you can change your side as the necessities and emergencies of party demand? In 1860 the Republican party was as powerful, as strong, as brainy, as full of great leaders, and as intent upon great purposes as it ever was in the history of this country; indeed, more so; for it had not then been debauched as it has been since by the unlimited possession of power; it had not been corrupted by the handling of millions or rather of thousands of millions of the public money without accountability except to itself. It was then a party for the equal rights of men; a party which a man might well respect, although he might not agree with it in its aims and purposes. In those days one of the corner-stones of the party was placed in the Chicago platform of 1860:

"That the maintenance inviolate of the rights of the States, and especially the right of each State to order and control its own domestic institutions according to its own judgment exclusively, is essential to that balance of powers on which the perfection and endurance of our political fabric depend; and we denounce the lawless invasion by armed force of the soil of any State or Territory, no matter under what pretext, as among the gravest of crimes.

"A similar enunciation of doctrine to-day, by any Democrat, would be denounced as hatred of the Federal Union and hostility to the Federal Government. Will you admit that in 1860 you were for the rights of the States because you possessed a majority of the State governments, and were not in possession of the Federal Government? Do you admit that you were wrong then but right now? I leave gentlemen to decide that before the American people. A party which can maintain both sides of the same important question, with equal vigor, depending only upon where its party interests may temporarily lie, is not well qualified for the position of monitor to any other party, nor are its teachings deserving of the attention of a serious people.

"Mr. Chairman, the ingenuity with which our friends on the other side evade the discussion of all economical questions that look to the real interests of the people is remarkable. When the Belknap investigation was first ordered, the cry went all over the country that

the 'rebel brigadiers' were assailing an honest Union soldier who had helped to put the rebellion down; and, although he was proved to have been guilty beyond all controversy, Republicans did all in their power to protect him. This is only one instance in the past. When we have now under discussion the question of how much money shall be appropriated for the Printing-Office—because the Public Printer has violated law in using up in eight months an appropriation intended for the whole fiscal year—when we discover that the appropriations for that department, if voted as the demands of the office now require, will make an increased expenditure of \$400,000 over former years, when charges of extravagance, inattention to public interests, squandering of the people's money are made, how are we met? Why, the gentleman from Ohio [Mr. Garfield] rises, and, in his dilettant way, says he will not waste any time on the discussion of the Printing-Office. That seems to him to be only a matter of a few hundred thousand dollars to the American people! I suppose, in view of the history of his party, he considers such a deficiency a very small matter. Perhaps it is. But it is the mission of the Democratic party at this time—and for that reason it has been kept in power—to look into the expenditure of the money of the people, no matter how small, and save wherever we can, no matter how small the sum may be.

"This purpose of the Democratic party to economize expenditures and expose the extravagance of the Administration can not be evaded by side issues. It does gentlemen no good to undertake at this late day to flaunt the bloody shirt before the American people. It might do, Mr. Chairman, in the days when our people were distressed, when men were out of employment, when there was no work to do, when our manufacturing establishments were stopped, when every interest and industry in the country was paralyzed, as the result of the policy of the party of gentlemen on the other side. But now if men are out of employment it is simply because the exigency of the occasion authorizes them to demand an increase of 10 or 20 per cent. over the wages of hard times. I say to gentlemen on the other side, when they come before the American people with that same worn-out, tattered, faded, bloody shirt, they mistake the temper of the American people. They will find that the people will put the seal of condemnation on that party which inaugurates these sectional discussions, tending to disturb the business of the country and to increase discord between the two sections.

"The business of the country demands quiet, and the people will have peace. Who teach the rising generation that they should hate their fellow-countrymen? If you put into the hands of the boys of our day the speeches of Republican politicians, they are taught that their natural enemies lie in the South, and the seeds of future civil wars are planted by design-

ing politicians for a mere temporary party advantage. Is this statesmanlike? Is this taking a broad view of the present needs of our country? Is it patriotic to foment divisions at home, to perpetuate sectional hatred, to weaken our country by intestine quarrels?

"Oh, I wish there was a statesman upon the other side? I hope gentlemen will permit me to finish my sentence. I know that we are all apt to imagine ourselves to be statesmen, and therefore gentlemen rebel when I seem to take away the right from any of them. I was going to qualify my statement, if gentlemen had given me time. There are statesmen on the other side of the House. I am not disputing that proposition, either as to my friend from Maine, or my colleague from Ohio. I was about to say to you what kind of statesmen I wish you had on the Republican side. I wish you had a statesman who was able to rise above fomenting all this petty political strife between the North and the South. I wish you had a statesman who would wave the banner of peace, as the President did, for a while, until resistance in his own party became too powerful. I wish there was one who could overlook the past and let this country prepare itself for the great difficulties through which it may have to pass in the next few years. They are difficulties growing out of our increasing greatness.

"What must the people and the rulers of other countries think when they see our so-called leaders, or those who claim to be such, endeavoring to keep alive sectional hate? If the people of this country want to learn any lesson rapidly it is that we are becoming not only the great power on this continent but a standing menace to the world. The success of our free institutions is a constant argument against the despotism of the Old World. Our products, our commerce, and our manufactures have almost brought Great Britain to her knees. Do you think, Mr. Chairman, that this can long be the case without forcing some combination against us? And is our country to be benefited by the appearance of division at home? Are we likely to have continued peace if we proclaim to foreign nations that we are divided; that one half of our people are against the Government; that there is no peace between the North and the South, even though the war has been over for fifteen years?

"A party that foment and proclaims these internal divisions and troubles, and asserts that one half of this country means to overthrow this Government, only invites an attack which some day sooner or later will come from the combined forces of foreign governments. In what position will we then be? Read the reports of your Government officers, and they will tell you that in Boston Harbor there is not a single gun which can keep out the iron-clads of Europe; that the harbor of New York is in the same condition; that there is not a harbor in the United States into which the iron-clads of Great Britain, of France, and of

Spain can not go and take possession of your cities.

"In the midst of these possible dangers, in the midst of the prosperity of our country, in the midst of the increase of business, in the midst of a desire on the part of the people to bury all sectional issues, when we ought to be shouting paeans for our prosperity, and uniting in common energy that nothing shall retard it, the Republican politician comes to the front with his shouts of hatred to the South, his denunciation of the Democratic party as an enemy to the country, as intending to seize the Government by force, if not duly elected by the people; and, as proof of his assertion and the propriety of his hate, he points to the remarkable fact that his pet special deputy-marshals of elections who controlled the polls in San Francisco are not to be paid the \$7,600 which is said to be due them.

"The attempt to unsettle the confidence of the people is atrocious. If successful it would paralyze business everywhere. And the pretense that the Democratic party intends to seize upon the Government under all circumstances comes with a bad grace from a party which robbed us once of our rights and seems disposed to do so again. Our submission to law is proved by the peaceful inauguration as President of one who was not actually chosen by the people.

"Now, sir, there is nothing in this bill which in any way prevents the full execution of the election laws to their fullest extent; nothing to prevent general deputy-marshals from doing duty at the polls; nothing to prevent a United States marshal from appointing as many general deputy-marshals as he pleases at any future election, or to prevent the marshals or their general deputies from arresting on election-day as many persons as they please and carrying them before commissioners where they can be tried. How, then, do we nullify these laws? We simply say that we will not give \$7,600 to pay your special deputy-marshals in California, because you had no authority to appoint them when no money was appropriated for that purpose.

"Now, I want to say to the gentleman again that the fact that the Supreme Court of the United States has decided a particular law to be constitutional is no reason why Congress shall be denounced as a nullifier because it fails to appropriate money under that particular law. What did the Supreme Court decide? Merely that the election laws are constitutional; that it was within the ordinary power of Congress to pass such laws? Did the Supreme Court decide that they were good laws? Did it decide that it is the duty of Congress to appropriate money to carry them out? Did the court decide that they are laws which ought to be carried out? By no means. I call for the reading of anything in the Supreme Court decision putting any obligation upon us in regard to that matter.

"I want to go a little further. My colleague says that we ought to appropriate money for this purpose in the future. It would not be proper on this bill; but, if it was, how much? Five thousand dollars? Gentlemen will say that is not enough, and we are nullifiers still. Ten thousand dollars? They will say that is not enough, and we are still nullifiers. Twenty thousand dollars? They will say that is not enough, and we are nullifiers in spite of the amount voted. The fact is, we are always to be called nullifiers unless we meet the views of the Republican party.

"Congress, Mr. Chairman, holds it in its own power to say for what purposes it will appropriate the public money. We are the judges; the Constitution leaves it with us only. It would be very foolish for us to appropriate money for an unconstitutional law, because in attempting to carry it out the country would be involved in confusion. But there are plenty of laws upon the statute-book that are constitutional, for which Congress fails as a matter of fact to appropriate money. Now, I do not speak for the Democratic party and have not spoken for that party, having no authority to do so; but I repeat what I said before, that I doubt whether the Democratic party ever will vote to pay five dollars a day to special deputy-marshals so long as the law stands in its present shape."

Mr. Springer, of Illinois: "On behalf of the Committee on Elections I now offer the amendment of which notice has been given."

The amendment was read, as follows:

Amend the amendment by adding thereto the following:

For special deputy-marshals of elections, the sum of \$7,600: *Provided*, That hereafter special deputy-marshals of elections, and general deputy-marshals, for performing any duties in reference to any election, shall receive the sum of two dollars per day in full for their compensation; and that all appointments of such special deputy-marshals or of general deputy-marshals having any duty to perform in respect to any election shall be made by the judge of the circuit court of the United States for the district in which such marshals are to perform their duties, or by the district judge, in the absence of the circuit judge, and not less than two nor more than three appointments shall be made for any voting precinct where such appointments are required to be made, and the persons so appointed shall be of different political parties, of good character, and able to read and write the English language, and shall be well-known residents of the voting precinct in which their duties are to be performed.

Mr. Finley: "Now, I desire to say, in the five minutes that I have, a few words in reference to the marshals employed in the last Presidential election. In that election there were employed 11,615 special deputy-marshals, of which number 10,874 were placed in Democratic precincts, as shown by the report of the Attorney-General.

"Now, I want to say that I am in favor of this amendment, protesting as I always have and always will against the appointment of these special marshals as a partisan outrage; pro-

testing against a law that has been used and abused constantly for partisan purposes. I will vote for the amendment of the gentleman from Illinois, for the reason that it is a step in the direction for protecting ourselves from the outrages which we are powerless to prevent in these appointments. When I look into the report of the Attorney-General and analyze it in connection with testimony relating to the kind of men used in those precincts for partisan purposes, I feel inclined to do anything that I can by my voice and vote to procure a fair election at the polls and to procure relief from the political bummers appointed by the Republican party and paid out of the Federal Treasury.

"Now, under the amendment of the gentleman from Illinois, there can be a mitigation of that kind of outrage in this: that instead of five hundred or six hundred Republican marshals, appointed at the polls, as in some cases—for instance, one precinct in Georgia had one hundred and three, one in Missouri had several hundred—instead of that number paid out of the Federal Treasury, every one of them a Republican and a partisan, we can under the amendment of the gentleman from Illinois have a decent number of decent people to attend to the duties."

Mr. Garfield offered the following amendment as a substitute:

For special deputy-marshals of elections, the sum of \$7,600: *Provided*, That hereafter special deputy-marshals of elections and general deputy-marshals, for performing any duties in reference to any election, shall receive the sum of five dollars per day in full for their compensation; and that all appointments of such special deputy-marshals or of general deputy-marshals having any duty to perform in respect to any election shall be made by the judge of the circuit court of the United States for the district in which such marshals are to perform their duties, or by the district judge in the absence of the circuit judge; said special deputies to be appointed in equal numbers from the different political parties.

Mr. Garfield: "I modify the substitute further by striking out the words 'and general deputy-marshals,' as the amendment ought to relate to special deputies only."

Mr. Simonton, of Tennessee, offered an amendment to the substitute of Mr. Garfield, as follows:

Strike out "§5" and insert "§2"; and after the word "judge" insert:

And not less than two nor more than three appointments shall be made for any voting precinct where appointments are required to be made; and the persons so appointed shall be of different political parties; and, if there are more than two political parties having tickets to be voted for, no two of said deputy-marshals shall be appointed from the same party. And the persons so appointed shall be persons of good character, able to read and write the English language, and shall be well-known residents of the voting precinct in which their duties are to be performed.

The committee divided; and the tellers reported—yeas 117, nays 114.

So the amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

The Chairman: "The Clerk will report the substitute as it would read if amended."

The Clerk read as follows:

For special deputy-marshals of elections, the sum of \$7,600: *Provided*, That hereafter special deputy-marshals of elections, for performing any duties in reference to any election, shall receive the sum of five dollars per day in full for their compensation; and that all appointments of such special deputy-marshals having any duty to perform in respect to any election shall be made by the judge of the circuit court of the United States for the district in which such marshals are to perform their duties, or by the district judge of the district in the absence of the circuit judge.

And not less than two nor more than three appointments shall be made for any voting precinct where such appointments are required to be made; and the persons so appointed shall be of different political parties; and, if there are more than two political parties having tickets to be voted for, no two of said deputy-marshals shall be appointed from the same party. And the persons so appointed shall be persons of good character, able to read and write the English language, and shall be well-known residents of the voting precinct in which their duties are to be performed; said special deputies to be appointed in equal numbers from the different political parties.

Mr. Springer: "Is the question pending on my amendment to the amendment of the gentleman from Ohio as amended?"

The Chairman: "It is; and the gentleman from Tennessee has been recognized to discuss the amendment."

Mr. Simonton: "Mr. Chairman, I trust the substitute as amended by my amendment will be incorporated in the bill and become the law of the land."

"Sir, I regard the Federal election laws as hurtful and dangerous, though they have been declared constitutional by the proper tribunal. It is not every constitutional measure that is wise or beneficial or worthy to remain on the statute-book. The election laws are, in my judgment, dangerous innovations on the system of government our fathers gave us; they are calculated in their nature to and do disarrange and destroy the nicely adjusted balance of power between the States and the Federal Government. These election laws are violative of all the honored precedents of this country in the matter of elections for nearly a century. And, as they stand now, they confer on the Administration and its partisans a power to control elections, and consequently to perpetuate its reign indefinitely, that is simply monstrous, and it seems to me a wonder that a free people, alive to the dangers that threaten their liberties, permit them to remain on the statute-book a single day un repealed."

"Indeed, the Representatives of this House, who are the exponents of the popular will of the republic, since the 18th of last March have repeatedly passed an act repealing these election laws, placing the elections back just where our fathers put them, under the guardianship and protection of the people and local authorities, where a long experience has shown to be the safest and most sacred place, freest from frauds and corruptions; but these acts, thus repealing the election laws, have uniformly met the Executive veto, and the will of the

people thus voiced in legislative acts has again and again been annulled. The Republican party, that has contended for keeping on the statute-book these unholy laws, has not dared to do so without expressing a willingness to correct some of their worst deformities. From the President down they have professed a willingness to amend and alter, so as to deprive them of what even they must admit to be unfair and dangerous operations. I desire, for one, to put these professions to the test of sincerity. And, besides, it is always wise and prudent to modify and make less objectionable and less dangerous that which we can not remove altogether. If an apple were in my keeping that I could not rid myself of, and yet I might remove the worst of its reeking and offensive corruption and deodorize the remainder, it would be folly not to do so. And, although I would most gladly remove entirely the dangerous power conferred in these Federal election laws by repealing them outright, since we can not do this, as past experience has shown, I shall vote to cut off as much of this dangerous power as I can and shield as far as I may be able the ballot-box and the purity of elections from the power of corrupt and debauched partisans, and from the absolute control of a party and an Administration whose past history shows them to be reckless and defiant, and unscrupulous of the methods and means by which they retain possession of power."

Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee: "Mr. Chairman, I would like to have the attention of the House, and particularly of my Democratic colleagues, upon this proposition. I shall vote for the pending proposition, and in doing so do not concede or mean to concede anything from the position I have heretofore held of the right of Congress, the representatives of the people, to withhold appropriations to the execution of laws they believe to be either unconstitutional, unwise, or unjust."

"But, Mr. Chairman, the attention of my Democratic friends for one moment. We find these laws upon the statute-books. If they are not modified, the administrators of the Republican party in the coming Presidential and Congressional elections can appoint *ad infinitum* deputy-marshals throughout the country. And in doing so, if we believe that they will use them for partisan advantage or for partisan purposes, they can so conduct the election as to secure a majority of the next House, and by securing that majority provide payment for all the marshals and deputy-marshals they may choose to appoint. That brings me to a practical question, and I say here in looking forward now at this moment to the responsibility which may rest upon me and every member of this House during the months of January and February next, when we shall determine who has been fairly, legally, and constitutionally elected President of the United States, and when the distinguished, if I may call him the conservative, member of the Republican party [Mr. Garfield] comes

forward and tenders to the House a compromise on this question, and that compromise, as we have amended it, provides that we shall have a fair and impartial election next November—I say we owe it to ourselves and to the country, its peace and future harmony, to accept the modification and enact it into a law, and let us have under it a peaceful and impartial election. In doing so, we abandon no principle, but govern ourselves by the practical difficulties which we find in our way.

“Mr. Chairman, I have been taught by the logic of events if nothing else; I have been taught in this country that for remedying vicious legislation there are but two appeals under the laws and the Constitution. The first is an appeal to the courts of the country, and the second is an appeal to the ballot-box. Grant, if you please, the courts have declared the law to be constitutional. We have our reserved rights of withholding appropriations, as the representatives of the people, as the remedy. We have, second, the ballot-box to which we can appeal. Take good care—I appeal to the lovers of the country—take good care that we have a fair, impartial election, and I stand here in view of my responsibility and my position as a representative of the people, and say that whoever is elected, fairly and impartially elected, shall be inaugurated by my vote, come from whatever quarter he may. That is all I ask. That is all that should be granted.”

Mr. Springer: “The question pending is on the amendment of the gentleman from Tennessee.”

The committee divided; and there were—yeas 93, nays 15.

So the amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Randall, of Pennsylvania (the Speaker): “We are ready to meet that issue. We say that if special deputy-marshals are to be used at elections, whatever may be the opinion as to the constitutionality of such a law, those officers should be divided between the two or three political parties contending at such election. We say that when we come to vote the money to carry out such law we will not vote it to be used for any partisan purposes.

“And in endeavoring to modify that law here to-day we do no more than to ask that it shall be made to exercise its powers upon all alike, and that those who administer the law shall be drawn from the great body of the people, without reference to party associations or affiliations.”

Mr. Garfield, of Ohio: “We are equals here, each having rights equal to every other, and nobody having any authority to bind any but himself. With that preface, I will speak for myself.

“The first object which I try to keep before my mind in legislation is, to be right. And on this question of the election laws, during the long and heated session of debate last summer, in which all sorts of accusations were made

against them by gentlemen on the other side, there was made but one lodgment in my mind of a just criticism upon them. There was one charge made by the other side, and in so far as it was true I consider it a just objection to the law. It was that the law had been used, or was capable of being used, to fill election precincts with men of one party whose time might be employed at the public expense for party electioneering purposes.

“I say in so far as that law can be so used, to that extent it is unjust; and at all times and on all proper occasions I have declared, and I now declare myself, willing to modify the law so that the alleged abuse can not take place. That I say for myself, and will continue to say it. No other valid objection to this law was, in my judgment, made by anybody during the last session of this Congress or since.

“Now, what has happened? In the first place, on this side we objected and do still object, with entire unanimity, to riders on appropriation bills.

“We did all in our power to prevent any rider; but the rider was ruled in order. What then? I hold it always to be my duty to help make a pending measure as decent and harmless as possible, and then we can and doubtless will vote against its final adoption because it is a rider. Yesterday, distinctly disclaiming the right to speak for anybody but myself, I offered a substitute for the proposed amendment, by providing that the special deputy-marshals having their fair pay at five dollars a day should be appointed by the courts, and equally from the political parties, so as to prevent the only evil that could be justly complained of. I will vote to substitute that for the pending proposition, if I vote alone on either or both sides of the House.

“But what has been done? Gentlemen on the other side not only did not accept my substitute but voted it down, and substituted for it a proposition containing these provisions: First, that the compensation of these deputy-marshals shall be cut down to two dollars a day; second, that there shall never be more than three of them in any one election precinct; and, third, that they shall not be employed more than three days, even though the registration under the law of the State lasts ten days. Now, what does this mean? It means that under the pretense of enforcing the election law for scrutinizing and guarding the polls, though there may be a thousand rioters around the polls seeking to break up the election, yet there shall be but three men empowered to keep the peace of the United States against the mob. In other words, the pending amendment proposes to make this law a notice in advance to the mob to come and overwhelm the keepers of the peace and make hell, rather than order, reign and rule at our national elections. If this were a part of the best bill in the world, I would not vote for it, because it cuts the vitals out of the law and makes its enforcement an impossibility.

"But, if you will take the naked proposition that I offered, I will vote for it as a substitute, if I vote alone. I will vote for it as a betterment of the pending amendment, though I say again that it is not proper to put it on an appropriation bill; it is altogether improper. But when an amendment is pending I will vote for the betterment of it. I did not offer my substitute as a compromise. On the question of what I believe just and right I make no compromise anywhere; but I do believe that it strengthens the election law to free it from every ground of charge that it is partisan or can be used for merely partisan purposes. I want the law to insure, so far as law can do it, fair, honest, and peaceable elections, and I want it for no other purpose."

Mr. McLane: "As was said by the gentleman from Pennsylvania [Mr. Randall], the issue in this debate has very much narrowed. There is now no longer any such question at issue as was made by the gentleman from Connecticut [Mr. Hawley], distinguishing between the original bill and a rider to an appropriation bill. The subject before the committee for consideration is the appropriation bill, and the amendment of the gentleman from Ohio, on my right, is an amendment to this appropriation bill. It is, therefore, the appropriation bill prepared, reported, and perfected in pursuance of the rules of this House, and the gentleman from Ohio has well explained, whatever might be his opinion as to the propriety of legislating in this manner, he felt it to be his duty to make the proposition embraced in the bill as reasonable as he could."

"Now, whatever may be the differences of opinion here, however unwilling some gentlemen on this side of the House may be to accept these supervisors and marshals and deputy-marshals under these election laws, or however resolute may be the determination of gentlemen on that side to admit of no amendment at all to these laws as they now exist, or to agree to any compromise whatever on this question, and however much compromise may be repelled and despised by gentlemen on that side, the issue is, nevertheless, a compromise as it is presented in the pending amendment. And as the gentleman from Ohio [Mr. Garfield] on his side is willing to take the marshals in equal numbers from the parties engaged at the polls, so the gentleman from Ohio [Mr. Ewing] on this side has avowed his willingness to accept such an arrangement and such an adjustment, and the other gentleman from Ohio on this side, who reported the bill [Mr. McMahon], concurs in the same view of the question."

"I, for one, do not feel I subordinate in any degree my opposition to the election laws as a whole as well as in detail, if I also take that compromise. I recognize perfectly well that the law has been adjudicated to be a constitutional law, and I am perfectly at liberty to think of the court as the gentleman from New York thinks of the court, yet it is not less my duty to respect the mandate of the court and accept

its adjudication of questions arising under these laws, whether it be a bad court or not, whether it be a court entitled to my confidence and respect or not."

Mr. McMahon: "I propose an amendment to strike out all after the appropriation of \$7,600, and insert the following:

"Strike out all after '\$7,600' and insert:

"Provided, That hereafter special deputy-marshals of elections for performing any duties in reference to any election shall receive the sum of five dollars per day in full for their compensation; and that all appointments of such special deputy-marshals shall be made by the judge of the circuit court of the United States for the district in which such marshals are to perform their duties, or by the district judge in the absence of the circuit judge; said special deputies to be appointed in equal numbers from the different political parties."

The question was taken; and the amendment to the substitute was agreed to upon a division—yeas 106, nays 53.

The Chairman: "The question is now upon the substitute as amended."

Mr. Randall (the Speaker): "I would like to offer a further amendment; to add as follows:

"And the persons so appointed shall be persons of good moral character, and shall be well-known residents of the voting precincts in which their duties are to be performed."

The amendment was agreed to. The proposition as amended was adopted. The bill was then reported to the House with the amendments, which were concurred in. The bill was then passed—yeas 111, nays 104, not voting 77—as follows:

YEAS—Atherton, Atkins, Bachman, Beltzhoover, Berry, Bicknell, Bland, Bliss, Blount, Bouck, Bright, Cabell, Clardy, John B. Clark, Cobb, Coffroth, Cole-
rick, Cook, Covert, Cravens, Culberson, Joseph J. Davis, Lowndes H. Davis, De La Matyr, Dibrell, Dickey, Ellis, Evins, Field, Finley, Forney, Frost, Geddes, Gibson, Gillette, Goode, Gunter, N. J. Hammond, John T. Harris, Hatch, Henkle, Henry, Herbert, Herndon, Hostetler, House, Hull, Hunton, Hutchins, Johnston, Kenna, Kimmel, King, Kitchen, Klotz, Ladd, Lewis, Manning, Benjamin F. Martin, Edward L. Martin, McMahon, McMillin, Mills, Morrison, Morse, Muldrow, Murch, Myers, New, Nicholls, O'Connor, O'Reilly, Persons, Phelps, Philips, Phister, Poehler, Reagan, J. S. Richardson, Robertson, Rothwell, Samford, Sawyer, Scales, Shelley, Simonton, O. R. Singleton, Slemmons, Speer, Springer, Steele, Stevenson, Talbott, Taylor, P. B. Thompson, Tillman, R. W. Townsend, Tucker, Upson, Vance, Waddill, Warner, Weaver, Wellborn, Wells, Whitthorne, Thomas Williams, Willis, Wilson, Wright, Casey Young—111.

NAYS—N. W. Aldrich, William Aldrich, Anderson, Armfield, Ballou, Barber, Bayne, Bingham, Blackburn, Blake, Bowman, Brewer, Briggs, Brigham, Burrows, Butterworth, Calkins, Camp, Cannon, Carpenter, Caswell, Claflin, Conger, Converse, Cowgill, George R. Davis, Horace Davis, Deering, Dunnell, Dwight, Einstein, Errett, Farr, Ferdon, Fisher, Ford, Fort, Frye, Garfield, Godshalk, John Hammond, Benjamin W. Harris, Hawk, Hawley, Hayes, Hazelton, Henderson, Histock, Hooker, Houk, Humphrey, Hurd, James, Jones, Knott, Lindsey, Marsh, Joseph J. Martin, Mason, McCoid, McKenzie, McKinley, Miles, Monroe, Morton, Neal, Newberry, Norcross, Osmer, Overton, Pacheco, Hage, Pierce, Reed, Rice, D. P. Richardson, Robeson, Robinson, Daniel L. Russell, W. A. Russell, Thomas Ryan, Shallen-

berger Sherwin, A. Herr Smith, William E. Smith, Starin, Stone, Thomas, W. G. Thompson, Amos Townsend, Oscar Turner, Tyler, J. T. Updegraff, Thomas Updegraff, Valentine, Van Aernam, Voorhis, Wait, Washburn, C. G. Williams, Willits, Walter A. Wood, Yocum, Thomas L. Young—104.

Nor Voting—Acklen, Aiken, Bailey, Baker, Barlow, Beale, Belford, Boyd, Bragg, Browne, Buckner, Caldwell, Carlisle, Chalmers, Chittenden, Alvah A. Clark, Clymer, Cox, Crapo, Crowley, Daggett, Davidson, Deuster, Dick, Dunn, Elam, Ewing, Felton, Forsythe, Hall, Harmer, Haskell, Heilman, Hill, Horr, Hubbell, Jorgensen, Joyce, Keifer, Kelley, Ketcham, Killinger, Lapham, Le Fevre, Loring, Lounsbery, Lowe, McCook, McGowan, McLane, Miller, Mitchell, Money, Muller, O'Brien, O'Neill, Orth, Pound, Prescott, Price, Richmond, Ross, John W. Ryan, Sapp, J. W. Singleton, Hezekiah B. Smith, Sparks, Stephens, Thomas Turner, Urner, Van Voorhis, Ward, White, Whiteaker, Wilber, Wise, Fernando Wood—77.

The bill was reported to the Senate on March 31st.

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, moved to amend by striking out the proviso relating to special deputy-marshals. The amendment was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Anthony, Baldwin, Blaine, Booth, Bruce, Cameron of Pennsylvania, Cameron of Wisconsin, Carpenter, Dawes, Ferry, Hamlin, Ingalls, Kellogg, Kirkwood, Logan, McMillan, Morrill, Paddock, Platt, Rollins, Saunders, Windom—22.

NAYS—Bailey, Bayard, Beck, Butler, Call, Cockrell, Coke, Davis of West Virginia, Farley, Garland, Gordon, Groome, Hampton, Harris, Herford, Hill of Georgia, Jonas, Jones of Florida, Kernan, Lamar, McDonald, Morgan, Pendleton, Pryor, Randolph, Ransom, Saulsbury, Slater, Vance, Voorhees, Wallace, Whyte, Williams, Withers—34.

ABSENT—Allison, Blair, Burnside, Conkling, Davis of Illinois, Eaton, Edmunds, Grover, Hill of Colorado, Hoar, Johnston, Jones of Nevada, McPherson, Maxey, Plumb, Sharon, Teller, Thurman, Vest, Walker—20.

The disagreements between the two Houses on other points were settled by a conference committee, and the bill, having passed the Senate, was sent to the President. He returned it to the House with the following message:

To the House of Representatives:

After mature consideration of the bill entitled "An act making appropriations to supply certain deficiencies in the appropriations for the service of the Government for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, and for other purposes," I return it to the House of Representatives, in which it originated, with my objections to its passage.

The bill appropriates about \$8,000,000, of which over \$600,000 is for the payment of fees of United States marshals, and of the general and special deputy-marshals, earned during the current fiscal year, and their incidental expenses. The appropriations made in the bill are needed to carry on the operations of the Government, and to fulfill its obligations for the payment of money long since due to its officers for services and expenses essential to the execution of their duties under the laws of the United States. The necessity for these appropriations is so urgent, and they have been already so long delayed, that if the bill before me contained no permanent or general legislation unconnected with these appropriations it would receive my prompt approval. It contains, however, provisions which materially change, and, by implication, repeal, important parts of the laws for the regulation of the United States elections. These laws have, for several years past, been the subject of vehement political controversy, and have been denounced as unnecessary, oppressive, and unconstitutional. On the other hand, it has been main-

tained, with equal zeal and earnestness, that the election laws are indispensable to fair and lawful elections, and are clearly warranted by the Constitution. Under these circumstances to attempt in an appropriation bill the modification or repeal of these laws is to annex a condition to the passage of needed and proper appropriations which tends to deprive the Executive of that equal and independent exercise of discretion and judgment which the Constitution contemplates.

The objection to the bill, therefore, to which I respectfully ask your attention, is that it gives a marked and deliberate sanction, attended by no circumstances of pressing necessity, to the questionable and, as I am clearly of opinion, the dangerous practice of tacking upon appropriation bills general and permanent legislation. This practice opens a wide door to hasty, inconsiderate, and sinister legislation. It invites attacks upon the independence and constitutional powers of the Executive by providing an easy and effective way of constraining Executive discretion. Although of late this practice has been resorted to by all political parties, when clothed with power, it did not prevail until forty years after the adoption of the Constitution, and it is confidently believed that it is condemned by the enlightened judgment of the country. The States which have adopted new Constitutions during the last quarter of a century have generally provided remedies for the evil. Many of them have enacted that no law shall contain more than one subject, which shall be plainly expressed in its title. The Constitutions of more than half of the States contain substantially this provision, or some other of like intent and meaning. The public welfare will be promoted in many ways by a return to the early practice of the Government, and to the true rule of legislation, which is that every measure should stand upon its own merits.

I am firmly convinced that appropriation bills ought not to contain any legislation not relevant to the application or expenditure of the money thereby appropriated, and that by a strict adherence to this principle an important and much-needed reform will be accomplished.

Placing my objection to the bill on this feature of its frame, I forbear any comment upon the important general and permanent legislation which it contains, as matter for specific and independent consideration.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, May 4, 1880.

The appropriation bill was finally passed without the clause relating to the special deputy-marshals. A separate bill relating to marshals subsequently passed both Houses, and was vetoed by the President. The veto was not considered by the House or entered upon the records.

In the House, on April 10th, the bill making appropriations for the Army was considered.

Mr. Sparks: "Mr. Chairman, I propose to occupy the time of the committee for only a moment. The question of 'troops at the polls' occupied the time of this House in the last Congress for many weeks. It, perhaps, precipitated the extra session, in which the subject was discussed for months. The question originally before the House was this: whether or not a statute allowing the Army to be used by order of its Commander-in-Chief, or those controlling it, at the polls at elections in the States, to control or interfere with those elections, should be wiped out by repeal. A bill unobjectionable, so far as appropriations for the Army were concerned, with this proviso added to it, passed the House of Repre-

sentatives at the last session of the last Congress. It was stricken out in the Senate. A conference of the two Houses was had. There was a failure of agreement by that conference; the term of the Congress expired, and the bill failed. In the extra session a bill embracing the same provisions was introduced, discussed for months, passed by this House, passed by the Senate, and sent to the acting President of the United States, by whom it was vetoed. The same proposition was afterward brought in as an independent measure, unconnected with appropriations, and was fully discussed, passed by the House and by the Senate, and was again vetoed by the Executive. After all this there was added to the Army appropriation bill a clause identical with this amendment, namely :

"That no money appropriated in this act is appropriated or shall be paid for the subsistence, equipment, transportation, or compensation of any portion of the Army of the United States to be used as a police force to keep the peace at the polls at any election held within any State.

"This, of course, did not propose to repeal any law ; it was simply a prohibition upon the use of the Army or a condition that the appropriations should not apply if the Army should be thus used. This was adopted nearly unanimously. Those whom we on this side recognize as the leaders of the other side acceded to it. It was discussed but little, and when the question was taken there were—yeas 172, nays 31, not voting 83.

"Of the members voting upon this proposition, but twelve Republican and nineteen Democratic members voted against it. Now, it seems to me that when a proposition so mild and inoffensive as this has so lately and so unanimously met the concurring sentiment of both sides of this House, it is hardly reasonable and certainly not profitable to enter now into any further discussion of it.

"Mr. Chairman, this proposition does not rise to the measure of my demands by any manner of means. No, sir, this tame, cowardly amendment does not come up to that standard of legislation which (had I the power) I would here and now unyieldingly insist upon. I would wipe out this un-American, anti-democratic, villainous statute, which owes its existence to the inspirations of fanaticism and to an era of hate ; one which disgraces the statute-book, is a shameful parody on republican government, and an insult to the sovereign people of the country !"

Mr. Conger : "Will the gentleman state on which side the 'hate' and 'fanaticism' were?"

Mr. Sparks : "I decline to answer questions. With this I am done. And, now, having occupied five minutes of time to say this, I hope it will end the discussion so far as this side of the House is concerned."

Mr. Hawley, of Connecticut : "Mr. Chairman, I believe we have before us one of the most important questions which has agitated

Congress for years ; not altogether included in the simple amendment which the Committee on Military Affairs has proposed, but in the general policy of which that is a part ; and chiefly, I may say, in the evident determination of the ruling majority of this House to insist upon forcing upon us political riders on appropriation bills. I think that involves a great constitutional right, involves a complete revolution in deliberative legislation. The amendment declares :

"That no money appropriated in this act is appropriated or shall be paid for the subsistence, equipment, transportation, or compensation of any portion of the Army of the United States to be used as a police force to keep the peace at the polls at any election held within any State.

"Now, it is a little difficult to construe that so as to get at the precise meaning of the gentlemen who invented and composed it. It does not say that the Army shall not be paid its full rations, its full allowance for clothing, for transportation, for arms, and all the purposes for which the money is given in the bill. None of it is withheld. It does not even say that the Army shall not be used as a police force to keep the peace. It only says that none of this money shall be used for that. No one doubts the power of the President of the United States to put the Army anywhere he pleases within the limits of our land. He has the right to accumulate two companies, a regiment, ten thousand men, if he chooses, at New York, at Hartford, at Cincinnati, or at Chicago. He is bound to have them wherever he has reason to suppose that the laws and Constitution may be defied. You can not question the motive with which he places men at any particular point. You may say he has what you call a political motive, and we may say this motive is to see that the laws shall be obeyed in any emergency. He may have reason to expect that bad men are about to defy the Constitution and the laws beyond the power of the civil authority to subdue, and therefore he has placed the Army in such a position. You have not, then, forbidden him to use the Army in any way he sees fit under his views of constitutional law. You only intimate that the Army shall not be used as a police force.

"But, as I said, the more important question concerns the alleged right to place general legislation on appropriation bills. It is a persistent endeavor to incorporate here a revolutionary policy, a policy revolutionary of the parliamentary history of Great Britain and of the United States. It is subversive of the freedom of debate, of the freedom of voting.

"What is the use of a discussion of this amendment, if we are to be absolutely compelled to take it? The Army appropriation bill is indispensable to the life of the Government ; the amendment is a political and partisan measure which could wait an indefinite time and could be better discussed indepen-

dently. What good does it do to make argument against this amendment, if it is absolutely certain to pass? The Democrats say that the Army shall not live without it, and we say the Army must live. There can be no freedom of debate or vote. It is our duty and only resort to vote against any political amendment and vote against any appropriation bill containing a political amendment, until this practice shall have been abandoned.

"It is a coercion of the Senate. We do not permit the Senate to originate revenue bills, and it is our claim that the Senate shall not originate appropriation bills, though it may amend those that have originated in the House. But what freedom of debate will the Senate have when political amendments are put on appropriation bills in the House, and it is told by the House that the money can not be granted without those amendments?

"In England the House of Lords discovered this one hundred and seventy years ago. During the long revolutionary period, before the advent of William of Orange, the British Parliament tried all manner of revolutionary pretexts to carry their purposes. After the government was fairly established in 1688, the House of Lords put its foot on this particular practice, and protested, in a rule which remains upon the books, and will remain there, that such practices are subversive of the Constitution and destructive of the rights of the House of Lords.

"Our Senate has taken precisely that ground before this, when a Republican majority in the House of Representatives unwisely and unconstitutionally undertook to do precisely this very thing in connection with the use of the Army in Kansas, and brought on an extra session. And the discussion in the Senate showed Republicans and Democrats, the ablest and best men in the country, arguing against this policy precisely in the line that we, the Republicans, argue against it to-day. The Senate becomes a nullity, the Executive becomes a nullity, the House of Representatives, so far as the minority is concerned, becomes a nullity; and the whole Government is in the temporary majority, or rather the majority of a caucus of the majority. Under this system seventy-five men in this House may absolutely rule this nation. According to the discipline which prevails upon the other side, the majority would all vote with the majority of their caucus; and the majority of the caucus would tell them what political legislation to pass upon an appropriation bill. Then the minority of the House would be helpless; the Senate would be helpless; the Executive would be helpless. It is logically, clearly, distinctly a revolution in free government, and is to be resisted accordingly."

Mr. Robeson, of New Jersey: "Mr. Chairman, I would be glad to have the amendment reported."

The Clerk read as follows:

"SECTION 2. That no money appropriated in this act is appropriated or shall be paid for the subsistence, equipment, transportation, or compensation of any portion of the Army of the United States to be used as a police force to keep the peace at the polls at any election held within any State."

Mr. Robeson: "By a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, the highest and ultimate tribunal of judicial judgment under the organization of our Government, it has been declared 'that the Government of the United States may, by means of physical force exercised through its official agents, execute, on every foot of American soil, the powers and the functions which belong to it. This necessarily involves the power to command obedience to its laws, and hence the power to keep the peace to that extent.' This is the inevitable, incontrovertible result of right reasoning from established principles. This declares the principle on this subject of the Constitution of our country (a principle which lies at the foundation of all Anglo-Saxon government), and these are the conclusions which follow inevitably from it. All laws of Congress are, and must be held to be, made in the light of those principles which have been settled, adjudicated, and declared by the highest tribunal of the country; and this law, if it becomes a law, must mean and be understood to mean just what is permitted by this declaration; otherwise, if not unconstitutional, it is at least in defiance of constitutional command, and in derogation of constitutional duty.

"This amendment looks to, and is meant to control, the execution of United States law on election-day. Need I pause to say to you, citizens, Representatives, Americans, that if there be a day in the calendar when the laws should have full sway, when that atmosphere of perfect peace and perfect liberty which can only be found in the enjoyment of freedom under the perfect control of law shall surround us and our action like the 'all-incasing air,' that day is the one day which is set apart by the laws of our country, on which the freemen who are to govern this continent act in their individual capacity for themselves, and set in motion, primarily, the political machinery of our Government? We are so familiar with their action on that day that we do not appreciate its significance and force. The orderly gathering together on election-day of the free voters of a great republic, with a continent as an empire and freedom as a heritage, and there exercising their political will under the protection of law, supreme, powerful, efficient, and all-pervading, to keep the peace for the perfect exercise of that will, is as sublime a spectacle in government as the world has ever seen. To accomplish that result, all the agencies of political progress and civilization have culminated here on our shores. That is the day of American freedom, that union of liberty and law which is our heritage, not the day of its celebration, but the day of its exercise. That is the time and there is the place when and where

the American citizen impresses for himself, and not through any representative, his will upon American policy and government. There and then he casts his vote.

"If the laws of the country are to be executed, and for that purpose its peace preserved at all, will you make an exception of election-day? Does the Democratic party of this country choose by its action to say, 'We will reluctantly execute the laws; we will, for very shame, maintain peace; we will sustain the Government on every day except on election-day, but upon that occasion, when the freemen of the country desire freely to execute their will, and without let or hindrance to impress their power upon the Government of the country, we can not afford to keep the peace of the United States?'

Mr. Keifer, of Ohio: "Mr. Chairman, this proposed amendment would, in my opinion, if literally carried out, have the effect to annul the appropriation for the Army to the extent that no part of it could be used to keep the peace at the polls. To use troops in aid of the civil power, all authorities concur in holding, is to use them as a police force. While troops of the United States are being so used, they may possibly be said to be used as an army, but they are none the less used as a police force. The very language, Mr. Chairman, of the proposed amendment indicates that the soldiers are not to be transformed into policemen, but that they are simply prohibited from being used as a police force in keeping the peace.

"One of the early struggles in the history of this Government was during the administration of President Washington, about the right to maintain a navy; and also as to how that navy was to be used. Alexander Hamilton, who was the leader of the Federalists, maintained that it was the right and the duty of the Government to establish a strong navy; and, to use his own language, he said that 'it ought to be established and maintained to be used on the high seas as a police force to protect our flag and our commerce.' He did not mean by that, that the seamen were to be turned into policemen, but that our ships, properly manned, should patrol the seas 'as a police force,' and there maintain the majesty of our Government, etc. That great controversy, which lasted for years, between Alexander Hamilton and the great Secretary of the Treasury, Albert Gallatin, the leader of the then Republican party, resulted in the question being settled (and since maintained) in favor of the United States having a navy to be used on the high seas as a police force. In this amendment is found the precise language used in that controversy; it speaks of using the Army of the United States as a police force to keep the peace at the polls. But I will not dwell further on that point.

"Let us analyze this amendment. I may say, Mr. Chairman, that it is exactly the sixth section of the Army appropriation bill which was passed at the extra session of this Congress,

against which my friend here [Mr. Williams, of Wisconsin] and a few others with myself voted. A fair construction of this proposition drives us to the conclusion that it inhibits the use of the Army at the polls to keep the peace and quell election riots, and that it is purposely gotten up to prevent a quiet and an honest election. By the very terms of the amendment the President of the United States, if he feels bound by it if enacted into a law, and I think it is our duty to oppose it as though it were binding on him, although it might be regarded by him as a nullity, would not have for the ensuing fiscal year the right to use the Army in the discharge of his constitutional duty in enforcing all the laws. I maintain, if we enact this amendment into law, it will have the moral force at least of saying that the Army of the United States shall not be used to put down riots on election-day.

"I hope the House will pardon me, while I read an extract from the syllabi in the case of *Ex parte Seibold et al.*

"I read:

"The national Government has the right to use physical force in any part of the United States to compel obedience to its laws and to carry into execution the powers conferred upon it by the Constitution.

"The concurrent jurisdiction of the national Government, with that of the States, which it has in the exercise of its powers of sovereignty in every part of the United States, is distinct from that exclusive jurisdiction which it has by the Constitution in the District of Columbia, and in those places acquired for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, etc.

"The provisions adopted for compelling the State officers of election to observe the State laws regulating elections of Representatives, not altered by Congress, are within the supervisory powers of Congress over such elections. The duties to be performed in this behalf are owed to the United States as well as to the State; and their violation is an offense against the United States which Congress may rightfully inhibit and punish. This necessarily follows from the direct interest which the national Government has in the due election of its Representatives and from the power which the Constitution gives to Congress over this particular subject.

"The right to use physical force in any part of the United States to compel obedience to the laws is thus authoritatively settled. This right must now be regarded as the fixed law of the land.

"From the exhaustive opinion of Justice Bradley, who spoke for the court, I read further:

"The more general reason assigned, to wit, that the nature of sovereignty is such as to preclude the joint cooperation of two sovereigns, even in a matter in which they are mutually concerned, is not, in our judgment, of sufficient force to prevent concurrent and harmonious action on the part of the national and State governments in the election of Representatives. It is at most an argument *ab inconvenientis*. There is nothing in the Constitution to forbid such cooperation in this case. On the contrary, as already said, we think it clear that the clause of the Constitution relating to the regulation of such elections contemplates such cooperation whenever Congress deems it expedient to interfere merely to alter or add to existing regulations of the State. If the two governments had an entire equality of jurisdiction, there might be an intrinsic difficulty in such cooperation. Then the adoption by the State government of a system of regulations might

exclude the action of Congress. By first taking jurisdiction of the subject, the State would acquire exclusive jurisdiction in virtue of a well-known principle applicable to courts having coördinate jurisdiction over the same matter. But no such equality exists in the present case. The power of Congress, as we have seen, is paramount, and may be exercised at any time, and to any extent which it deems expedient; and so far as it is exercised, and no further, the regulations effected supersede those of the State which are inconsistent therewith.

"As a general rule it is no doubt expedient and wise that the operations of the State and national Governments should, as far as practicable, be conducted separately, in order to avoid undue jealousies and jars and conflicts of jurisdiction and power. But there is no reason for laying this down as a rule of universal application. It should never be made to override the plain and manifest dictates of the Constitution itself. We can not yield to such a transcendental view of State sovereignty. The Constitution and laws of the United States are the supreme law of the land, and to these every citizen of every State owes obedience whether in his individual or official capacity.

"And quoting further from this opinion:

"In exercising the power, however, we are bound to presume that Congress has done so in a judicious manner; that it has endeavored to guard as far as possible against any unnecessary interference with State laws and regulations, with the duties of State officers, or with local prejudices. It could not act at all so as to accomplish any beneficial object in preventing frauds and violence, and securing the faithful performance of duty at the elections, without providing for the presence of officers and agents to carry its regulations into effect. It is also difficult to see how it could attain these objects without imposing proper sanctions and penalties against offenders.

"And in another place Justice Bradley, in the opinion, says:

"Without the concurrent sovereignty referred to, the national Government would be nothing but an advisory government. Its executive power would be absolutely nullified.

"In speaking of the fair and obvious interpretation of the Constitution and the mode of reaching it, the Judge says:

"We shall not have far to seek. We shall find it on the surface, and not in the profound depths of speculation.

"The greatest difficulty in coming to a just conclusion arises from mistaken notions with regard to the relations which subsist between the State and national Governments. It seems to be often overlooked that a national Constitution has been adopted in this country, establishing a real government therein, operating upon persons, and territory, and things; and which moreover, is, or should be, as dear to every American citizen as his State government is. Whenever the true conception of the nature of this Government is once conceded, no real difficulty will arise in the just interpretation of its powers. But if we allow ourselves to regard it as a hostile organization, opposed to the proper sovereignty and dignity of the State governments, we shall continue to be vexed with difficulties as to its jurisdiction and authority. No greater jealousy is required to be exercised toward this Government in reference to the preservation of our liberties than is proper to be exercised toward the State governments. Its powers are limited in number and clearly defined, and its action within the scope of those powers is restrained by a sufficiently rigid bill of rights for the protection of its citizens from oppression. The true interest of the people of this country requires that both the national and State governments should be allowed, without jealous interference on either side, to exercise all the powers which respectively belong to

them according to a fair and practical construction of the Constitution. State rights and the rights of the United States should be equally respected. Both are essential to the preservation of our liberties and the perpetuity of our institutions. But, in endeavoring to vindicate the one, we should not allow our zeal to nullify or impair the other.

"I am tempted to read another extract from this most admirable exposition of the constitutional powers of this Government:

"It is argued that the preservation of peace and good order in society is not within the powers confided to the Government of the United States, but belongs exclusively to the States. Here, again, we are met with the theory that the Government of the United States does not rest upon the soil and territory of the country. We think that this theory is founded on an entire misconception of the nature and powers of that Government. We hold it to be an incontrovertible principle that the Government of the United States may, by means of physical force exercised through its official agents, execute on every foot of American soil the powers and functions that belong to it. This necessarily involves the power to command obedience to its laws, and hence the power to keep the peace to that extent.

"This power to enforce its laws and to execute its functions in all places does not derogate from the power of the State to execute its laws at the same time and in the same places. The one does not exclude the other except where both can not be executed at the same time. In that case the words of the Constitution itself show which is to yield. 'This Constitution and all laws which shall be made in pursuance thereof . . . shall be the supreme law of the land.'

"And still another:

"Why do we have marshals at all if they can not physically lay their hands on persons and things in the performance of their proper duties? What functions can they perform, if they can not use force? In executing the process of the courts, must they call on the nearest constable for protection? must they rely on him to use the requisite compulsion and to keep the peace while they are soliciting and entreating the parties and bystanders to allow the law to take its course? This is the necessary consequence of the positions that are assumed. If we indulge in such impracticable views as these, and keep on refining and re-refining, we shall drive the national Government out of the United States, and relegate it to the District of Columbia, or perhaps to some foreign soil. We shall bring it back to a condition of greater helplessness than that of the old Confederation.

"The argument is based on a strained and impracticable view of the nature and powers of the national Government. It must execute its powers or it is no government. It must execute them on the land as well as on the sea, on things as well as on persons. And, to do this, it must necessarily have power to command obedience, preserve order, and keep the peace; and no person or power in this land has the right to resist or question its authority so long as it keeps within the bounds of its jurisdiction. Without specifying other instances in which this power to preserve order and keep the peace unquestionably exists, take the very case in hand.

"There are other extracts which might be read to the same effect, but I will not stop to read them now.

"The power to keep the peace at elections is here expressly recognized, and it is a necessary power; otherwise the foundations of our republic would crumble away. A government without power to protect all of its people from lawlessness and violence at all times and places is unworthy to exist, and of all other times

and places it should have and exercise the power of preserving the peace on election-day at the polls.

"On the necessity of this Government having ample power and the right to exercise it in all fundamental matters which concern its life, I read a single extract further from Justice Bradley's opinion:

"The true doctrine, as we conceive, is this, that while the States are really sovereign as to all matters which have not been granted to the jurisdiction and control of the United States, the Constitution and constitutional laws of the latter are, as we have already said, the supreme law of the land; and, when they conflict with the laws of the States, they are of paramount authority and obligation. This is the fundamental principle on which the authority of the Constitution is based, and unless it be conceded in practice, as well as theory, the fabric of our institutions, as it was contemplated by its founders, can not stand. The questions involved have respect not more to the autonomy and existence of the States than to the continued existence of the United States as a government to which every American citizen may look for security and protection in every part of the land.

"Mr. Chairman, I believe in State sovereignty in purely State matters. But I believe in United States sovereignty in all United States matters. I believe States to be creatures of the Constitution, and in all matters not reserved by the Constitution to the States they are subordinate to the United States. Some of these States the United States bought and paid for with both treasure and blood. We bought from the first Napoleon the territory comprised in the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, etc., and in due time we erected this once French territory into States. Later some of these States set up for themselves the pretense that the thing created was superior to their owner and creator. The Republic of Texas, not quite able to stand alone, knocked at the door of the United States, and it was admitted within the portals of the Union and habilitated with the garb of a State in the Union with a republican form of government; and in a few years she, too, proposed to turn the United States out and set up a new government on the same mistaken notion that the created was superior to the creator."

The bill passed the House and Senate, and was approved by the President.

In the Senate, on May 10th, the bill to provide for a tariff commission was considered, a measure looking toward tariff reform from a protective standpoint, brought in by Senator Eaton, of Connecticut.

Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, said: "I present the petition of a large number of business firms and individuals transacting almost every variety of business in Massachusetts, in Maine, in New Hampshire, and in Vermont, representing a very large capital in this great variety of business, and also representing, in what they ask, 24,700 laborers. They pray favorable action upon what is called the Eaton bill.

"I desire for a moment to call the attention

of the Senate to that bill. The Senate can not have failed to observe that very many petitions of this character are now upon the table. They have come here since the Committee on Finance has reported that the bill ought to pass. The bill is upon the calendar. It can not be brought before the Senate in the short time remaining of this session in the order in which it stands upon the calendar. I desire the attention of the distinguished chairman of the Committee on Finance [Mr. Bayard] to the importance of asking the Senate to act upon this bill out of its order. The petitioners whom I represent, it is true, are mostly persons engaged in the manufacturing industries and those whom they furnish with employment. Probably fifty thousand men who are furnished with employment are petitioners, whose petitions are upon the table of the Senate at this moment, praying for favorable action upon this bill. They do not ask for any special legislation. They recognize every industry of this country as constituting a part of one whole, in which there should be no antagonisms, and no one of which should ask at the hands of Congress legislation at the expense of any other; that all must stand or fall together; that what shall contribute to the permanent prosperity of any one industry must contribute in like manner, if not in equal degree, to the permanent prosperity of every industry in the land.

"They ask, in view of the evident desire and manifest justice of a revision of the tariff that affects all industries in this land, that it shall be done in a manner which shall most contribute to do justice to all industries, and therefore to permanency.

"It is in that hope and that desire that the manufacturing interests of the country (now spreading all over it and not confined, as in former times, more largely to one section than another) are solicitous that that revision, which changes constantly going on in the industries of the land make necessary in the tariff, shall be by such legislation as would be more likely to come from a commission, wisely appointed, to review the whole matter in all its bearings to the interests of the United States and to the interests of each and every industry in the land."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware: "I will merely say that the Committee on Finance have made the best response possible to the desire of the Senator and his constituents for an early hearing of this question, by reporting back the bill introduced by the honorable Senator from Connecticut [Mr. Eaton] favorably, and having it placed on the calendar.

"The history of the Senate's business is of course well known. Here is the calendar. The number in the order of business last reached was No. 304. The bill for a tariff commission, known as the Eaton bill, is No. 510. The Senator and the Senate well know, when any attempt has been made to take up a bill out of its order which seems likely to lead to any debate, how promptly objection has been made.

"I can only say, as far as I am concerned, that I shall be very glad to have this important question taken up and discussed at the earliest possible moment. Of course it touches the revenue. We all know the sensitiveness of the other House of Congress on this subject, and that any attempt upon the part of the Senate to diminish a duty or to add a tax is at once looked upon by them as an invasion of their prerogative, and they find occasion to disagree with us. Here is a bill which proposes to submit the whole of this question to a commission, which is certainly indicative of the desire of the Senate to see a systematic revision of the tariff in preference to considering it piecemeal. I have no doubt in my own mind that that is the proper way that it should be considered, and have signified that view by giving my assent individually and reporting, as the organ of the committee, the bill favorably to the Senate."

Mr. Garland, of Arkansas: "Two years ago yesterday, I believe, I introduced a bill into the Senate for the purpose of organizing a commission on the subject of the tariff, which received, I believe, the favorable indorsement of the Committee on Finance. I introduced another also at this session, the same bill in fact. That bill was before the committee, and also the bill reported from the committee, introduced by the Senator from Connecticut. I have been anxious, in fact, extremely so, to have this subject brought up and considered, on account of the very great want of information we have upon it, deeming it necessary that the subject should go to a commission in order to furnish the Congress of the United States the proper information in detail upon which to legislate permanently. The Committee on Finance reported favorably upon the bill introduced by the Senator from Connecticut, and adversely upon the bill that I introduced. The distinctive difference between the two bills is that the bill of the Senator from Connecticut provides for a commission outside of Congress, and the bill that I had the honor to introduce provides for a mixed commission, composed of members of each branch of Congress, and three members outside of Congress. I am of the opinion that that feature is better than the one introduced by the Senator from Connecticut."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky: "Mr. President, I desire only to say that, while the report of the Committee on Finance presents the bill of the Senator from Connecticut, it is not a unanimous report. I shall oppose that bill to the best of my ability, and shall insist upon the passage of the bill which will be moved as a substitute by the Senator from Arkansas. I am one of those who believe that the two Houses of Congress ought not to put themselves into the hands of any body of experts outside, who may make reports favorable or unfavorable, as they may happen to be selected by the President, but that the men who make the reports should be members of the respective Houses, who can be able to tell the reasons why they acted, so

as to give all the information they can before the respective Houses, and state the reasons why. Outside commissions, I think, are generally managed (and I think it is very apparent from the number of petitions presented before us all containing a single letter from a single man) for the purpose of advancing some special interest. However, I merely desire to say that the bill was not a unanimous report from the Finance Committee."

Mr. Eaton: "The Senator from Kentucky is very much mistaken when he says that the petitioners here are represented by the same class of petitions. There has been one petition offered by gentlemen of every shade of opinion upon the question of the tariff; a petition that represents more than five hundred thousand people; a petition that represents an industry that consumes 1,500,000 bales of cotton; a petition that is represented by \$200,000,000 of capital, and these men are of every class and shade of opinion with regard to the tariff. Therefore, the Senator from Kentucky, however much he may antagonize the bill which I had the honor to introduce, ought not to say that they are machine petitions, for, when the petitions that are upon the table of the Senate come to be examined, they will be found not to be machine petitions at all. I ought to say to my friend from Kentucky that in the bill which he proposes to introduce there are three of these very outside men, as it proposes a commission to be composed of three members of the Senate, three members of the House, and three gentlemen not members of either branch of the national Legislature."

Mr. Dawes: "I now ask for the consideration of the regular order."

The Presiding Officer: "The regular order is the bill known as the tariff-commission bill, on which the Senator from Massachusetts is entitled to the floor."

Mr. Kirkwood, of Iowa: "I desire to offer an amendment to the pending bill. I understand the Senator from Massachusetts intends to direct his remarks to the bill introduced by the Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Eaton). I desire to offer an amendment to that. I do it that the Senator from Massachusetts may direct his attention to it."

"My amendment is to the text of the original bill, in section 3, line 7, after the word 'tariff' to insert 'and the existing internal-revenue laws.'"

Mr. Dawes: "Mr. President, I am in favor of the bill reported by the Committee on Finance, because I am in favor of a revision and reform of the tariff. Great inconsistencies and incongruities exist in the tariff. A great many excessive duties remain upon the statute-book. Many dutiable articles should be on the free list, and many of the provisions of the tariff have become obsolete and inoperative. The present is a favorable time for such a revision. The increased prosperity of the country and of all business in it has so increased

the receipts of the Government, both from sources of internal revenue and from customs duties, as to render such a revision desirable and possible, keeping in view first the primary object of the imposition of duties, a revenue for the maintenance of the Government, and keeping that revenue as near as possible to its current and necessary expenses. There is an opportunity to revise and reform not only the duties but the methods of enforcing the law and collecting them. Some of the circumstances justifying this course have sprung up without any reference to legislation. Changes in business, changes in the relations of industries to each other, as well as changes in the sources of revenue to the Government, require the Government to look now to one quarter and now to another from which little was expected or received in former times. We should conform our legislation to the changes going on all the time in the methods of business as well as in the sources of revenue. All these invoke at our hands attention to the question whether we shall permit the revenue system of the Government to remain as it is, or address ourselves to the best method of producing out of it a state of things that shall answer as well the demands of the Government as the expectations and necessities and claims of those under the Government whose business pursuits it is impossible to reform the revenue laws without affecting.

"If I desired the continuance of the present state of things, if I wished to perpetuate these incongruities and these excesses and these defects, I should desire that the ideas submitted on Friday last by the Senator from Kentucky (Mr. Beck) should prevail; for it is by the attempt to enforce just such ideas in the past that has come this condition of things. Since the tariff of 1846, before the tariff of 1846, yea, before from the time of the tariff of 1842, the effort has been made to establish a tariff system by precisely the same means as those suggested by the Senator from Kentucky. All the industries of the land affected by the imposition of duties, or by the relief of industries from their imposition, have been summoned before committees from 1842 to to-day in precisely the same manner suggested by him. They have been in a great measure also under the control of party organizations.

"Sir, I am not about to discuss the comparative claim of one of the two parties to the confidence and support of the people on this question of the tariff. I am not here now to say that to the Democratic party or to the Republican party the country may most safely turn for relief or for reform. I do not think that it is a part of my duty, resulting from the conviction of an experience in this matter somewhat extended, to undertake at this time to stake the great questions involved in the bill and the substitute before the Senate upon the merits of either party. Out of these contests of parties have come the evils of which

we complain. We have had the struggle of the one party or the other to take to itself and appropriate the work of so adjusting the tariff in this country between the Government and those affected by it as to seek and obtain from the people some support that the adversary should not be entitled to; and out of that has come the shifting from party to party of this question and these measures; and the Government on the one hand and the many industries of this country on the other have suffered in this conflict of party. It is only from the possibility now presented, that the wise men of both parties can take up this question without reference to its effect upon political parties and determine it upon its merits, that anything like permanency, built upon justice and fairness, will ever result from legislation.

"A duty for the purpose of revenue must be imposed in one of two ways: indifferently, hap-hazard, by blind folly, or with discrimination. I take it that neither the Senator from Kentucky nor any other Senator proposes to impose duties for revenue blindly and indiscriminately, without regard to what will be the effect either upon the revenue or upon the subject-matter upon which the duty is imposed. Then it must be imposed with discrimination. And one other question arises immediately and settles the whole matter: it must be imposed either upon the raw material or upon the manufactured article, and no man can address himself one moment to the consideration of this question, but must settle at the threshold the point whether he will impose that duty upon the raw material or upon the manufactured article.

"These men represent the manufactured article who are invited before a committee of Congress, by the side of whom in the proposition of the Senator from Arkansas two or three experts are invited to take seats. They are producers in this land. According to the census of 1860 their products amounted to \$1,800,000,000, and in 1870 to \$4,000,000,000, an increase in value of 102 per cent. in ten years. Making all due allowance for the disturbance of prices by inflation, in actual quantity during those ten years the increase had been 52 per cent. Fifty-two per cent. more in actual quantities was produced at the end of that decade. According to that rate of increase, wellnigh eight billion dollars' worth of fabrics will have been produced and developed in the year 1880, as shown by the census. This is represented by men who must appear before this committee. This is the production in this land consumed here, made here for our own people, under such an adjustment of duties as the Government was under the necessity of imposing, so imposed that they could be produced here rather than brought here already produced; for where the production is, there is the manufacture, there are the people whose hands fashion these fabrics; and where the people are whose hands manufacture these

fabrics, there is the capital which moves the thousand busy fingers of industry, and there is the town built up by those whose time is employed in these productions; and where the town is, there is the schoolhouse and there is the church and there is the State.

"These are productions which, under a proper adjustment of the tariff, as I conceive, every Senator I apprehend would say it were better should be on this side of the Atlantic than on the other. The men who appear before these committees are citizens of the United States, part and parcel of the body-politic, having all sorts of politics and political affiliations, with their thoughts turned to the productions of these industries which are required for consumption by the people of this land. They furnish employment for the people, the thousands and tens of thousands and millions of people who find employment in these establishments, fashioning for our own people the fabrics our own people consume. They are those most interested in this question. They furnish employment.

"Sir, the condition of things which I have described renders a revision of the tariff not only possible, but necessary. We have arrived at that condition in production that puts it in our power to take off these large and excessive duties, for I hold that, keeping to the idea that revenue is the object and purpose in laying the duty upon the manufactured article as against the raw material, that should never rise one penny above a perfect equality with this. Put the American producer, in levying your duties, simply upon an equality with the foreign producer; make up the difference between the interest on his money, the cost of his living, and the wages which he pays; just even them up and no more; lift up and not pull down; for if you desire an interchange of produce, he who can manufacture the cheapest will in the end triumph over his neighbor. On any other basis, if you maintain these industries in this land, you must cut down the pay of the laborer to a level with the pay of him with whom you compete, or you can not compete with him.

"The question is all summed up in this single aphorism: To the American laborer belongs the labor which is to be performed for Americans; whatever is to be performed for us should be done here among us. I desire for one to see an effort made to frame a revenue tariff upon this principle. See to it that the Government is supplied; take that which it is necessary to levy upon production and levy it upon manufactured articles, so distributed upon each and every article as well as you may until you bring up our own producers to a level in cost with the foreign competition, and let the raw material come in free. Sir, to that work, involving the growth and prosperity and development of this country, all men of all parties, the wisest and the most discreet and expert, ought to be invited. No one party can accomplish it. The doctrine thus developed does not

exist in this or that party exclusively. It has come to be every day more and more the common sentiment and conviction of economists throughout the country."

Mr. Maxey, of Texas: "I desire, Mr. President, without entering into a discussion and comparison of the merits and more especially the demerits of the present protective tariff with such as might be presented by a tariff bill for the raising of revenue only, to present to the Senate briefly the reasons which will induce me to vote for the raising of a committee or commission. I shall, if here when a tariff bill is laid before the Senate, present my views fully. At this time my only purpose is to present my reasons generally in favor of the principle of a tariff for revenue only. In my judgment the question is a simple one. The Constitution grants to Congress the power 'to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises.' Had that power stopped there, it might be said that the discretion was in Congress to appropriate revenues thus raised according to the best judgment of Congress; but in the same sentence there is a complete expressed limitation upon that power. The objects for which the grant of power 'to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises' was given is limited in the same sentence, namely, 'to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States'; and that is in itself a limitation upon the grant of power 'to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises.' The very objects for which this taxation is to be laid and collected being specified in the grant of power are a limitation upon the application of the money thus to be raised; for the objects being specified, all others, upon well-known principles, are excluded.

"So far as paying the debts is concerned, that explains itself; so far as providing for the common defense goes, that explains itself; but those who favor the doctrine of a protective tariff fall back upon the clause providing for the 'general welfare of the United States.' The general welfare of the United States, so far as it is intrusted to the Congress, is specifically laid down by appropriate grants in the Constitution, not only in the eighth section, but in various other portions of the Constitution. Congress has power 'to raise and support armies,' 'to provide and maintain a navy,' 'to establish post-offices and post-roads.'" It is the duty of Congress to see to the proper conduct by judicious appropriations of the executive department in all its ramifications, and in like manner of the legislative department and of the judiciary department. These are the objects for which the money raised by taxation is to go. The Supreme Court, all courts and commentators, so far as I have examined, agree that the general-welfare clause of the Constitution refers to the general welfare as to the objects set forth by grants of power on the face of the instrument. Any other construction would practically annihilate the very design and purpose of a written

constitution. Therefore, when you come to examine that clause of the Constitution—clause 1, section 8, Article I—where the power of taxation (which is never liberally construed, but always strictly) is given, it was so given for specific purposes—'to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare'; and hence it follows that we have no right by law to go beyond that and say that that tax shall be laid and collected for the special welfare of a specific portion of the community engaged in certain pursuits as against the general welfare of all the people of the community, and more especially when the Constitution by specific grants shows how far Congress can legislate, and, to prevent misconception, goes on to provide that 'the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.' No power is delegated to lay a tax upon the people generally to protect a few industries. Therefore the power does not exist. I am speaking of constitutional power, not upon constructions which may have been placed by courts upon tariff laws, for when a bill comes up every man should be governed by his own conscience and not by somebody else's in his vote upon this bill.

"It is clear, therefore, in my judgment, that any tariff bill should be a tariff for revenue, and for revenue only, and that we can not constitutionally or in sound policy make any other character of a tariff than a tariff for revenue, for the purpose of raising revenue to support the Government and to carry out the various objects for which the Government was created. In laying a tariff looking alone to revenue it is within the sound discretion of Congress to select the articles for taxation. Any tariff will, in its nature, to a certain extent, protect incidentally; but revenue should be the object, and protection but the inseparable incident. Under the present oppressive tariff, protection, as it seems to me, is the principal object, and revenue the incident.

"Two different plans have been presented for securing information with the view to a new tariff bill. I have been here for more than five years patiently looking to the House of Representatives for the discharge of the duty of originating a revenue bill, which under the Constitution is in the House of Representatives. This body can not originate a revenue bill; it is not in the power of this body to do it; but if the House will send us a bill we have the right under the Constitution to amend; but no bill is sent. Hence, I have sat here with such patience as I possess, for five years, waiting for a revenue bill, such as is demanded by the best interests of the country, to come up to us. It has not come. The people all over this land are demanding that there should be at least a revision of the tariff and large reduction of duties; and thousands and hundreds of thousands of men throughout the country believe as I do, that the only just, the only honest, the only

fair, the only constitutional tariff law that can be made is a tariff for revenue, and for revenue only.

"The purpose of the committee bill is in that direction. That is as far as we could go. We can not originate a bill here, but a commission to consist of nine members from civil life to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, is authorized by the bill as reported by the Committee on Finance for the purpose of investigating all the various questions relating to the agricultural, commercial, mercantile, manufacturing, mining, and other industrial interests of the United States so far as may be necessary to a judicious tariff revision, and of reporting the result of that investigation to this body. That commission is to be raised by nominations by the President, and by confirmation if so advised and consented to by the Senate.

"Mr. President, I want a revenue bill; I want all the light that can be thrown upon this great question, and I believe that the clearer the light shed upon this great question by free, conscientious, intelligent investigation, the greater will be the reasonable probabilities in favor of a just tariff, for revenue and revenue only. In my judgment, the justness and sound policy of a revenue-tariff bill can be made clear and palpable—so manifest that the American people will demand the adoption of such a bill. I do not expect such a bill from men who do not believe in the doctrine of a tariff for revenue only. Therefore I do not propose to place the nominations in a power of this Government (the President) that does not, so far as I know or believe, believe in that doctrine.

"The Senator from Arkansas [Mr. Garland] has presented a proposition in the nature of a substitute to the committee bill having in view the same object of investigating this tariff question, the commission to consist of three members of the Senate, three members of the House, and three others, not members of either House. As between the proposition presented by the Senator from Arkansas and that presented by the committee, I shall unquestionably support that presented by the Senator from Arkansas, because it comes nearer my view than the other proposition does, and as I think more completely defines the duties of the commission; but I would favor over his proposition or that of the committee a joint committee of the Senate and of the House, raised in such mode and manner as the Senate may determine so far as its part is concerned, and the House as to its part, and let the committee be invested with full power to employ a stenographer, the best in America, and I think we would not have to go outside of this Chamber to get him, and if he will pardon me, I say to Mr. Murphy, Thou art the man. My idea is to employ first-class clerks and stenographers, and invest the committee or commission, as the case may be, with ample power to send for books, persons, and papers, and to employ experts in matters relating to the tariff to

aid them, if need be, because this is a question which goes way down into the pocket of every man in this country. It involves untold millions of money, for however we may doubt about some things, death and taxes are certain, and the people can well afford the trifling expense of investing this committee with ample power and facilities to investigate this whole subject to the bottom, and bring all the light that it is possible to be brought upon it.

"It does not meet my views, it does not strike me as a strong argument, to say that there is not ample capacity in the two Houses to obtain this light; that we have not got enough men of commercial and industrial information, men of business attainments, to investigate the subject. If we have not nine men with general acquaintance with business pursuits, then we had better be turned out and send somebody here who has got such information; and I beg to say that knowledge of the constitutional powers of Congress is as important as special knowledge of commerce or other industry. If we have the information to take up this report and intelligently act upon it, to frame a bill based upon the information, we surely have the intelligence to obtain the information, and you have then a body directly responsible to the States and the people for what they do, unencumbered by any outsiders.

"Therefore—and I say it with all deference to my friend from Arkansas, whose sound judgment I recognize—I believe the suggestion I make would be an improvement upon his substitute; but I am so much better satisfied with his substitute than the original bill, I will not endanger it by amendments."

Mr. Eaton: "I now call for the regular order."

The Senate, as in Committee of the Whole, resumed the consideration of the bill (S. No. 900) to provide for the appointment of a commission to investigate the question of the tariff.

Mr. Kernan, of New York: "The bill reported provides for the appointment by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, of nine commissioners from private life—from civil life, as the bill says—who are to make this investigation and report from time to time to Congress, making their final report not later than December, 1881. The other bill introduced and referred to the Committee on Finance provides that there shall be a commission of three Senators to be appointed by the Senate, three members of the House of Representatives to be appointed by the Speaker of the House, and three others, not members of either House, to be selected by and associated with them. I have great respect and full appreciation of the ability that there is in the House and in the Senate, but in my judgment we shall have the information better, more fully, more thoroughly collected and matured by a commission of persons selected from civil life rather than by members of the two Houses, with three selected from civil life.

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"First, we all know that members sitting here many months each year will not have the time to devote exclusively to this subject which is requisite to get the information in order that there may be timely action by Congress upon the question. Secondly, I prefer to get the facts, the figures, the views of men not in Congress, from this commission, that we may have them before us and examine them before we get to debating or examining the subject. I think it is better that these facts, figures, and information should come from men not on the floor of either House, because if any of us on the floor of either House be upon the commission, we shall be disposed naturally to seek to carry out the preconceived views we have on the various phases and sides of this question; but a commission of experts who are not here will represent all views of the tariff, the free-traders, the protectionists, and men who think it should be only for revenue without protection. I presume we shall have on this commission appointed by the President and the Senate men who will represent fairly the intelligence and the experience of experts on all these subjects, and when their report comes to the two Houses we shall all start to examine and make up our minds on the subject without being committed by having been on the commission and engaged in the struggle there.

"Human nature is human nature everywhere. Suppose we appoint men from the two Houses representing different views. They will struggle on the commission. They are intelligent men, but each will be seeking rather to carry out the preconceived views that he has on the subject; whereas if we take these experts, these political economists, these business men, representatives of all these interests, from private life, and let them examine, argue, call out the facts making for the one theory or the other, they will doubtless be committed in favor of the one view or the other; but the two Houses will have their facts, their figures, their arguments, their recommendations, to commence the argument with, and I think, therefore, it will be more useful.

"The information they will give us, the views they will send us, the recommendations they may make, the facts and figures they will lay before us, derived from experience of our own and other countries, will aid us and will assist us in making up our opinions at the outset by examination, and we shall not get a little of the partisan on the one side or the other before we come into an examination of the question for ourselves in the two Houses.

"For that reason I think it better to have these representatives of the various views on the tariff question selected from civil life, and let them send their majority and their minority or their individual views to us, giving us the facts and the figures and the information which they gather upon which they base their recommendations.

"I think that the practice and experience of

the British Parliament on great questions of this kind is strongly in support of the bill reported by the committee, and which was introduced by the Senator from Connecticut."

Mr. Coke, of Texas: "Mr. President, it is not my intention to make a speech upon the tariff question, but simply and very briefly to give the reasons for the vote that I shall give upon the measure now before the Senate. I shall vote against the bill known as the Eaton bill and in favor of the substitute proposed by the Senator from Arkansas [Mr. Garland]. I would vote against any measure looking to a tariff commission at all if it were not that we are now at the conclusion of the session of Congress. If these bills had been before the Senate at the beginning of the session I should have opposed the passage of either of them. I prefer the bill of the honorable Senator from Arkansas for one reason above all others, that it proposes that the commission shall report to the next session of Congress, and I particularly oppose the Eaton bill because the commission provided for under it is not to report until December, 1881, jumping over the next session of Congress.

"This question is one which I think demands immediate action. There is a sufficient number of enormities in the existing tariff to call for action at once without information, without light from anybody. We all know that there are many items in the existing tariff laws upon which duties have been placed that should be removed, because prohibitory and destructive of revenue, which tax the people heavily, put nothing in the public Treasury, but enrich enormously a few manufacturers. We want no information from any source as to the propriety of putting an end to this spoliation of the great body of the people for the benefit of a privileged class. I believe that if the commission is created as contemplated by the Eaton bill there will be no action at the next session of Congress upon such items as I speak of. There will be no action at all on the subject until this commission reports, and we will pass over the next session of Congress, as we have passed by this, without giving any such relief as is demanded by the interests of the country.

"We find upon the files of the Senate a great number of petitions; I have not counted them, but there is a very great number, praying for the passage of the Eaton bill. Four fifths of these petitions are sent by firms and parties engaged in the manufacture of iron and steel in the various shapes in which these metals are manufactured. The remainder are gotten up by persons and firms engaged in the manufacture of wool. There may be a few engaged in the manufacture of cotton, but manufacturers of iron and steel and the manufacturers of wool have inundated the files of the Senate with petitions praying for the passage of the Eaton bill."

Mr. Eaton: "If my friend will permit me,

as he said there might be some petitions with regard to cotton, let me say that there is one petition here representing men who consume fifteen hundred thousand bales of cotton, operating ten million spindles, with \$300,000,000 capital, employing one hundred thousand hands and giving food to five hundred thousand souls, and that on the one item of cotton."

Mr. Coke: "I stand corrected. I knew that some of these petitions were from cotton manufacturers; I did not know how many. When I turn to the tariff I find one hundred and sixty-two items upon which there is a duty of more than 50 per cent., the duty running sometimes as high as 200 per cent. I find the various products made of iron and steel, I find the products made of wool, included in this list of one hundred and sixty-two articles. Then this case is presented: Here is a bill known as the Eaton bill proposing a revision of the tariff; it is advocated by a combination of manufacturers who are the most heavily protected of all the classes who are protected at all under the tariff. I find these heavily protected manufacturers evidently by concert between themselves combined to produce an impression upon the Senate in order to effect the passage of the Eaton bill.

"The Eaton bill leaves to the President of the United States the appointment of the commissioners by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. Who is responsible for the existing tariff, a species of class legislation which enriches a few at the expense of the great body of the people? Who is responsible for it? The Republican party. Who is the chief, the official head of the Republican party? The President of the United States. He is to be given the appointment of commissioners to revise and modify a tariff imposed upon the people of the country by his own party, and here we are surrounded by the chief beneficiaries of this most odious class legislation vociferously demanding that this power be granted to the President. What do they expect? They expect him to uphold the policy and action of his party evidently. They expect beneficial results to themselves. As I remarked before, they expect to control the commission, and will do it. Instead of tariff reform, we can expect from such a body of men nothing else than a report whitewashing the present tariff.

"It is said that the Democratic Senate must advise and consent to these nominations. It is very well understood here that any set of commissioners the President will nominate will be confirmed; nobody doubts that. The reasons for it are not necessary to be stated, but could be given if it were necessary. The President's nominees will be confirmed. What will be the state of the case then, suppose the Eaton bill passes? We will have nine commissioners appointed by the President in harmony with the views of the party which created this tariff, who are to sit and to collect testimony throughout the country and present their views to

gether with this testimony in 1881 to Congress for action.

"Sir, this is a contest between the people on one side and the monopolies on the other; between equal rights on one side and privilege on the other; and in this contest if you allow the defendants, the monopolists, the privileged classes, to prepare the testimony, to take the depositions and to get up the case, it will not be their fault if they should lose it when the trial comes on. The plaintiff who would bring a suit and allow the defendant to dictate what testimony should be introduced, what points should be made, who would allow the defendant to prepare the points, prepare the case, prepare the testimony and submit it, would be regarded among lawyers in ordinary litigation between individuals as a very foolish person, one who would be very certain to lose his case before the court and jury. Yet this is the very thing which in this great contest between the people and manufacturing privilege it is proposed by the Eaton bill shall be done. It is proposed to place in the hands of the President a power which the manufacturers of the country demand shall be placed there by their petitions on file. I am opposed to that, sir.

"The people who are taxed demand relief. Out of more than \$1,000,000,000 paid annually by the people under the tariff laws only about \$150,000,000 go into the national Treasury; the remainder goes into the pockets of the parties to whom it is proposed by the Eaton bill to hand over the subject of reducing their own profits—the manufacturers. I protest, sir, against this surrender; the lamb can as safely be committed to the care of the wolf. Sir, it is unheard of, that a measure of great and vital importance like this should be committed to its enemies to be perfected and consummated. The Republican party created the existing tariff, and the Democracy have always denounced it, as it has every other than a strictly revenue tariff; yet the Eaton bill surrenders to the Republican party and the manufacturers the care of a measure said to be intended to destroy the great evil. Will the parent turn upon its own progeny?

"I prefer the substitute of the Senator from Arkansas. That proposes to leave the subject in the Halls of Congress, among the experts sent here by the people, and not to place it, as the Eaton bill would do, in the hands of men outside of Congress to make up a case in the interest of the manufacturers and the tariff. The bill offered by the Senator from Arkansas proposes to retain the subject in Congress among the representatives of the people, adding three outsiders representing three great interests. The very gentlemen whom the Eaton bill would empower to examine this question and report upon it can be called as witnesses before the representatives of the people composing the commission under the Garland bill. We do not lose the benefit of their services simply because they are not permitted to prepare the testimony

and make up the case. They can be called as witnesses, and if they are experts they can tell all they know as witnesses to the Congressional commission. Sir, the sworn and trusted representatives of the people should never surrender to any body of men the high duty devolved upon them of acting upon this great question.

"As I was proceeding to say, the producing people of this country are taxed from the soles of their feet to the crowns of their heads, from their hats to their shoes, and from their shoes to their hats. Everything they wear, nearly everything they eat, every utensil they work with is taxed. You can not name an article entering into consumption among the producing classes of our people that is not heavily taxed under the tariff, and yet we must wait until 1881 before we can be permitted to see the report and the testimony which these learned experts are going to present to Congress upon this subject. I am opposed to it, sir. I am opposed to the bill, and would be if no other reason existed than that for my opposition to it. I am opposed to it because it puts in the hands of the President of the United States a power to thwart the demand of the people for tariff reform by appointing a commission which will make a case against it. I am opposed to it because it takes out of the hands of Congress, where it legitimately belongs, the tariff question, and places it in the hands of those who may be, and I believe will be, enemies of the people's interests. I favor the bill of the Senator from Arkansas because it keeps the question in Congress, the people's representatives; because it proposes that the commission shall report at the next session of Congress so that it may be acted on then."

Mr. Eaton, of Connecticut: "There is but one idea, I believe, in regard to the importance of this legislation. We simply differ as to the details of the measure. My honorable friend from Arkansas has introduced a bill. He says if he can not get the support of the Senate for his bill he will vote for the one reported by the majority of the Finance Committee. I recognize a true patriot in a man who says that. I say while I shall undertake to show that it is impossible that a Congressional committee shall intelligently report on all the facts in this great case, that if the bill I had the honor to introduce can not be passed let the other be passed; let us do something. The House of Representatives has refused to act, and now let the Senate take the initiatory step.

"This question should be met fairly, kindly. What is the difference between the two bills? Now, let me give a little history, and I know the Senate will not think I am egotistical. I drew the pending bill without consultation with a single man in the world save one friend in Connecticut. I said to my friend the Senator from Delaware [Mr. Bayard], three years ago, that something ought to be done, and if the House would not move in this matter it

was the duty of the Senate to do it; but years passed by, and I determined that if nothing was done this year I would introduce a bill and send it to the committee to be perfected, and then let us see if we can not do justice to all the people of this broad land. I do not want a tariff bill passed for the purpose of enriching the State of Connecticut. I desire no such thing. I shall be found not voting for any such thing. I may be mistaken, but I believe that there is not a Senator on this floor who can give his time to this question. That is the first thing. Can my distinguished friend from Delaware, the head of this committee, give six months' time, a year's time, to this work? No. Can my friend from Georgia? No. Can my friend from South Carolina? No. Can my friend from Missouri? No; not one man of you can do it. It is impossible. One would suppose, to hear my distinguished friend from Texas, that all that was needed was a little jaunt, to go to Saratoga or Long Branch or somewhere else, and eat dinners, and that would be all. That does not help to discriminate between all the great interests of the country. It relates to consumption, as my friend from Delaware suggests. The gentlemen who have this matter in charge have got to take up and examine four thousand different articles; have got to see what enters into the manufacture of every great thing in this country.

"Here are dye-stuffs, with a high tax upon them. In the British market they are purchased free, brought here and a high tax imposed, and these dye-stuffs used to color the fabrics produced by American industry, and yet you expect those fabrics to be produced just as low as they could be if there was no tax whatever on the raw material.

"I have a history about wool that I wish right here to direct the attention of the Senate to. One of the great agricultural subjects, nearly the greatest subject, is sheep industry, dependent entirely upon manufacturing industry, whether the commission be established under my bill or under the bill of the Senator from Arkansas—dependent upon it entirely to the last clipping of the last sheep. In the United States there are to-day forty million sheep. The clip this year is estimated to be two hundred and twenty million pounds. It was two hundred and eleven million pounds in 1878.

"Of this the State so ably represented by my friend from California [Mr. Farley] has 6,561,000 sheep, with a clip of more than 50,000,000 pounds, dependent entirely upon the manufacturing industries of the country. Texas has 3,674,700 sheep, with a clip of over 30,000,000 pounds. Well might my honorable friend say, 'Oh, no, I will not take the tax off wool unless you take it off iron.' New York has 1,518,000 sheep, with a clip of 10,000,000 pounds. Ohio has 4,000,000 sheep, with a clip of 35,000,000 pounds, dependent entirely

upon the great manufacturing industries of the country. Pennsylvania has 1,600,000 sheep, with a clip of 10,000,000 pounds. Indiana has 1,100,000 sheep, with a clip of 7,000,000 pounds. Illinois has 1,260,000 sheep, with a clip of 7,000,000 pounds. Oregon has 1,100,000 sheep, with a clip of 7,000,000 pounds. Wisconsin has 1,300,000 sheep, with a clip of 8,000,000 pounds. Iowa has 600,000 sheep, with a clip of 4,000,000 pounds. Colorado has 700,000 sheep, with a clip of 4,000,000 pounds. It will be, next to Texas, the great sheep-walk of the world. I do not except Australia. I say Texas, New Mexico, and Colorado will be the great sheep-walk of the world, all dependent upon manufacturing industry, all dependent upon a proper revenue tariff. Michigan has 2,000,000 sheep, with a clip of 12,000,000 pounds. North Carolina has 500,000 sheep, with a clip of 3,000,000 pounds. Georgia has 400,000 sheep, with a clip of 2,000,000 pounds. Alabama has 300,000 sheep, with a clip of 1,000,000 pounds. Mississippi has 300,000 sheep, with a clip of 1,000,000 pounds. Tennessee has 1,000,000 sheep, with a clip of 5,000,000 pounds. West Virginia has 600,000 sheep, with a clip of 4,000,000 pounds. Virginia has 500,000 sheep, with a clip of 3,000,000 pounds. Vermont has 500,000 sheep, with a clip of 3,000,000 pounds. Arkansas has 300,000 sheep, with a clip of 1,000,000 pounds. New Hampshire has 250,000 sheep, with a clip of 1,000,000 pounds. Maine has 550,000 sheep, with a clip of 3,000,000 pounds. There are very few in some of the States, very few in my own little State.

"Let it be understood I am not arguing for taking the tariff duties off, no matter what my views may be upon that subject; but the Senator from Kentucky in the close of his speech goes one step further than I have ever been willing to go, and I only want to take this very illustration of wool. The clip this year will be nearly two hundred and twenty million pounds. This great industry, covering the whole country, is dependent entirely upon the manufacturing industries of the country. Now, when these commissioners assemble, whether they be under my bill or the bill of the Senator from Arkansas, they have got to take into consideration—what? How little duty can be put upon this great agricultural industry of the country. There are forty million sheep, with a clip of two hundred and twenty million pounds to be taken care of, because the wool of Continental Europe can be brought here and sold cheaper than we can raise it; and therefore there would be an utter destruction of forty million sheep except for butchering purposes unless a tariff were put upon wool.

"How little can it be? My friend said there was 104 per cent. duty on blankets. The honorable Senator from Kentucky has not examined that question. There is nominally 104 per cent. duty, but there is not really 50 per

cent. duty. Why is there not? Because the blanket that is produced in the State of Massachusetts and in the State of Connecticut that can be bought for \$5 is a great deal better than the English blanket which is produced for \$3.50. No matter what the tariff is; I am speaking of the quality. I will state another fact right here, and defy contradiction anywhere by anybody. Take your duty off wool and we can undersell Great Britain in the Liverpool market with blankets to-morrow. It will not do, sir, to simply pick up the tariff law and say here is 104 per cent. duty on a woolen fabric without knowing how much difference there is in the price of the article abroad and here. There was a duty two years ago and is now, perhaps, I do not remember of how much, on pig-iron, and you could buy it in the United States and in the State of Pennsylvania for less money than the duty. My former colleague, so long known and so highly respected here, carried millions of pounds of pig-iron, when he would have had to sell it for less than the duty if he had sold. No, Mr. President, what we want is absolute intelligence on all these questions.

"I will not speak now of iron and steel, though I am somewhat acquainted with the product, because all I want is a commission of intelligent gentlemen, experts. I drew the bill with a meaning. I put in nine with a meaning. There are six great industries in the country, and but six. The ramifications of those six may be sixty. I would, if I had the power, appoint thoroughly educated experts in every one of those six industries. I would then take the two ablest statisticians in the United States, and, as my friend from Kentucky said, such men as David A. Wells, of Connecticut, and R. M. T. Hunter, of Virginia, and I would, if I had the power, place at the head of the commission one of the great governing minds of the country, not an expert in anything except in all that makes men great. To go back to another generation, I may say I would place a man as near as possible to such men as Calhoun, Clay, and Webster, at the head of this commission, so that all this broad land would know that all these experts and all these statisticians were under the guiding power of a great governing mind.

"Thus I would constitute this commission if I had the power. But then we are met at once by my friend from Kentucky and my friend from Texas, who say they will not give this power to the hands of a Republican Executive. Sir, I was a Democrat before the Senator from Kentucky was, because I am older than he; I was a Democrat earlier than the Senator from Texas, because I am older than he. Now, I leave this appointment in the hands of the Executive. I know his Administration, I know the men he has called around him, and I have a right to say here that I believe if this power is left where the finance bill leaves it there will be the names

of nine intelligent gentlemen presented here, not belonging all to one political party nor to one shade of opinion on the tariff question. I think I have a right to say it. The confirmation of these gentlemen rests with us. Let us have faith in one another.

"I do not want to read the platform of the Greeley Democratic party, for I never did take very much stock in that [laughter]; nor the platform of 1876, nor the platform which may be reading to-day, or the one that will be reading twenty days hence. I would, so far as I could, divorce this whole question from politics. It is a great economic question; it is a question upon which hinges the welfare of all our people, agriculturists as well as manufacturers.

"Where does Kentucky, where does Tennessee, where does Texas find the great market for agricultural products except such as go abroad? Here. There are seven hundred thousand people in my State, and the hundreds of thousands of beeves and of sheep that come to us from the agricultural States of the Union, the hundreds of millions of pounds of wool, and the thousands and hundreds of thousands of bales of cotton that come from your sunny land [turning to Mr. Hampton] find a market in New England and New York. There are consumed in this country, as I before said, one million five hundred thousand bales of cotton, and that great industry is not to be whistled down the wind by anybody. The manufacturing industries of the United States give employment to-day to more than three million people; the manufacturing interests of the United States give food and raiment to more than ten million souls; and, sir, you dare not strike a blow at an industry of that character. I say 'dare not,' because the honest, upright, thinking, patriotic man dare not do wrong. What was the amount of products last year? As near as it can be ascertained, the amount of products of the various manufacturing industries of the United States was over six thousand million dollars. It is estimated this year that they will be over eight thousand million dollars. I have no doubt that they will be more than that. And are we, Senators of the United States, to strike a mortal blow at these great industries? We are not. The Senator from Kentucky says that he will nourish them if they require it. More than three quarters of them do not want any dandling on the knee of the nurse. They can go alone. If you take your impost duties off that you put on the raw material, more than seven eighths of them can go alone.

"But the great expenditure that was forced upon the country by reason of the terrible civil conflict through which we have gone has imposed a tariff upon the country that is greater than it ought to have. Therefore revise it, therefore cut it down where you can and as you best can. If I am here I shall be found in the front line of the foremost men in this body to do it. I do not belong to that party that my friend calls the introducers of machine pe-

titions. I have my own well-grounded convictions upon this great subject. I have given it forty years of patient, careful thought, and I believe I know something about it. I know enough to know this, Mr. President, that I do not know enough about it to undertake to make a report between this and the 1st day of next December, so that if that provision passes I beg to be considered out of the line of promotion.

"Again, nobody knows better than my friend from South Carolina [Mr. Hampton] that wherever a great manufacturing industry has been built up in a State, it has brought wealth to its people, whether it be in Alabama or South Carolina or Georgia, not always enriching them immediately; for, take the great industries of my State, and as nearly as they could be classified last year, my friend and colleague will join me when I say to the Senate that those industries did not pay 3 per cent. last year on the investment. 'Bleated corporations!' We have in our State some pretty large 'bleated corporations.' We have the celebrated establishment that Colonel Colt left, and it paid 3 per cent. for the last year. We have there one of the largest machine industries in the country, and it has paid, because it has built in the last two years more than four hundred thousand dollars' worth of machinery for Europe, competing with Great Britain and beating her on her own ground.

"Mr. President, let us say as members of this body that we desire, all of us I hope, a revenue tariff with its protection as an incident, as it must have; it can not be any other way. If it is necessary to raise 20 per cent. for revenue, that is an incidental protection, and, in that much and no further, am I in favor of a protective tariff. I go no further than my friend from Kentucky, not one step—hardly as far. Let us do what is just and right. I put this question, then, to the intelligence of the Senate, and I would that every Senator were here to answer to his own judgment: Can you point me to one single member of the Senate that can give the time to report upon this great question by the 1st of December? Is there one man here who would dare to do it? Sir, there is a year's work here. I know whereof I speak. There is a year's work before you can complete it, and the amendments placed on the bill by the Committee on Finance are eminently judicious and proper in this regard, that this commission shall report from time to time."

The President *pro tempore*: "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Iowa."

The amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Jones, of Florida: "Let me ask the Senator from Kentucky a question. Does a reformation of the tariff necessarily involve a question of revenue?"

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky: "I do not think it touches it at all in any shape or form. I suppose there is not an intelligent man in this Chamber who does not know that the tariff

taxation of this country—for that is what it is—can be reduced one half and the revenue doubled. I suppose there is no intelligent man in the country who does not know that for every dollar that goes into the Treasury for tariff taxation to-day it costs the people of this country \$5. I think I can show that from the statisticians of the Republican party, some of them high officials of the Government. The object of raising this commission is to see if that condition of things can not be stopped. The object of the Garland bill is to see if members of the Senate and House can not, by the aid of such experts as they can call in, ascertain whether that alleged fact is true.

"It is proposed to empower the President of the United States, the chief of the party that brought about this condition of things, to select a body of men to whitewash all that has been done and to write out a report to make it all appear good. The President knows he can have anybody confirmed. He had a Postmaster-General confirmed yesterday, and after that he can have anybody confirmed. He will put men there who will make all appear right that has been done. These men can neither be cross-questioned nor examined as to any report they may make, but it will be delayed until December, 1881. The present condition of things will be allowed to exist from now until then without relief, and then written reports will be made which these men can not be questioned about. They are to be appointed by the President, who has nothing to do with the legislation. They are to be appointed without the consent of the House, which has under the Constitution the right and the only right to act in the first place upon that information; and if they dare to run counter to the information thus furnished by their enemies they will be denounced as going against the best interests of the country. The evidence of experts selected to furnish evidence against them will have been provided in advance; and, as I say, they can neither cross-question nor examine them on the floor of either House, or require them to give a reason for what they have done.

"The simple proposition presented by the two measures is, shall the House of Representatives be ignored and all the information they have to act upon be transferred to a department of this Government that has nothing to do with the raising of revenue except by the interposition of a veto to stop anything that he may not approve? This body we know will confirm anybody the President sends here, and the question is, shall he appoint nine men to tell us what he and his men thus selected want to have done—selected, if you please, in the very interest of the men who are now receiving the taxes instead of the Government receiving them? The House is to be taunted and charged with being against the best interests of the country if it dares to do anything contrary to the report that these men thus picked submit, against its will and against its interests, and against the

interests of the great mass of the people it represents, because in the interest of a few protected monopolists the commission may report against the people, and the House can not even question the men who make the report. I say it is an insult to the House of Representatives to tender to them such a proposition. As a member of that House, if I were there, I would return it to the Senate. If I were a member of that House, and it was to be ignored in ascertaining the information necessary for the House to act upon, the measure should never enter that House longer than to have it sent back to the body whence it originated, and to tell that body that the President of the United States should not select and pick men to tell them what to do; that they should have something to say about it themselves."

The vote on the passage of the bill was as follows:

YEAS—Anthony, Bailey, Baldwin, Bayard, Blaine, Brown, Burnside, Butler, Cameron of Wisconsin, Dawes, Eaton, Ferry, Groome, Hampton, Hill of Georgia, Ingalls, Kernan, Kirkwood, McMillan, McPherson, Morgan, Morrill, Paddock, Pendleton, Platt, Ransom, Rollins, Saunders, Slater, Vest, Withers—81.

NAYS—Beck, Call, Cockrell, Coke, Davis of Illinois, Harris, Johnston, Jonas, Jones of Florida, McDonald, Pryor, Saulsbury, Thurman, Walker, Williams—15.

ABSENT—Allison, Blair, Booth, Bruce, Cameron of Pennsylvania, Carpenter, Conkling, Davis of West Virginia, Edmunds, Farley, Garland, Grover, Hamlin, Hereford, Hill of Colorado, Hoar, Jones of Nevada, Kellogg, Lamar, Logan, Maxey, Plumb, Randolph, Sharon, Teller, Vance, Voorhees, Wallace, Whyte, Windom—30.

In the Senate, on April 19th, Senator Cameron, of Pennsylvania, moved that the Senate proceed to consider the following resolution:

The Chief Clerk read the joint resolution, as follows:

Resolved, etc., That a commission is hereby constituted, to consist of three Senators, to be appointed by the President of the Senate, and three members of the House of Representatives, to be appointed by the Speaker, and three commissioners, to be appointed by the President, who shall sit during the recess and inquire generally into the conditions that will most favorably affect the transportation of the commerce among the States carried by land and water routes, securing thereby to the people the required facilities at the lowest charges with the greatest certainty and economy in time, and that will avoid and prevent any unjust discrimination, unnecessary burdens, or impediments in its transportation, in order to ascertain whether these conditions can be secured by legislation by Congress, and, if so, in what particulars and by what measures, and report their recommendations to Congress at its next session. That said commission shall have power to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, and examine witnesses; shall have power to appoint and employ one clerk and two stenographers, to be paid such usual compensation as shall be fixed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and each commissioner shall be paid his actual reasonable expenses, and each commissioner appointed by the President shall, in addition thereto, receive a compensation of \$10 per diem while engaged in the performance of his duties; and the sum necessary therefor is hereby appropriated out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated.

Mr. Hereford: "Mr. President, I move to amend, in line 4, by striking out 'appointed by the President of' and inserting 'selected by,' and also, in line 6, to strike out 'appointed by the Speaker,' and insert 'selected by the same'; so as to read:

"That a commission is hereby constituted, to consist of three Senators, to be selected by the Senate, and three members of the House of Representatives, to be selected by the same, etc."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment proposed by the Senator from West Virginia [Mr. Hereford]."

The amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Davis, of West Virginia: "I move to strike out 'three,' in line 6, and insert 'one.'"

Mr. Conkling: "One what?"

Mr. Davis, of West Virginia: "One commissioner appointed by the President, so as to make the whole number seven instead of nine."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment proposed by the Senator from West Virginia [Mr. Davis]."

Mr. Saulsbury: "Personally I see no necessity for the appointment of a commissioner by the President. It strikes me that the members of the two Houses on the committee are fully competent without the aid of an appointee of the President of the United States. I think the whole thing is unnecessary; but if we are to have an investigation into this subject, I do not see why members of the Senate and members of the House, who are paid for the services, may not perform all the duties which a commission composed of Senators, members of the House, and commissioners appointed by the President, may perform.

"I believe the proposed investigation entirely unnecessary. I see no good that can come from it. I have not heard the Senator who introduced the resolution explain any necessity for it. I do not know what it proposes; I do not know what evils are to be remedied by this investigation; and whatever we may do, people will inquire why we appoint this commission and what is to result from it."

Mr. Conkling, of New York: "Mr. President, having concurred as a member of the Committee on Commerce in reporting this joint resolution—indeed, the report was the unanimous work of the committee—I think I am able to answer the suggestions or questions of the Senator from Delaware.

"The purpose of the investigation is twofold; first, to acquire information, and were that its only purpose, the Senator from Delaware might have warrant in saying that members of the two Houses would be found quite adequate to conduct it; but the other purpose is to invoke from this commission recommendations, advice, suggestions, a *projet* of legislation if they shall think legislation would be useful in securing the very important objects in view. When you come to that, you must see the object of going beyond the members of the two Houses. It is that the President, if he se-

lects wisely, as the presumption must be he will, will select experts, if I may so say, will select for one of these commissioners a man specially taught or instructed in regard to the subject. For example, although I do not know that he ever will be thought of, Mr. Henry V. Poor, who has devoted so many years to railway investigations, to writing on the subject, would be in respect of many of the incidents falling within the scope of this investigation a very proper selection. So I might mention other men whose lives and pursuits have trained them to do that which I may say without offense to the honorable Senator from Delaware he could not do for lack of the practical training, which certainly I could not do, and which it would be very difficult to find any member of either House who could do as well. Therefore, that we might employ and utilize the special facilities and the special fund of information pertaining to those who in particular are instructed in this regard, it was thought wise by the committee to authorize in the mode proposed the selection of three of these nine persons to bring in such fund of instruction and aid as they could.

"Now, if ten dollars a day be an inordinate compensation, it would be true of one as well as of three; but, then, I submit that any Senator who so thinks should make his amendment a reduction of the compensation.

"My honorable friend from Connecticut [Mr. Eaton] said that this might provoke a good deal of discussion; some other Senator said it ought to be considered at large; and another Senator that it was a very important matter. All that may be true; and yet this is a mere preliminary inquiry; merely using a hand to gather up facts and recommendations to be in the future submitted to Congress. It certainly can do no great harm beyond the expenditure of the money, and considering how much has been said and how much remains to be said, how enormously the country would be advantaged if the strifes and hardships growing out of the want of adjustment of railway and other freights could be brought to an end, it seems to me that this is not an unwise or extravagant expenditure of money. Indeed, I would be willing to vote for the extreme amount if I thought the chances were nine to one that it would fail for the remaining one chance of success in the attempt to acquire this information to enlighten us all to the end that hereafter we may profit by it. I would vote for what must be (unless this shall fall into improper hands, as I can not suppose) a very limited expenditure at most to enable such a commission to acquire this information."

Mr. Gordon, of Georgia: "Mr. President, the records of the Senate will show that upon this question probably more than any other has the Congress of the United States been memorialized, I think from almost every State in the Union. Our files in the Committee on Commerce are absolutely burdened with petitions

from every section of the country upon the subject of interstate commerce and the regulation of railroads, and the committee thought that in dealing with such a vast subject, embracing so many conflicting interests, railroads built necessarily at such different costs, railroads running necessarily at such different rates of expense, varying according to the topography of the country and the amount of freight, it would be impossible for gentlemen sitting here at a central point like Washington to determine what was due on the one hand to the great mass of shippers and on the other hand to the railroads, and they thought, therefore, that as little as Congress could do to meet the wishes of the great mass of the people of this country was to make some investigation into this subject, and the question was how we should go about it.

"It will be difficult to frame a bill, as every Senator can see at once, to meet the wants of the country; and the very first element of success in doing that would be to get information upon this subject, and at the same time to get suggestions from men who are eminently practical and qualified to give opinions on the subject.

"I was led myself very largely, indeed almost entirely, to vote for this resolution by the consideration that it had been already tested in my own State. Georgia has recently appointed a commission upon this very important subject to determine railroad freights through that State, and I believe I may say that the report of that commission, recently made, has given almost universal satisfaction to the people and to the railroads. There was great clamor from different sections of our State, one section complaining that there was discrimination against it, another section complaining that through freights were destroying the business of that particular locality. Our Legislature was burdened, as Congress is, with petitions to do something which would relieve the country and give satisfaction to the people. The Legislature, after mature consideration, decided that it was best to have a commission appointed to make report, to get up facts, and to suggest legislation, and, as I said awhile ago, that commission has acted; it has produced quiet and peace and satisfaction, I think, to almost everybody in that State."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky: "Mr. President, I am opposed to this resolution, for reasons which I will briefly state.

"I believe that the Congress of the United States ought to control any commission it may appoint, therefore it should be made up of its own members. It ought to be composed of men who can explain on the floor of the respective Houses the information that may be obtained by the investigation. Stenographers are provided for in this resolution; they can take down whatever testimony men belonging to both Houses shall elicit, so that all the views of the experts can be obtained and reported on.

"There is no design, as I understand the

proposition, to select men who will give us only their individual views; but these men are to take the testimony brought before them from all parts of the country, and then lay it before the Senate and before the House, and tell both Houses what manner of men they were that came before them, what influenced their action, under what influences they were brought to appear before the committee, and all other facts necessary for us to know. I think the members of the commission who make the investigating committee should be men who on the floors of their respective Houses can tell all they saw and heard, and give us advice according to the facts.

"All the eminent men in the country are not to be selected, I presume, on the commission to give their personal views. Each man, I do not care how eminent he may be, who desires to give his views or is interested in the great questions to be inquired into, can come before the commission and have his testimony taken down and reported to us; I desire to say frankly that I wish the Senate and the House to hold the control of this commission, and, if anybody is to be appointed by the President, I would let him appoint only one man, and he should be appointed by the advice and consent of the Senate. I would hold the power in the body of the Senate and the House, that are responsible for the legislation looked to under the resolution."

Mr. Blair, of New Hampshire: "Mr. President, the statements of the chairman of the Committee on Commerce [Mr. Gordon], and of the Senator from New York [Mr. Conkling], seem to show very clearly the necessity of some action on this subject-matter, and as the original resolution was sent to the Committee on Commerce for its consideration, it would seem of course to be the sense of the Senate that that committee should primarily consider the question. The only reason, so far as I gather from the debate, why that committee does not consider it fully and finally and make its recommendation to the Senate and to the country, is the press of other matters. It seems to be conceded that there is no more important matter connected with the internal commerce of the country than this, and if the Committee on Commerce was obliged to neglect any, it should not be this, but some other of the pressing or perhaps not as pressing subjects which are referred to it.

"But if that were so, the Senate will observe that the duties originally referred to the Committee on Commerce have been divided, and the Senate has one select committee already, that on Transportation Routes to the Seaboard, which, so far as I can understand the matter, has nothing whatever to do unless it is when the Committee on Commerce is unable to consider a question like this to take charge of it. I observe the honorable Senator from Kentucky [Mr. Beck], the chairman of the committee, who has just spoken, and I should like to inquire of

him if there has been a single meeting of that committee called during the present or the past session. Has that committee had a single bill referred to it for its consideration? If not, I would inquire of him and of the Senate, if any one can conceive of a subject proper to be considered by the Committee on Transportation Routes to the Seaboard, if this is not that subject-matter? A few of the committees of the Senate seem to be overworked; there are other committees that if they have anything whatever to do, my limited observation of this Chamber has failed to discover what it is.

"Now, upon the general question whether it is necessary to have incorporated with members of the two Houses of Congress to consider this matter persons outside of Congress, I wish to offer a suggestion or two. It must certainly be considered that whatever legislation is to be taken must be taken by the two Houses of Congress; and to incorporate with these investigating committees of Congress men outside, men who are to testify or are to act as experts, is, it seems to me, entirely unnecessary, because they can not legislate, they can only recommend; and to incorporate them with the legislative power of the Government is to give to men who are not a portion of the Legislature of the Government an undue influence, an influence beyond that which should properly be given to the opinion of the citizen. It seems to me it is entirely a wrong practice, perhaps objectionable on higher grounds than the matter of propriety.

"I hardly see how such an act can itself be a constitutional act, for it must certainly be delegating to those outside of the legislative branch of the Government a certain degree of influence beyond that of a mere opinion which they otherwise would possess. This branch of the Government can avail itself of all the knowledge which any man whatever in the land may have upon this subject. He can be summoned. The most intelligent gentlemen, knowing the most upon this general matter, can be summoned to testify as witnesses, and thus the committee can avail themselves of all the knowledge that there is upon the subject; and it is improper to give any one outside of the House or of the Senate any influence beyond that which he would exert simply as a private citizen.

"I am aware, and I think any one can perceive, that by incorporating in a commission of this kind, prominent and influential men connected with the transportation interests of the country—and nobody knows who will be appointed—we may give to these men and to certain influences in the country an undue power in fashioning the legislation which may be the result. If this commission is simply to gather knowledge, to obtain information to be laid before the Senate and before the House, what real occasion is there to do more than simply appoint a committee of members in the ordinary way, and endow them with the power of summoning persons and obtaining papers in the usual way

and for the purpose for which information is sought by the committees of Congress?

"It may be said that a regular committee of the Senate is too numerous and too cumbersome for the purpose; but it is the common practice to make investigations through the agency of sub-committees. And if from the Committee on Commerce of the Senate there can be no three gentlemen selected, can there not be from this other committee that I have referred to or from the Senate at large? Is it not possible to find three intelligent gentlemen in the Senate, if they are not connected with the Committee on Commerce, who possibly might be able to give their time and attention to the investigation of this matter? And then there is the special committee, of which the honorable Senator from Kentucky is chairman, with nothing in the world to do as a committee. It does seem to me that if the chairman is too busy there could be two men taken from the majority of that committee; and the honorable Senator from Pennsylvania, who introduced this resolution, is also a member of the minority of that committee.

"The occasion for the constitution of this commission or this new committee seems to me to be altogether imaginary. I do not see what good it will do, how it can throw any light on the subject that we can not obtain otherwise; and it does seem to me that it is but a continuation and aggravation of the old bad practice."

Mr. Beck: "I desire only to say on the part of the committee of which I have the honor to be chairman that it has had very little to do, and it is composed of members (leaving myself out of view) who are perfectly competent to attend to this matter. The Senator from Pennsylvania [Mr. Cameron] is a member of it; the Senator from Minnesota [Mr. Windom] is a member of it; the Senator from Indiana [Mr. Voorhees]; and others. That committee, in my judgment, can take all the evidence; can make a report; can hear all the experts that can be brought, and will do it, and do it perfectly, and gather all the information that any outside committee can gather, and then give their reasons before the Senate for the action they shall propose to take and the recommendation they may make at the next session of Congress, just as well as any set of men that can be selected.

"It is because I believe that, that I am opposed to this resolution. We have had to do with many as important things, and two years ago the whole subject was investigated by that committee, and two large volumes printed, the Senator from Minnesota then being chairman of it. We have had before us all the matters connected with the navigation of the Mississippi, the Eads jetties, and so on; and we have now. We have delayed action in regard to a very important subject, connection between the Chesapeake and the Delaware by a ship-canal, because the House is considering it, and we did not think it important to press it before us now, as the House committee was acting.

"If this question has to be looked into by any committee, I have no hesitation in saying, I do not care how much labor it involves or what time it takes, that committee can do it and will do it, and will make a report that will embody all the views that any gentleman who may see fit to come before the committee shall give."

Mr. Maxey: "I move to amend the amendment offered by the Senator from West Virginia by striking out in lines 6 and 7 of the resolution the words—

"And three commissioners, to be appointed by the President.

"And, as a necessary corollary of that, I move in lines 24 and 25 to strike out the words—

"And each commissioner appointed by the President shall, in addition thereto, receive a compensation of \$10 per diem.

"The importance of interstate commerce is thoroughly appreciated, not only in Congress, but by the whole country. It has received a very large share of attention by appropriate committees in both Houses of Congress; not only in this Congress, but in past Congresses. I can see no reason why Congress should go outside of its own bodies for the purpose of getting persons to aid them in the discharge of this duty, for they have the power to summon witnesses, send for books and papers, and receive all the light that can possibly be thrown upon this great subject from any source whatever.

"The members of the Senate and of the House are responsible to their constituents and the whole country for the important duties which they perform here. They are supposed to have the intelligence to discharge any duty whatever incumbent upon them in the way of legislation. Therefore I can not see for the life of me why we should go outside of these bodies for the purpose of selecting three persons, to be named by the President, as the joint resolution has it, to aid Congress in doing its duty.

"If the amendment which I have had the honor to offer is not carried, then I would favor amending the amendment of the Senator from West Virginia further, by providing that one commissioner, selected by the President, shall be appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

"But still behind all that, I have never yet seen the good flowing from these special roving commissions sent about through the country to Saratoga Springs and the White Sulphur, to test the qualities of those two springs, and the *cuisine* of the Fifth Avenue Hotel, and other places of that kind; and that is about all I have ever known to result from these commissions. Let Congress do its own duty, do it through its appropriate committees, and I have no fear whatever that a bill will not be presented such as, after receiving the due consideration of the two Houses, will meet the approbation of the people and the needs of the case."

Mr. Davis, of West Virginia: "It was said by the Senator from Kentucky that there is a transportation committee, and that that committee is willing to take this work. It will be recollected that three or four years ago, in 1875 I believe, the Senate appointed a committee on this very question, and that committee went over almost the entire territory of the United States, and perhaps into Canada. There are two large volumes now in the document-room containing their report and testimony. That committee was composed, among others, of the Senator from New York [Mr. Conkling], and had the benefit of his information and advice. The present Secretary of the Treasury, I recollect, was on it. The Senator from Minnesota [Mr. Windom] was the chairman. They went fully into the very subject that is now proposed this special commission shall take charge of. The Committee on Transportation grew out of that, and it has grown into a standing committee upon this very question and no other question—commerce among the States, commerce with the seaboard. That special committee was organized for that purpose, and, as I said, it went over the whole territory of the country, and made a report which is now in the document-room.

"In addition to that, we know that the House of Representatives at this session has heard almost every eminent railroad man in the country, and has had his views taken down in writing. Those views are now in evidence before the House. I do not know of an eminent railroad man in the country who has not been summoned before the House. The information is there, and there is no necessity for this resolution in order to get a committee. If there is any particular man wanted by any committee, he can be summoned and brought here."

Mr. Cameron, of Pennsylvania: "Will the Senator permit me to interrupt him a moment?"

Mr. Davis: "Yes, sir."

Mr. Cameron: "The Senator is arguing against the appointment of a special committee."

Mr. Davis: "The Senator is arguing that in part. He has many objections to the resolution. That is one."

Mr. Cameron: "On that part I should like to call his attention to a special committee, of which I think he is chairman, that has been in session now for three years, during which time the Senator took a trip to Europe and returned, and I should like to know what is going to be the result of that special committee."

Mr. Davis: "The Senator will find out in a very few days now, and I think he will not be as well satisfied as he is now on that."

Mr. Cameron: "I will be satisfied with anything that comes from that committee or the Senator from West Virginia."

Mr. Davis: "The Senator will hear from that committee in due time, and it will not be very long either. But if the forming of that committee has anything to do with this committee

I fail to see it, and if the Senator thinks he can push his scheme forward, if it is a scheme, or push his committee because there was a committee appointed two years ago or more, that is a question that does not enter into this."

Mr. Cameron: "This is not my committee, and I do not expect to be a part of the committee; therefore I have not any scheme to push forward of a personal character."

Mr. Davis: "I correct that. I do not believe the Senator has a scheme. I think it was a wrong word, and I corrected it immediately; but still the Senator had as well let the question alone about another committee. I think that has nothing to do with this matter. There are, as is well known, among the four great trunk lines of this country two that are entirely in one State; there are two others that pass into and through different States. We all know that the question of whether or not Congress can control the railroads in either case is a doubtful one, but certainly there are very few persons who claim that Congress can in any way legislate for or control a road that is entirely in one State. The Pennsylvania Central Railroad and the New York Central Railroad, I believe, each starts and ends in the same State, while the Erie, and the Baltimore and Ohio, and the Chesapeake and Ohio go into two States or more, and so they are in a very different position as to the legislation of Congress, as is thought by a great many people. A very different state of things exists as to them.

"It may be possible that some legislation may be presented that would affect a part of these lines and not affect the others, for there are very few persons in the country who claim that when a road starts and ends in the same State Congress has anything to do with it. That is the case with two of the great railroads of this country to-day. I think it best to allow the States and the railroads to control their own affairs, and Congress ought to have very little to do with them."

The resolution failed to pass.

In the Senate, on February 25th, the following bill was considered:

Be it enacted, etc., That James Monroe Heiskell, of Baltimore City, Maryland, be, and he is hereby, relieved from the operation of section 1218 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, being in chapter 1, title 14 of said Revised Statutes.

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont: "Let us hear the section of the Revised Statutes read from the operation of which it is proposed to relieve this person."

The Chief Clerk read as follows:

SECTION 1218. No person who has served in any capacity in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, or of either of the States in insurrection during the late rebellion, shall be appointed to any position in the Army of the United States.

Mr. Edmunds: "I should like to inquire, just for information, why it is that we do not take up in lieu of this special bill the bill reported by the Senator from Indiana [Mr. McDonald]

on the 8th of December last, to repeal that section of the Revised Statutes? The Judiciary Committee has considered that subject, and by a majority, of which I was not one, has reported to the Senate a recommendation to repeal section 1218 of the Revised Statutes entirely, so as to readmit into the Army of the United States every person who is now obnoxious to the prohibition of that section by reason of having been engaged in making war upon the United States."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware: "Mr. President, I was instructed by the Committee on the Judiciary to report this bill, because we thought that, independent of the policy of entire repeal of section 1218 of the Revised Statutes, the case now presented was one of individual exigency. The individual in question, at the age of sixteen, went into Virginia, and was under age when the war ended. He had taken no oath of allegiance, and held no office, but, nevertheless, would be ineligible, by reason of military service in the South, to be nominated for any position in the Army of the United States under existing law. He has petitioned for the removal of this disability, and the committee thought proper under the circumstances to recommend to the Senate the passage of the bill removing that disability.

"I can not see why an individual case, so entirely unobjectionable, on the contrary, so far as I can see, advisable in every way, should not be favorably acted on by the Senate. It is not a denial of the principle, it is simply an affirmation of the principle in the instance in question.

"I can only say for my own part that I do desire to speed the day when the men, the young men all over this country, and their relatives and friends, may be enabled to testify their devotion to the Government by serving in every branch of its service. We have them in the Legislature; we have them in the executive branch; we have them in the Navy, and I say it is in all respects to be desired that they may be allowed as soon as possible to be enlisted in the Army and follow the flag of their country. It is for that reason that I think we should take every opportunity to encourage the youth of the country, in every section and of every shade of political opinion, by every act of Congress, whether general or special, to help make this what we all should wish it to be, a government strong in the hearts of the people."

Mr. Edmunds: "We are not able apparently to get any very clear statement of the special and separate ground on which this individual suspension of the statute is to rest, still preserving its principle, so far as I can understand the Senator from Delaware, except that in this special instance, instead of doing as General Lee did in Virginia, after great pain, as I am told, go with his State, and as many others felt it to be their duty, conscientiously I have no doubt, to go with their State, the particular object of the grace and favor of this bill felt it to be his duty to go against his State and away

from it to fight the cause which his State was engaged in supporting.

"I am not criticising the conscientiousness of the particular conviction of the young man. They say he was only sixteen. What figure does that bear? He was old enough apparently to have a will of his own, and to be able to render service to the enemies of the United States and to the enemies of his own State, by leaving his own State and the loyal side of the line (if it is proper to use the word 'loyal,' it has now got so unfashionable), and to go on the other side of the line and fight his own flag and the flag of his own State, borne gallantly, Mr. President, by many a regiment from that State itself.

"This is the special case that the Senator from Delaware says is to affirm the principle of the law as it stands, or recognize it, and on account of special equities to suspend it for the time being. I am not able to see how that strengthens the case of this young gentleman at all.

"If there is anything in what the Senator from Delaware says of hastening the day when nothing that existed on the statute-books and in the course of history during the four years from 1861 to 1865 shall remain, it does not appear to me that this is the best possible occasion and the best possible way to hasten that day. I understand perfectly well—we all do—that that day has been apparently hastening for some time, for I think it may be safely affirmed that there is no single statute that has been passed either to support the war for the preservation of the Union or to protect the liberties and the rights of the people preserved by the Union as a part of this nation, that has not been assailed within the last two or three years, and of which it can not be truthfully said that there has not been presented and pressed a measure to repeal and set aside. Every safeguard of liberty and equal rights (not hostile to the States in rebellion, but having the same force and scope in every State of the Union—only the liberty and equal rights that Magna Charta defended in England) has been assailed, and it is proposed to wipe it from the statute-book. That is true; the day has been apparently hastening when every bulwark of liberty under law and secured by law in every State, so far as the Constitution of the United States would permit it to be secured, is to be swept away. Nobody can question that. Even the security of judicial rights under plain provisions of the ancient Constitution (if we are dissatisfied with the new amendments, as a good many of us are) it is proposed to wipe out, and to leave to what is called State sovereignty the lives, and the fortunes, and the safety of citizens of the United States who are endeavoring to execute the authority of the United States in those States, entirely to the State courts, and to declare that the supremacy of the State, not under the Constitution of the United States, but against the Constitution of the United States, shall go so

far as that her courts, and hers alone, shall have jurisdiction in matters of national concern and in cases arising under the national Constitution."

Mr. Whyte, of Maryland: "Mr. President, the reason why this bill was put in its present form as a separate bill was to avoid unnecessary discussion in regard to this peculiar case, because it is a case in which I supposed nobody would have any objection to relieving this young man from the disability under which he labors. He is the great-grandson of James Monroe, formerly President of the United States, and representing in his day, in his administration, that 'era of good feeling' which I supposed prevailed in this body at the present time. His father was for many years the Surgeon-General of the United States Army, and rendered most distinguished service in that capacity. The youth was born of a Virginia mother and resided in Virginia, and when the war broke out Virginia was his home. He was but temporarily in the State of Maryland, and returned, as General Johnston returned, who now honors a seat in the House of Representatives, to the home of his nativity, and although but sixteen years of age, with that military ardor which had belonged to his father and which he inherited, he felt that his duty was to the State that gave him birth. At sixteen he entered the army. He was not twenty-one when the war closed. He has been since then a resident of my State, and I have watched him since he has been within its borders. He has been faithful to every duty which the Constitution or the law required of him. He has been eminently a good citizen, of the highest character, and having learned that there was an opportunity of his getting some small appointment in the pay department of the Army, he applied to me to aid him, when I discovered this impediment to his appointment to such a place, and therefore offered this bill, and I supposed that there would be no objection to relieving this young man of the disability imposed upon him by an act passed long ago, when it was proper to have passed such an act."

Mr. Logan, of Illinois: "May I ask the Senator what the appointment is in the Army that this young man seeks?"

Mr. Whyte: "Paymaster. He is applying for an appointment as paymaster in the pay department, and is recommended by some of the best Republicans in the United States."

Mr. Garland, of Arkansas: "Mr. President, for the reasons which have been so well assigned by the Senator from Maryland, I gave my hearty support to this bill before the Judiciary Committee, and I am still in favor of it. But at the same time that I did so I propounded the question there that the Senator from Vermont has propounded to the Senate to-day: Why hesitate and go on doing this act of amnesty by piecemeal? I quite concur with the Senator from Vermont that it is time to repeal section 1218 and get rid of it. I think he is strictly and eminently correct in his position on that.

"I propose now, Mr. President, that we get rid of section 1218, so that Mr. Heiskell, who is a meritorious young man, may have the benefit of it, with all the others that may be under disability, or that may come under the infliction of this statute.

"It is true, as the Senator from Maryland has said, that we have granted these amnesties by piecemeal; we have granted them to individuals from time to time; and he has mentioned, in particular cases, the distinguished services to the Confederate States rendered by gentlemen who now occupy responsible places in the service of the United States. This is a remnant of the statutes born and generated out of the war; and as such gentlemen hold positions all through the service of the United States I can not see for the life of me any use in this statute any longer; and therefore, as the Senator from Kentucky who now sits to my right [Mr. Beck] has persistently and consistently, ever since he has been in the Senate, introduced and pressed a bill for this general purpose, I ask leave to offer it as an amendment to this bill in the nature of a substitute. I move to strike out all after the enacting clause and insert what I send to the Chair."

The Chief Clerk: "It is proposed to strike out all after the enacting clause of the bill, and in lieu thereof to insert:

"That section 1218 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, being in chapter 1, title 14, of said Revised Statutes, which provides that 'no person who has served in any capacity in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, or of either of the States in insurrection during the late rebellion, shall be appointed to any position in the Army of the United States,' be, and the same is hereby, repealed."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment proposed by the Senator from Arkansas [Mr. Garland]."

The amendment was agreed to.

The bill was reported to the Senate as amended, and the amendment was concurred in.

The bill was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading; and it was read the third time.

The Vice-President: "The question is, 'Shall the bill pass?'"

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio: "I have supposed that the people of this country have a right to the service of every able-bodied man in time of war, and that if we should get into a war again—and no country can say it will always be at peace—we should have a right to the service of the men who were lately in the Confederate service; and I supposed that so long a time had elapsed, and there was such a sufficient evidence of the fact besides the lapse of time, to quiet the fears of anybody who is not harassed by a nervousness that never harasses me about the loyalty of the people of the South.

"How can any of these men get positions in the Army of the United States? Only by nomination by the President and confirmation by the Senate. Who of them are likely to get positions? Certainly not the old men, certainly

not the men who are verging on three-score years and ten. Who are likely to be needed in case we should get into a war again? Not those old men; not the men alluded to by the Senator from Vermont; men who he says left our own Army and went into the Confederate service. They are not at all likely to be called into the service of the United States should we again become a belligerent. No, Mr. President, but there is a large body of young men, men of military experience, men of military talent, who are as ready to fight now for the Star-spangled Banner as any man between here and Canada, and we are asked to exclude them or reject their services in order simply to put a braud upon them for which there is no political or other necessity whatever.

"I am not afraid of the Southern people on this question—not the least bit of it, sir. The Northern people want, the best of them, a majority of them want to bury the hatreds of the war; they want peace, they want fraternity once more. That is what they want, and they do not want to reject the services of any competent and now loyal man by inquiring whether or not he did at some time or other bear a musket in the Confederate service."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky: "Mr. President, reference has been made by the Senator from Arkansas to the fact that the bill which is now before the Senate is a substitute for an original bill which had been introduced by myself and urged upon all proper occasions, and sometimes, perhaps, I may add, when it was not quite proper. I desire to say one word as to my motive for so doing. I will first read the section itself:

"SECTION 1213. No person who has served in any capacity in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, or of either of the States in insurrection during the late rebellion, shall be appointed to any position in the Army of the United States.

"It so happened that a year or two ago a young man living in southern Kentucky sought to apply for a place in the Army of the United States, but he had been a page in the Tennessee Legislature during the war, when he was too young to be either loyal or disloyal. That was a civil office under one of the States then in rebellion. His father was so poor that he could not educate him without making the boy work for a living, and as there was little else doing but public matters at that time, he accepted the position of a page in the Legislature of Tennessee, and was therefore disqualified by law from applying even for a place in the Army of the United States; that seemed to me to be obviously wrong when I saw the Vice-President of the Confederacy sitting in the other end of the Capitol, when the men who occupied the highest positions during that war are here and at the other end of the Capitol, and when the sons of those gentlemen, not being compelled to accept any service either under the Confederate government or under any State in rebellion, can all enter the United States Army because their fathers were able to educate them themselves,

and only the poorer boys, who were obliged to work for a living and had to do whatever was required or could be obtained either under the Confederate States or under the States, were excluded. As all the higher, richer, great, and important persons were allowed to fill places of the highest honor and profit in this Government, it seemed to me the Congress of the United States was not acting justly to itself or to the people to exclude by law even the right to apply for a place in the Army from the younger, poorer men who were obliged to work at whatever they could get to do during the years of war. Hence, I thought it was a proper thing to repeal this statute, and I had hoped it would be done unanimously. No law should remain for a moment on the statute-books under which such a condition of things is possible."

Mr. Logan: "Mr. President, I should have no objection myself to the application of the principle that the Senator from Kentucky speaks of to persons like the one that he mentions from his State; but this law to-day is no greater hardship on a person who served in the Confederate service than it is on one who served in the Union Army, for if the Senator will examine the law in reference to appointments in the Army he will find that all those persons are now over the age that would allow them to be appointed in the Army. So this in itself does not act as an inhibition solely upon those parties."

Mr. Jones, of Florida: "Then it is useless."

Mr. Logan: "The repeal of it is useless, certainly, because by the repeal of this law you do not authorize their appointment in the service unless you appoint them as brigadier-generals or major-generals, because up to that point men rise by promotion in the Army; and appointment in the Army now can not be made except of persons who are not over a certain age. This statute was passed, as I understand it, for the reason that the people of this country, certainly not differing from the people of other countries in that particular, concluded that persons who served in the Confederate army against the Government were not as likely to be as faithful to the Government as those who were on the other side of the question."

Mr. Thurman: "May I ask my friend a question?"

Mr. Logan: "Certainly."

Mr. Thurman: "If my friend from Illinois were President of the United States, as he may at some future time be, and we were in war, would he not call into the service Southern men? As a brave soldier, would he be afraid to go into battle commanding those men?"

Mr. Logan: "No, I would not be afraid to go into battle commanding any men that had volunteered on my side, while they were under my command, nor would any man who had command of soldiers.

"But the point I am getting at is this: This law was passed for the purpose of making a distinction in the Army between those who pre-

ferred the Union side and those who preferred the Confederate side, or who were in rebellion against the Government. I think it was a proper distinction. Whether that distinction in time of war shall be wiped out or not is another consideration. We are not in war.

"The repeal of this law does not strike me as being very well in this respect: We find that recently the Congress of the United States has authorized the President to appoint certain persons in the Army, that they might be placed on the retired list, who resigned at the beginning of this war in order to keep themselves out of the war. Being out of the Army for fifteen years, the Congress of the United States has passed a law authorizing their appointment in the Army that they may be placed on the retired list.

"I see in this repeal the very same thing reenacted here in Congress, that men who were in the Army prior to the war may be restored, if they are to be considered on an equality (which I do not say anything about) with these other men, and certainly they ought to be on an equality with men who resigned to keep themselves out of the way of bullets. It may be said there is no reason why Congress should not authorize the President to place them in the Army that they may go on the retired list, because they are to-day above the age at which they can be appointed in the Army. There is no good ground at all for the repeal of this law, except for the placing of these men in the Army again that they may be retired, as has been done in some instances.

"No, sir; if the Congress of the United States shall attempt to put back into the Army all the men, or part of them, who were dismissed on account of unfaithfulness to their country, or men who had been in the Army and resigned and went on the other side because of their want of good faith to their country, then I say we are doing a wrong not only to the Army but to the country which supports the Army. There can be no reason for this, unless it is that these men may be placed in the Army again that they may be retired and supported by the Government, because there is no other way, they being beyond the age in which they can get into the Army, except by act of Congress.

"Then, sir, I say further, not out of any bitterness or feeling, that I do claim, and I claim it in this Senate Chamber in the presence of Senators whom I have a high respect for who were on the other side in the contest, that there should be a distinction made in our Army in time of peace between those who fought for the Union and those who fought to destroy it. I have always maintained it, and ever shall maintain it, not because I have any feelings of animosity against these men; no such thing. They may have been misguided; that is not the question. They were found in a certain position against the Government. Being found there, they are not entitled again to wear the uniform of this country and draw its sword in preference

to the men who have always been faithful to it. In time of war, the Senator from Ohio says, would you not allow these men to fight? 'Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof.' When war comes we will consider the question; but in time of peace I say, without giving any opinion as to the future, I would not place men in the Army who fought for the destruction of this Government by the side of men who struggled for its existence. I would not do it, and I never will do it."

Mr. Thurman: "Mr. President, I can not help saying a word more on this bill, though I did not intend to say a word about it originally. I can not let the remarks of the Senator from Illinois pass without a word. The Senator would not remove this brand from these men in time of peace; but when war comes, should it come with any foreign power or a dozen foreign powers, then the Senator will be willing to say to these men, 'Here, we branded you during all these many years of peace, and all the while when you were perfectly loyal, and now in the hour of need of the country we appeal to your patriotism to come out and fight for us.'"

Mr. Logan: "The Senator will allow me to remark that I did not say that."

Mr. Thurman: "No, but that is exactly what it comes to."

Mr. Logan: "No, sir, I beg the Senator's pardon, I said no such thing. I said it would be time to consider that question when war came, and if the Senator now wants to call me out on that question I will answer him honestly. Peace or war, had I the appointing power, I would give commissions to those men who never failed when their country called."

Mr. Thurman: "That sounds very well indeed, and we know now what the programme of the Senator is, that in time of war he would not commission one single man, however loyal, however eminent, however distinguished his military talent, if that man twenty or thirty years before had been on the Confederate side. I am perfectly willing that the Senator may take that ground and stand on it."

Mr. Logan: "I did not say that, either."

Mr. Thurman: "And, Mr. President, there was another thing that struck me as a little curious. The Senator said that the object of this bill must be to put a parcel of officers who were once in the Army of the United States and went into the Confederate service upon the retired list of the Army of the United States. How, indeed, the Senator could get such an idea as that in his head passes my comprehension. Certainly it is not supported by the few instances he gave, that of Colonel Haller and that of some Maryland colonel. In respect to Colonel Haller we are told by the Senator from Oregon that he did not resign. In regard to the Maryland man, I know nothing about him; I never heard his name before; but if he did resign in order to escape exposing his person to bullets, as the Senator from Illinois said if I understood him correctly, how comes it that a Republican Senate,

as this Senate was a year ago, voted to put that man back into the Army of the United States on the retired list?"

Mr. Logan: "That is an astonishing thing to me."

Mr. Thurman: "It is very surprising. I can not understand it at all."

Mr. Slater: "Allow me to state that Colonel Haller is on the active list, with the rank of major."

Mr. Thurman: "I leave that matter with the explanation of the Senator from Oregon; but this other thing, it strikes me as marvelous indeed. The explanation I make of it, without knowing anything of it, is that the Military Committee of the Senate, then overwhelmingly Republican, that the majority in the Senate then overwhelmingly Republican, did not find the facts to be as the Senator from Illinois supposes. They did not find the fact that this man had been guilty of any such cowardice or any such disloyalty, or that committee would never have reported the bill to restore him to the Army, and the Senate would never have passed such a bill."

Mr. Logan: "I did not say the committee found the facts to be so. I only stated what I knew of the case when I was on that committee as chairman. I stated my own conclusion, and I came to that conclusion from the evidence. Others perhaps would have come to a different conclusion. That was my conclusion, and it was so understood by the committee, certainly as long as I was on it. I only stated that. I do not know what might have been in the man's mind when he resigned."

Mr. Thurman: "I can not pretend to say who are the best judges of the facts, the Senator from Illinois or those who succeeded him on the Military Committee; nor can I pretend to say whether the evidence was the same before both committees; but here stands the fact upon the statement of the Senator from Illinois, if that statement be correct, that a Republican committee of this body reported in favor of restoring a man to the Army of the United States, who was not only a traitor at heart but was a greater traitor because he was a coward—to put both a traitor and coward back into the Army of the United States. A Republican committee of this body reported a bill for that purpose; a Republican majority in this body passed it into a law! I do not believe it, Mr. President. I believe that the facts were really different, for there is not a Senator on this floor who would do such a thing as that."

Mr. Edmunds: "Mr. President, in the first place I wish to say to the Senator from Ohio, and to everybody else who is willing to listen to me, that I think he is greatly mistaken every time—and it is not very infrequent in such discussions as this—when he uses the word 'hatred' as apparently imputed to gentlemen who differ with him in opinion."

Mr. Thurman: "Upon my word, if I used that word to-day I do not know it. I certainly

did not impute it to any Senator on that side."

Mr. Edmunds: "I know the Senator did not mean personal hatred, but the idea that is continually paraded here when those of us who do not agree with gentlemen on the other side oppose or support a particular measure is that it grows out of a sentiment of animosity to many of our colleagues and their friends who, as we think, contrary to the Constitution and in violation of their duty to it, went into a rebellion. Now, I want to state, as I have stated I presume a hundred times, that any man North or South who imputes to any Republican anywhere that ever I heard of any such sentiment of hatred or animosity, makes a great mistake. It is not true. We are only, when we oppose these measures, doing what we consider to be necessary for the security and good order of the whole Union, and it is not through any animosity or hatred, or, as we can see it, any prejudice to these gentlemen. We have labored under the impression—undoubtedly the Senator from Ohio can convince us it is a wrong impression—that in every controversy there must be a right side and a wrong side, and the delusion that we are under is evidently that we were on the right side of that controversy, which prevailed, and that the consequences that flow from being on the right side are those which the Senator from Ohio desires that those who turned out to be on the wrong side shall reap, and not those who were on the right side."

Mr. Burnside: "Mr. President, I beg to make a statement to correct a wrong impression which may have been created by the remarks of the Senator from Ohio [Mr. Thurman] and the Senator from Illinois [Mr. Logan]. The Senator from Ohio stated that the Committee on Military Affairs of the last Congress was a Republican committee. He knows as well as I know that the committee was composed of five Republicans and four Democrats, and that many of its meetings were ruled by the minority party. For instance, a quorum consists of five Senators, and might have been made by three Democrats and two Republicans, or four Democrats and one Republican. What were the exact conditions of that committee on the mornings that Colonel Wyse's and Colonel Haller's cases were recommended favorably I am not going to say, because it is not proper for me to speak of what occurred in committee, and much less proper would it be for me to criticize the action of that committee."

"The Senator from Illinois has chosen to say something of what the committee did when he was a member of it, and when he was in the Senate, and has said that during the time he was out the committee did a certain thing which he thought was very wrong. As to the propriety of this course I will leave it to the Senator himself and to the Senate."

Mr. Logan: "If the Senator will allow me, I think I can state exactly what I did say."

Mr. Burnside: "The substance of it was that."

Mr. Logan: "No, I said that the Senate and the House, the Congress of the United States, had passed the bill referred to within the last two years or during the last Congress. I made no reflection upon the committee whatever. I only stated that my knowledge of the case grew out of the fact that it was presented to the committee several times while I was chairman. I said nothing about what the committee did when I was chairman, or what they did when somebody else was chairman; I only stated that I knew the fact because it was presented there several times when I was the chairman."

Mr. Burnside: "Mr. President, I have said what I have to say on that subject. Now I will say with reference to these two men, Colonel Haller was dismissed, I believe, peremptorily by the Secretary of War without any trial. If I remember aright, he was dropped from the rolls for disloyal talk at a convivial meeting one night in camp. The Military Committee, for reasons best known to its members, upon an argument presented—which I am not going to speak of here, because it would not be proper for me to do so—decided to allow the President to act as he thought proper in that case. Inasmuch as this man had been dismissed without even the formality of a court martial, it was thought to be fair to allow his case to be opened. I must say, without reference to my own vote, that I was in command of the Army of the Potomac at the time the occurrence took place, and I did not believe Colonel Haller was a disloyal man. I do not believe to-day he was disloyal. He fought gallantly in every battle he was engaged in; but for some reason the Secretary of War took that action, and I am not going to criticise it. He has gone to a higher court than we can create here, and to a better Judge. I am willing to let that matter stand just where it is. Colonel Haller was placed before a board of officers, created by authority of Congress, and that board of officers made a certain recommendation to the President of the United States, and he has taken action by nominating Colonel Haller as colonel in the Army, and the Senate has confirmed that action."

"Now, in reference to Colonel Wyse, he resigned from the Army because he was ordered on a duty which he could not perform, and which it is well known he could not, and he resigned. I do not mean to say how I voted in his case. The Secretary of War held his resignation for more than a year, I believe, or certainly a year, and the whole thing had passed out of consideration. Colonel Wyse thought that he was as much an officer of the Army as I was at the time; and suddenly, after this long space of time had passed, his resignation was abruptly accepted. He did struggle for reinstatement, and his wife struggled to aid him, as in duty bound. The Military Committee considered the case. It thought in its best judgment that it would be well to allow the

President, if he thought proper, after investigating the case, to reinstate Colonel Wyse and place him on the retired list."

"That was the action of the Military Committee on these two cases. I do not mean to say that it was right; I am surely not disposed to say that it was wrong. I mean to say that it is not legitimate and fair criticism to criticise the action of the committee."

Subsequently, on June 7th, the bill was again considered.

The Presiding Officer: "The question is on the passage of the bill."

Mr. Allison, of Iowa: "I ask that the bill be read."

The Chief Clerk read as follows:

Be it enacted, etc., That section 1218 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, being in chapter 1, title 14, of said Revised Statutes, which provides that "no person who has served in any capacity in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, or of either of the States in insurrection during the late rebellion, shall be appointed to any position in the Army of the United States," be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

Mr. Dawes: "Before the Senate votes upon this bill in its present shape, I desire to have the statute read which it proposes to repeal, so that we can all understand clearly what is being done in this summary manner and with so little apparent attention to what seems to me a very important matter."

The Chief Clerk read as follows:

SECTION 1218. No person who has served in any capacity in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, or of either of the States in insurrection during the late rebellion, shall be appointed to any position in the Army of the United States.

Mr. Dawes: "If I understand the bill in its present shape, it proposes to remove that barrier and open the Army to being filled, if the appointing power shall deem it proper, by any person who has proved himself recreant to the flag and to the oath of office which he took to serve his country faithfully in the Army of the United States without exception. I desire, before a vote shall be taken upon it, without arguing the question over and over again, that the Senate shall distinctly and clearly understand what is proposed."

"If the Senate are prepared to strike down this last barrier or last distinction between the officers of the Army faithful to the flag and those who were faithless to it, if they are prepared so to vote, then let them vote for the passage of this bill."

Mr. Davis, of Illinois: "The Senator from Maryland [Mr. Whyte] introduced this bill for the benefit of a particular person. The Senator is not here, but is sick in bed. My understanding was that he wanted the bill to pass for the benefit of this particular man and not any general bill; and it was agreed between the Senator from Arkansas [Mr. Garland], who offered the amendment, being spurred to it by the Senator from Vermont [Mr. Edmunds], that that should be non-concurred in, and that this bill for the

benefit of a grandson of Mr. Monroe should be considered. Now, sir, he is absent, and I object to any further consideration of the bill."

The bill was then laid aside.

Subsequently, on June 15th, Mr. Whyte said: "I ask to take up the bill (S. No. 1191) for the relief of James Monroe Heiskell, of Baltimore City, Maryland."

The President *pro tempore*: "The question is on the passage of the bill as amended."

Mr. Garland, of Arkansas: "I offered an amendment to the bill under a conviction that it was high time to get rid of section 1218 of the Revised Statutes, and I judge that was the view also of the Senator from Vermont [Mr. Edmunds], who really invited the amendment, as stated by the Senator from Maryland [Mr. Whyte]. I did not offer it with a view of obstructing or weighting down the bill, because this is a very meritorious and very worthy young man, and I am very anxious that he should be relieved. If there is any difficulty in the way of passing the bill as amended, I appeal to the Senator from Wisconsin to withdraw his objection and let us pass the bill for this young man, who was hardly old enough really to have incurred the disability from which we now seek to relieve him; but if that can not be done, I think we had all better shake hands on this and pass the amended bill, and relieve all of this class from the operations of section 1218."

Mr. Cameron, of Wisconsin: "I withdraw my objection."

The President *pro tempore*: "The Senator from Wisconsin withdraws his objection. The question now is, Will the Senate give unanimous consent to reconsider the vote by which this bill was ordered to a third reading? Is there objection? The Chair hears none, and the vote by which the bill was ordered to be read a third time is reconsidered. The question now is upon the amendment offered by the Senator from Arkansas [Mr. Garland]."

The amendment was rejected.

The President *pro tempore*: "The question is, Shall the bill be engrossed and read a third time?"

The bill was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading, and read the third time.

The President *pro tempore*: "Shall the bill pass?"

The result was announced—yeas 29, nays 12; as follows:

YEAS—Bailey, Beck, Brown, Butler, Call, Cockrell, Davis of Illinois, Davis of West Virginia, Eaton, Groome, Hampton, Harris, Herford, Jonas, Maxey, Morgan, Pendleton, Pryor, Randolph, Ransom, Sanlisbury, Slater, Thurman, Vest, Voorhees, Wallace, Whyte, Williams, Withers—29.

NAYS—Allison, Anthony, Blair, Booth, Burnside, Cameron of Wisconsin, Dawes, Kirkwood, Logan, McMillan, Saunders, Teller—12.

ABSENT—Baldwin, Bayard, Blaine, Bruce, Cameron of Pennsylvania, Carpenter, Coke, Conkling, Edmunds, Farley, Ferry, Garland, Grover, Hamlin, Hill of Colorado, Hill of Georgia, Hoar, Ingalls, Johnston, Jones of Florida, Jones of Nevada, Kellogg, Kernan, Lamar, McDonald, McPherson, Morrill, Paddock,

Platt, Plumb, Rollins, Sharon, Vance, Walker, Windom—35.

So the bill was passed.

The bill was received in the House, but not acted upon.

On June 15th the President sent to the Senate a message vetoing the bill vesting the appointment of deputy marshals for elections in the United States courts.

On June 16th both Houses adjourned.

CONNECTICUT. The session of the General Assembly began January 7th, and adjourned March 25th. The Speaker of the House of Representatives was Dwight Marcy. Lieutenant-Governor Gallup presided over the Senate.

No questions of exciting interest were brought before this Legislature. The business of the session was accomplished in a smooth, methodical manner, without haste or delay. Most of the work was done in committee. Many of the more important subjects of general legislation were postponed for future consideration. In some of these the two Houses had failed to concur, in others the reluctance toward premature legislation, which was strongly manifested in both Houses, prevailed. One or two weighty acts were recalled and rescinded after they had passed both houses. Party spirit was excited by the action of the majority in two cases of contested elections and in the repeal of an act of the last Legislature affecting the representation of Middletown; but none of the succeeding acts of the Assembly were tinged with partisanship. The most important measures passed were the ratification of the boundary-line agreed upon by the New York and Connecticut commissioners; a constitutional amendment providing that Judges of the Supreme Court shall be nominated by the Governor, and the nominations submitted to the General Assembly for approval; a more stringent law regarding the incorporation of joint-stock companies; and bills making special appropriations of magnitude.

The amendment to the Constitution, to be submitted to the people, is as follows:

The Judges of the Supreme Court of Errors and of the Superior Court shall, upon the nomination of the Governor, be appointed by the General Assembly in such manner as shall by law be prescribed.

The power to both select and appoint the Supreme Court Judges is at present given to the Assembly by the Constitution. The reasons for taking the nominating power out of the hands of the legislative majority are that men ambitious of becoming judges may intrigue to procure their nomination in the party caucuses of the Legislature, and no personal responsibility attaches to any one for nominations which may be arranged on political or personal grounds in the secret conclaves of the party. The high standard of character sought in the choice of a Governor, and the reputation which he naturally wishes to maintain, would prevent his nominating judges upon purely political

grounds or out of favoritism. The bar of the State favor this change, deeming that it will raise the standard of the bench, without transferring the power of electing the judiciary, which by the traditions of the Constitution reposes in the representatives of the people.

The New York and Connecticut joint boundary commission agreed upon a boundary-line between the two States. This gives to New York a small strip on the west, 4-68 square miles in area, called the "oblong tract," on the Connecticut side of the straight-line boundary running north and south twenty miles east of the North River, agreed upon in 1685, but which was given to New York by a faulty survey made about a century ago, and first came into controversy in 1856. The settlement draws the more important southern boundary through the middle of Long Island Sound. Difficulties and disputes have many times arisen over the islands and fisheries along the Connecticut shore, which were added to New York by the Duke of York's grant, but which by earlier charters and by maritime law belong to Connecticut. The authorities of each State have sometimes claimed, sometimes avoided jurisdiction over these lands, according as immediate interest dictated. Fisher's Island, about seven miles long and one broad, and lying within two miles of the shore, was left in the possession of New York by the settlement. Against this the citizens of Stonington earnestly protested, who represent the island as a resort of prize-fighters and refuge of thieves from New York. The General Assembly ratified the settlement of the commissioners, as the New York Legislature did also; but a new commission was appointed to negotiate with the State of New York for the cession of Fisher's Island to Connecticut.

The new law relating to the incorporation of joint-stock companies requires twenty per cent. of the capital to be paid up in cash, and demands that any portion of the remainder which is paid in property must be taken at its real value. Charters are not to be granted for the buying and selling of real estate, the trust, insurance, or banking businesses, or for trafficking in patent rights. Directors must be elected by the stockholders annually; and the secretary and treasurer, or an assistant treasurer, must be residents of the State. The books must be kept on hand for the inspection of stockholders. The capital may be increased or reduced by the vote of the owners of two thirds of the stock. A report of the financial condition of each company, and a list of the shareholders, must be lodged with the town clerk of the place where the business is located, and a financial statement be filed in the office of the Secretary of the State every year. The directors render themselves jointly and severally liable for the debts of the corporation by paying dividends when it is insolvent, or which cause it to become so, and all officers become liable for the company debts who fail to per-

form the duties required of them by law. Delinquent subscribers may be sold out; or the equity of redemption of their stock may be sold, if they have pledged it to third parties. On the petition of stockholders owning one third of the stock, the company may be dissolved and its affairs placed in liquidation by the courts; and any stockholder or creditor, or the district attorney, may have the business wound up, unless proof is brought of solvency, if the annual statements have been twice omitted; if shown to be solvent, the court may fix a limit within which the statement must be filed. The charters of 1,298 joint-stock companies incorporated under the laws of Connecticut, which had ceased to exist or had failed to make reports to the State Secretary, were repealed.

The fees of receivers of banks, savings-banks, and trust companies were fixed by an act passed by the Legislature this year at one per cent. of the dividends paid to depositors and creditors, which shall be in full for all personal and clerical services, all other expenses to be taxed by the court, which may also allow additional fees when the dividends fall short of a total sum of \$250,000. The law which prescribes the character of the investments and securities which may be purchased by savings-banks was amended so as to allow investment in Indiana, Missouri, Kansas, and Nebraska State bonds, in the bonds of Philadelphia, Chicago, and certain other cities, in guaranteed bonds of the District of Columbia, and in the bonds of railroads which have paid dividends on their stock of five per cent. or more for at least five years. The restriction which debar savings-banks from investing more than half of their deposits in bonds and personal securities is relaxed, United States and Connecticut State and municipal bonds being taken out of this class and counted with real-estate securities. Another act requires savings-banks to carry one eighth of one per cent. of deposits to surplus semi-annually, instead of the reserve of a quarter of one per cent. required by the former law, which was suspended two years before.

An amendment was made to the insolvency law. A bill was passed requiring bank cashiers and treasurers of trust companies to give bonds of at least \$10,000. A bill to reduce the taxation of life-insurance companies from one half to three eighths of one per cent., on the ground that eleven millions out of their eighty million dollars capital consists of property outside of the State, which is already taxed twenty-seven mills on the dollar, passed both Houses, but was reconsidered afterward and revoked. A freight bill forbidding railroad companies to charge more for transportation for shorter distances than their through-line freight rates, passed the House, but the Senate refused to concur. A law was made prohibiting the adulteration of sugar with glucose, terra alba, or other substances. Among a number of liquor

laws was one including any beer requiring a revenue stamp (Schenk-beer) among "intoxicating liquors." A bill passed the Senate, but failed of final enactment, according to which the selectmen could forbid the sale of liquor to any individual at the request of one of his immediate relatives, and likewise on the complaint of any resident in the town. Both Houses concurred in a bill giving female citizens the right of the ballot upon the liquor question, but afterward rescinded the law. A bill to allow women to vote for school-officers was rejected. An education bill requires schools to be maintained thirty-six weeks in the year in every district containing one hundred and ten or more children of school age. Another demands that children between eight and fourteen years of age be sent to school at least sixty days in each year. An act concerning the employment of children prohibits any one from employing a child under fourteen years of age not furnished with a certificate that it has attended school as the law requires. An act regarding convict-labor provides that the directors of the State Prison shall give public notice in the newspapers of all the cities of the State for four weeks before making any contract for the labor of fifty or more of the prisoners in any trade or occupation, and shall inquire into the effect of such proposed employment upon the interest of the State, the moral and physical condition of the prisoners and upon free labor, and give a hearing to all who may wish to be heard in the matter; and if it shall appear upon inquiry that such employment will not be for the interest of the State, or will be detrimental to the moral or physical condition of the prisoners, or will seriously injure the citizens of this or any other State engaged in that trade or occupation, it shall be prohibited. It was adduced in the debate over this bill that the hatting industry of Connecticut suffered in consequence of the employment of over 800 convicts in the New York prisons at hat-making, as there are only 7,000 felt hat-makers in the country.

The law of Connecticut on the conduct of criminal trials has heretofore been different from the law and practice in the courts of all the other States and in the United States courts. The defense has been allowed the advantage of the opening and closing arguments in criminal cases, making it a much more difficult thing to procure a conviction than in other States. The Assembly this year enacted a statute making the procedure in Connecticut courts conform in this regard with the usual practice. A new jury law was made, providing that the selectmen of each town shall draw twice the number of names required, and that county jury commissioners shall erase half the names from the list; it is contempt of court to solicit that one's own name or the name of another be placed on the list. The qualifications of the juror are that he shall be an elector, of good character, and over thirty years of age.

A law was enacted for the prevention of contagious diseases in cattle, especially tuberculosis or pleuro-pneumonia. The cattle commissioners are given the discretionary power to condemn and slaughter cattle afflicted with the disease. The State pays half the value of the condemned animals. A resolution was passed praying the Legislature of New York to repeal the law which compels the masters of vessels sailing through Hell Gate to pay half pilotage to the pilot tendering his services in case a master requires no assistance and pilots his own ship. A second resolution begs Congress to correct this injustice by the passage of an equitable general pilot law.

A tax levy of one and a half mill on the dollar was ordered to be paid by the 10th of November. The principal appropriation bills were \$130,000 for new buildings for the insane poor at Middletown, and \$113,500 for the contractor for the new State Capitol, to compromise claims amounting to \$200,000, of which the commissioners had awarded only \$45,000.

The total appropriations of \$2,000,000 from the State and \$500,000 from the city of Hartford have been exhausted in the building and fitting up of the Capitol.

The second annual report of the Board of Health and Bureau of Vital Statistics covers the year 1878. The total number of registered births was 13,499, of deaths 9,352, of marriages 4,285, of divorces 401; showing a decrease in the births of 378, in deaths of 344, in marriages of 24, and in divorces of 26. The ratio of male to female births was 109.74 to 100, the ratio of 1877 having been 109.18, and the mean ratio of the twenty years anterior 110.44 male to 100 female births. In 2,855 marriages, the contracting parties were of American, and in 721 of foreign birth; in 674 they were of mixed nationality.

The educational statistics of 1879 show a registered attendance in schools of all kinds of 130,597 out of a total population of school age, or between four and sixteen years of age, of 138,428 children: the percentage of children attending school being, therefore, 94.34. In the public schools the number of scholars on the rolls was 99,662 in winter, and 91,860 in summer. The number of public schools was 1,638; teachers in winter 2,741, of which number 1,968 were females; average monthly salaries for male teachers \$57, for female teachers \$35. The total expenditure for public schools was \$1,390,972, against \$1,509,158 in 1879, and an average expenditure of \$1,563,016 for the five years previous.

The valuation of the principal cities and towns in the grand list of 1879 was as follows: Hartford, \$45,558,490; New Haven, \$45,760,809; Norwich, \$13,431,430; Bridgeport, \$11,422,483; Meriden, \$8,890,848; Waterbury, \$7,810,731; Stamford, \$6,648,145; New London, \$6,531,494; Middletown, \$6,298,444; Norwalk, \$5,593,218; Danbury, \$5,185,300; Stonington, \$4,851,163; New Britain, \$4,589,304; Derby,

\$3,705,405; Greenwich, \$3,590,067; Windham, \$3,505,539.

The twelve joint-stock fire-insurance companies of Connecticut possess assets amounting to \$18,216,944. The premiums received by these in 1879 amounted to \$6,340,940, the losses paid to \$3,772,182, or 59.49 per cent. of the receipts; there was a decrease of \$282,238 in premiums, and an increase of \$338,011 in losses, compared with the preceding year. The sixteen mutual fire-insurance companies of the State cover risks amounting to \$80,692,616, wholly on houses and stores; the entire assessed value of these classes of property aggregates only \$166,437,696, the valuation of dwellings aggregating \$125,021,813, of stores and mills \$41,415,883. As the mutual companies do not assume city risks, they probably cover considerably more than one half of the country and suburban buildings with their insurance.

The now extensive cultivation of Havana seed-tobacco in Pennsylvania, New York, and in the Miami River Valley of Ohio, and Rock County in Wisconsin, makes tobacco a less profitable crop in Connecticut than formerly. This agricultural specialty was introduced in Connecticut before 1850. A demand grew up for this kind of tobacco for cigar-wrappers, and as the price advanced to twenty or thirty cents a pound the cultivation was extended, until it reached its highest point in 1874, when about 10,000,000 pounds were produced in Connecticut and 4,000,000 pounds in the other New England States. In 1879 the total crop of New England was not much over 12,000,000 pounds, while in the Middle States and in the Western districts named the culture of seed-leaf had developed within a few years from the first experimental beginnings to a total product in 1879 of about 50,000,000 pounds.

The Republican Convention for the choice of delegates to the National Convention met in New Haven, April 7th. The following single resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That this Convention pledges itself and the constituency which it represents to the hearty, vigorous, and loyal support of the nominees of the Republican National Convention at Chicago.

The Democratic State Convention for the same purpose was held in Hartford, April 28th. The platform was as follows:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of Connecticut steadfastly adhere to the principles of the Constitution, at all times admitting its obligations and respecting its limitations.

Resolved, That we demand that the administration of our Government shall be restored to its former standard of economy and honesty.

Resolved, That we denounce the great conspiracy of 1876 by which Samuel J. Tilden and Thomas A. Hendricks were deprived of the high offices to which they were elected, as a plot dangerous to free government, and a crime against that public morality upon which our free institutions are dependent.

Resolved, That as the Democracy of the Union are about to discharge the high and responsible duty of selecting candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States, we appeal to them to nominate citizens whose devotion to the Constitution and honest

government is well defined; whose upright public services and strict personal integrity commend them to the Democratic and conservative voters of the country, who will unite those voters enthusiastically in their support, and lead the Democratic party to a triumph which shall result in the overthrow of corrupt rings and designing schemes to establish a personal government over that of the Constitution and the people.

Resolved, That in selecting such candidates the delegates who shall represent Connecticut in the National Convention are hereby requested to vote as a unit; and also to support the well-established two-thirds rule of past Democratic National Conventions.

The Convention of the Prohibition party was held at Hartford, April 21st. Delegates to the National Convention were chosen, and the following State ticket was nominated: Governor, George P. Rogers; Lieutenant-Governor, Abel S. Beardsley; Secretary of State, William S. Williams; Treasurer, Edmund Tuttle; Comptroller, Dr. E. B. Lyon.

The Republican Convention for the nomination of State officers met at Hartford, August 11th. Hobart B. Bigelow, of New Haven, was nominated for Governor; William H. Bulkeley, for Lieutenant-Governor; Charles E. Searls, for Secretary of State; David P. Nichols, for Treasurer; Wheelock T. Bachellor, for Comptroller. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That we heartily ratify the nomination of James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur for President and Vice-President of the United States.

Resolved, That we endorse the principles affirmed by the last National Republican Convention.

Resolved, That the election of Republican candidates and the triumph of Republican principles will insure a continuance of that sound financial policy to which we owe our revived prosperity; will secure the full protection of free American labor from all unjust competition; will spread free education over every portion of the country; and place beyond all peril the civil and political rights of every citizen in every State.

Resolved, That we present to the electors of Connecticut our candidates for State officers; they are worthy the suffrages of every freeman, and we pledge them our hearty support from this day until their election in November.

Resolved, That the State Board of Health are requested to make such immediate modifications of their rules and regulations under the act of March, 1880, concerning color-blindness, as will permit all such employees as are now able to distinguish the colors and signals used by railroad companies in this State at practical distances, to continue in their several places of duty until after the next session of the General Assembly.

Resolved, That if any legislation is necessary on the subject of color-blindness it be demanded that the next Legislature make such alteration in chapter 95 of the Public Acts of 1880 as will require only the examination of railroad employees by practical tests in the hands of practical men.

The regular Democratic Convention for State nominations assembled at New Haven, August 18th. The following ticket was nominated: Governor, James E. English; Lieutenant-Governor, Charles M. Pond; Secretary of State, Stephen S. Blake; Treasurer, Merrick A. Marcy; Comptroller, Charles R. Fagan. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That we reaffirm the principles adopted by the national Democracy at Cincinnati, believing that the success of those principles will bring peace, harmony, and prosperity to the whole people, and will in-

sure a permanent reconciliation between once discordant States.

Resolved, That we enthusiastically ratify the nomination of the soldier-statesman, Winfield Scott Hancock, of Pennsylvania, and of his accomplished colleague, William H. English, of Indiana, and pledge them the electoral vote of Connecticut.

Resolved, That as Connecticut cast her electoral vote in 1876 for the legally and constitutionally elected President, Samuel J. Tilden, so she will in 1880, in casting her electoral votes for Hancock and English, set the seal of her condemnation upon the conspirators who defrauded the people at the last Presidential election and committed the greatest political crime of modern times.

Resolved, That we hold the Republican party responsible for the sweeping and unjust law regarding color-blindness passed by the last Republican Legislature and approved by a Republican Governor. The law is harsh, and serves no legitimate end as it stands, and should be modified to conform to the demands of reason.

Resolved, That legislation tending to make our penal institutions self-supporting should be so framed as to prevent the sacrifice of the interests of the honest, industrious, and non-criminal classes.

Resolved, That we heartily endorse the ticket nominated this day, and recommend it to the voters of the State as a guarantee of an honest, capable, and economical administration of State affairs.

Resolved, That the State Central Committee is hereby authorized to fill any vacancies which may occur in the electoral or State ticket.

The vote for the constitutional amendments, providing for the nomination of the higher judiciary by the Governor, was taken at the town elections, October 5th. By an act of the General Assembly the ballots for and against the amendment were marked simply with "Yes" or "No." The amendment was approved by a large majority, 20,313 votes being cast in its favor, to 8,340 for its rejection.

The State election fell on the same day with the national election. The total vote for President was 132,490, of which the Garfield electors received 66,823, the Hancock electors 64,239, the Weaver ticket 1,101, and the Dow ticket 327, giving Garfield a majority of 1,156, and a plurality of 2,584 more votes than Hancock. The gubernatorial vote was 65,732 for Bigelow, 63,901 for English, 774 for Baldwin, Greenback-Labor candidate, and 389 for Rogers, giving Bigelow a plurality of 1,831 over the Democratic nominee, and a majority over all of 668. Buck, Wait, and Miles, Republican candidates, and Phelps, Democratic candidate, were elected to Congress. The State Senate for 1881 is composed of 16 Republicans and 5 Democrats; of the 10 Senators voted for, 7 were Republicans and 3 Democrats. The composition of the new House of Representatives is 155 Republicans, 76 Democrats, and 3 Independents and Greenbackers.

The population of the State, as ascertained by the census enumeration, is 622,683, divided in point of sex into 305,886 males and 316,797 females; in point of nationality, into 492,879 of American birth, and 129,804 of foreign birth; in point of race, into 610,884 white and 11,799 colored inhabitants. The increase of the total population since 1870 has been from 537,454, or in the ratio of 15.9 per cent. The

ratio of increase in the different classes of the population is as follows: Males 15.2 per cent., females 16.4 per cent.; native-born 16.3 per cent., foreign-born 14.2 per cent.; whites 15.8 per cent., colored 19.1 per cent. The population of the principal towns published in the census reports gives New Haven 62,882 inhabitants, compared with 50,840 in 1870; Hartford, 42,553, against 37,743 in 1870; Waterbury, 23,019, against 13,106; Bridgeport, 29,148, against 19,835; Meriden, 18,340, against 10,495; Norwich, 21,145; Norwalk, 13,956, against 12,119; New Britain, 13,978; Danbury, 11,669, against 8,753; Derby, 11,649, against 8,020; Stamford, 11,298, against 9,714. Out of the 167 townships into which the State is divided, 77 show a loss since the last census which aggregates 12,749; the aggregate gain in the other 90 towns amounting to 98,128. The greatest decrease was in the town of Fairfield, which fell off from 5,645 to 3,748 inhabitants. The greatest numerical gain was Hartford, and the most rapid relative increase in Meriden, which gained 75 per cent. in population. The aggregate population of the cities has increased from 172,568 to 226,187, or 31 per cent.; that of the rural districts, 31,608, or not quite 9 per cent.

CONNOLLY, RICHARD BARRETT, died in Marseilles, France, on May 30th. He was born in 1810, in Ireland, of respectable parentage. In 1826 he emigrated to America. His political career was closely connected with Tammany Hall. He was a delegate to the nominating convention for the Eleventh Ward in 1836. In 1839 and 1840 he was secretary to the General Committee. In 1846 he became its chairman. During the Polk Administration he was appointed to a clerkship in the Custom-House. Collector Lawrence made him chief of the Statistical Bureau. Robert J. Walker, Secretary of the Treasury, intrusted to him and Collector Bogardus the revision of the tariff of 1846. In 1849 Connolly left the Custom-House. In 1852, and again in 1855, he was elected County Clerk. In 1859 he represented the Seventh District in the State Senate. He was reelected in 1861. In 1867 he was elected Comptroller of New York City, which office he filled when the Tweed charter was passed. Under its provisions he continued to hold the office of Comptroller, Tweed being Commissioner of Public Works and Sweeny, City Chamberlain. At the time of the disclosures in 1871 he resigned, and was succeeded in the comptrollership by Andrew H. Green. Connolly left the city and spent the rest of his life in Europe.

COSTA RICA (REPÚBLICA DE COSTA RICA). For situation, area, territorial division, population, etc., reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1877.)

The President of the Republic is General Tomás Guardia; the Vice-President is General Pedro Quiroz; and the Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Interior, War, and

Marine, Señor Rafael Machado; Foreign Affairs, Justice, Public Instruction, and the Poor-Commission, Dr. José María Castro; Finance and Commerce, Señor Salvador Lara; and Public Works, Licentiate M. Argüello.

The Bishop of San José is the Rt. Rev. Bernhard Thiele.

The Consul-General of Costa Rica at New York is Señor J. M. Muñoz; the United States Minister (resident in Guatemala, and accredited to the five Central American Republics—Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador) is Dr. Cornelius A. Logan; and the United States Consul at San José is Mr. A. Morrell.

The military force of the republic consists of the militia, comprising all male inhabitants between the ages of eighteen and thirty, numbering (according to recent returns) 15,225, of whom 900 constitute troops usually engaged in regular service. The reserves are made up of men between thirty and fifty-five.

The following tables show the amounts and various branches of the national revenue and expenditure for the year ending April 30, 1880:

REVENUE.

National Bank (capital and deposits in)...	\$5,189
Puntarenas custom-house.....	965,005
Limon custom-house.....	19,202
Monopolies.....	1,241,951
Government property.....	280,169
Taxes, etc.....	101,587
Sundries.....	289,176
Total.....	\$2,502,279

EXPENDITURE.

Ministry of the Interior.....	\$251,733
Ministry of Finance and Commerce.....	127,586
Foreign Affairs.....	15,736
War and Marine.....	712,594
Justice.....	71,170
Public Works.....	138,592
Public Instruction.....	132,245
Public Worship.....	18,063
Railways.....	1,255,961
Police.....	40,552
Monopolies.....	316,052
Debt to Peru.....	178,585
Aqueduct of Heredia.....	24,972
San José Hospital.....	13,575
Paper money.....	15,744
Sundries.....	152,137
Total.....	\$3,460,597

By comparing the totals of these two tables, it will be observed that there was a deficit of \$658,318 in the finances of the year referred to. In the budget for 1880-'81 the revenue and expenditure were estimated at \$3,164,051 each.

The yield of the customs department in 1879-'80 was but \$984,207, against \$1,088,890 for the year immediately previous, and \$1,010,787 for 1877-'78.

The item "monopolies" in the above table of the revenue comprises the spirit-tax, \$766,321, the tobacco-tax, \$469,140; and the powder-tax, \$2,193. Under the head of "Government property" are included the Post-Office, \$37,139; railways, \$106,328; telegraphs, \$9,302; the National Printing-Office, \$6,567; interest on Government lands, \$12,155; tolls,

(Barranca bridge), \$9,832, etc. The item "taxes" comprises stamp-duty, \$23,430; licenses for the sale of spirits, \$20,401; mortgage imposts, \$18,767; abattoirs, \$19,430, etc. In virtue of a decree issued toward the end of the year, guano and other phosphates for agricultural purposes will not only be entered free of customs duty and wharf-dues, but the importers of the same will be entitled to a premium of \$5 per ton. Mining machinery is also to be free of duty. According to the report of the Finance Department, under date of April 30, 1880, the national debt stood as follows: Liabilities, \$6,258,269, comprising—Foreign debt, \$5,463,285; bills of exchange, \$176,886; paper money, \$105,915; sundry consolidated funds, \$161,682; home debt, \$140,774; sundries, \$210,087; and assets, \$10,918,062, made up of, immovables (including railways), \$10,281,778; tobacco, spirits, etc., in warehouse, \$155,321; bank capitals, \$156,788; municipal funds, \$30,805; other funds, \$203,370.

On August 14th the Government made a second issue of Treasury bonds, to the amount of \$50,000, thus completing \$100,000. The Union Bank was commissioned to dispose of them, and did so immediately, among the leading bankers and merchants of the capital, at the rate of 25 per cent.

Of the foreign commerce of Costa Rica little can here be said, no complete statistics of that branch having been published since the date of those given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878. The imports through the port of Puntarenas (on the Pacific seaboard) in 1879-'80, appear to have been of the value of \$2,669,861; and those through Limon (on the Atlantic coast), for the first four months of 1880, of the value of \$133,500. The exports, through the same ports and for the same periods, respectively, were of the value of \$3,524,810 and \$211,142.

The quantities of Costa Rica coffee sent to San Francisco in the four years last past were as follows: 1877, 62,306 bags; 1878, 30,460 bags; 1879, 17,125 bags; 1880, 38,027.

In his annual report for 1879, the Minister of Public Works states that \$1,255,960 has been expended on the railway during that year—that is to say, on the three sections of the road which the country possesses, and which, writes a journalist, the Government assures the public it is its fixed purpose to unite into a grand interoceanic highway. At present they are isolated and detached, and the benefits accruing from them are local and unimportant. The Pacific section, from Puntarenas to Esparza, a distance of thirteen miles, has been finished, at a cost of nearly a half a million of money. The principal item of expense in its construction has been the iron bridge over the Barranca, a stream which has hitherto offered considerable difficulties to travel during the rainy season. These will now, probably, be at an end for a time. The central division is the only portion which pro-

duces a revenue at present, which is stated at something like \$100,000 per annum, while expenses, etc., are placed at \$150,000. The Minister of Public Works urges the early completion of the road on the Pacific side, and also the construction of the remaining portion between San José and Limón. He furnished figures showing that the enterprise, on its own footing, will be a success, but a slight examination of these fails to convince us of the correctness of his estimates. In his calculation of expenses, etc., he has forgotten several important particulars, among which is the probable cost of maintenance, renewals of stock, and working expenses on the Atlantic division, which, from its heavy grades and sharp curves, will always be considerable. His judgment is also decidedly at fault as to the relative cost of railway operation in the high and comparatively dry lands of the interior, and the low, damp, swampy lands of the coast, with their innumerable rivers, which, in the rainy season, are practically uncontrollable. His estimates of revenue discuss probabilities concerning the entire commerce of the country, while his considerations of expense, maintenance, renewals, and contingencies concern only the Pacific division. The Government, according to reports current in September last, had made a contract with a Mr. J. Mosca Chiarin, for the construction of an elevated railway from San José to Rio Sucio, to connect at the latter place with the surface railway now in course of preparation thence to Limón. The line was to be finished in six months from the date of the contract (August 9, 1880), and to cost \$200,000, payable in monthly installments of \$25,000, bearing interest at 12 per cent. per annum.

There are at present in operation in the republic 392 miles of telegraph, with sixteen offices.

Costa Rica has been without a Constitution for the past two years, that of 1871 having been suspended in 1878. The Constituent Assembly was convoked in 1880, Señor Valio presiding, for the purpose of framing a new Constitution, but their deliberations were brought suddenly to a termination in less than three weeks, by Dictator Guardia, on the plea that an appeal had been made to armed force to sustain the Constituent Assembly in its determination to depose him.

Though at peace with the neighboring states, the relations of the republic were by no means harmonious with all. Besides the old boundary question with Colombia, referred to at the commencement of the present article, she protested against the canal contract made by the latter without consulting her, and in violation, she claims, of the treaty of April 15, 1858, qualifying at the same time that act as an infringement of her territorial rights. The protest elicited from Nicaragua a lengthy reply, in substance briefly as follows: That, even admitting as still in force the treaty alluded to, and in pursuance of the eighth article

of which no canal was to be contracted for without first hearing the opinion of the Costa Rican Government, the circumstances attending the present contract had been of a nature so urgent as to leave no time for consulting any government without the risk of losing, perhaps for ever, a favorable opportunity for the realization of a colossal enterprise of so much promise for Central America; that, while granting the right that one nation possesses to demand that another should keep her engagements, and that the existence of a pact is sufficient to render its fulfillment a necessity, if loyalty and good faith are to form the basis of international relations, yet when the omission of a formality involving no principles of fundamental importance has been caused simply by circumstances at once exceptional and unavoidable, and the nature of which has been clearly and frankly explained, there was here no reason for condemning the conduct of a nation, if peoples in their mutual relations are to be actuated by a spirit of fraternity and reciprocal regard; and that, as to the claim that Costa Rica's territorial rights had suffered, such claim could readily be proved to lack foundation, inasmuch as the projected canal would nowhere touch upon the limits of that country.

The aggregate attendance at all the schools of the republic was reported to have been 26,000 in the past year. Copious educational statistics were given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

CREMIEUX, ISAAC ADOLPHE, French statesman, born of Jewish parents at Nîmes, April 30, 1796; died at Paris, February 10, 1880. After studying law at Aix, he was, at the age of only twenty-one years, admitted to the bar of his native city, and soon gained great reputation by his brilliant speeches, especially in the case of the murder of Marshal Brune. He moved to Paris in 1830, and defended before the Court of Paris M. de Guernon-Ranville, one of the Ministers of Charles X. In this case he was not successful, as, overcome by too great exertions, he fainted, and was unable to complete his defense. Soon, however, the prestige which he had previously acquired was restored. After purchasing from M. Odilon Barrot his office and functions as advocate, he defended a number of Liberal journals and several distinguished republicans who were prosecuted by the Government of Louis Philippe. In 1837 he paid the debts of his father, who had died a bankrupt, and secured his rehabilitation. In 1842 he became a member of the Chamber of Deputies for the arrondissement of Chinon, and took his seat on the extreme left. Having been reelected in 1846, he took a prominent part in the reform agitation of that time, and was among those who signed the demand for the impeachment of M. Guizot. When the Revolution of 1848 broke out, he urged Louis Philippe and the Queen to leave France immediately. He was reported to favor the regency of the Duchess

of Orleans, but when subsequently interpellated on the subject he declared that his intention had only been to induce the Duchess to read a declaration stating that she left to the people the right of proclaiming its government. On February 24th he declared himself in the Chamber of Deputies against the project of a regency, and proposed a provisional government. This proposition having been adopted, he was appointed a member of the Provisional Government and Minister of Justice. He was confirmed in these functions by the Constituent Assembly, but resigned on June 7th, when the Constituent Assembly ordered the prosecution of Louis Blanc. He was a member of the Constituent Assembly for the department of Indre-et-Loire, which also reelected him to the Legislative Assembly. In this Assembly he voted on all important questions with the Left, and made himself particularly conspicuous by his energetic opposition to the bill forbidding the clubs. He separated, however, from his political friends on the question of the Presidency, supporting the candidature of Prince Louis Napoleon. Soon, however, he regretted this step, and he became in the Legislative Assembly one of the foremost opponents of the policy of the Prince-President. He voted against the *coup d'état*, and was one of those who were arrested on December 2d and taken to Mazas; he was, however, liberated after a few days. Returning to the bar, he occupied again the distinguished position which he had held before 1848. At the general election of 1869 he was defeated in the department of Drôme by the official candidate, but in November of the same year one of the Paris districts returned him at the supplementary elections. He took his seat on the extreme left, voted against the *plébiscite* of April, 1870, and was one of the seventeen members who signed the "anti-plébiscitary address." When the surrender of Sedan led to the overthrow of the Napoleonic dynasty, he was, on September 4th, appointed a member of the Government of the National Defense and Minister of Justice. With Glais-Bizoin he left for Tours to constitute the provisional delegation, to which soon Gambetta was added. Crémieux as well as Glais-Bizoin readily conceded to their younger colleague the leadership. Crémieux took, however, an active part in the organization of the Army of the Loire, and especially in the deposition of the magistrates who had formed part of the notorious "Commissions mixtes" since December 2, 1851. At the general elections of 1871 he again failed to be elected, and after the meeting of the National Assembly, he resigned as member of the Government and as Minister of Justice. He then proposed to the nation to pay to Prussia the five milliards im-

mediately by a national subscription, to which he offered to contribute 100,000 francs. In 1872 the city of Algiers elected him a member of the National Assembly over his radical competitor, Bertholon. In his address to the electors he had declared himself in favor of a permanent republic; of separation between Church and state; of secular, compulsory, and gratuitous instruction; of the dissolution of the Assembly of Versailles; and of a general amnesty. As his voice was enfeebled by age, he but rarely took part in the discussions of the Assembly, except in questions relating to Algeria, which found in him an eloquent champion. In December, 1875, he was elected by the National Assembly Life-Senator. During his entire life he showed an indefatigable zeal in behalf of his co-religionists, not only in France, but all over the world. In 1840 he undertook a journey to Egypt and Turkey, to look personally after the condition of the Jews, and he succeeded in clearing the Jews of Damascus from the charge of having murdered a Catholic priest. He founded the Universal Israelitic Alliance, which under his able and devoted guidance has become the most cosmopolitan and most influential Jewish organization of the world. He was also regarded as one of the foremost representatives of French freemasonry. Few men were more generally and more highly esteemed than Crémieux. His wife had died only a few days before him, on the eve of the celebration of their golden wedding.

CURTIS, WILLIAM EDMUND, Chief Justice of the Superior Court of New York, was the son of Judge Holbrook Curtis, of Litchfield, Connecticut, where he was born in 1826. He graduated with honor from Trinity College, Hartford, and in 1847 was admitted to the bar. He settled in New York, and rose rapidly in his profession. He was Commissioner of the Board of Education, and was for four years its President. He received the degree of LL. D. from Trinity College. He was Vice-President of the Geographical Society. In 1871 he was elected Judge of the Supreme Court of New York. His decisions increased his reputation as a jurist. One of the most notable was adverse to the extradition, under existing treaties, of Vogt, the Belgian, who murdered the Chevalier de Blanco. The treaty of commerce between Belgium and the United States was suspended for a time, but finally Vogt was extradited and hung. He also dissolved the injunctions which prevented the establishment of rapid transit. His ability and integrity resulted in his elevation to the position of Chief Justice of the Superior Court of New York, which he filled at the time of his sudden death on July 6th, at Watertown, Connecticut.

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DELAWARE. As set forth in the biennial report of the State Treasurer, Robert J. Reynolds, the amount of State bonds outstanding at the end of 1880 is \$869,000, \$106,000 of bonds having been canceled within the two years. The interest-bearing investments held by the State, on account of the general fund, amount to \$673,050, consisting of a loan of \$400,000 to the Junction and Breakwater Railroad, and one of \$200,000 to the Breakwater and Frankford Railroad, both secured by mortgages, and the balance in bank-stock. The State has also investments amounting to \$448,999 for the benefit of free schools, consisting for the main part of bank-stock. The State thus has a balance of assets over and above its indebtedness amounting to \$253,049, to which is to be added interest on investments payable January 1, 1881, to the amount of \$77,702. The estimated receipts of the Treasury for the year 1880 were \$168,655, and the estimated expenditures \$97,530. Of the receipts for the year up to the date of the report, amounting to \$122,019, \$50,549 were derived from licenses, \$20,250 from the tax on the earnings of railroads, and \$13,647 from the passenger-tax on railroads. Of the disbursements, amounting to \$82,769, the principal items were: redeemed bonds, \$30,000; interest on the State debt, \$27,540; judiciary, \$10,275; salaries, \$5,687. The receipts for the maintenance of free schools amounted to \$31,736.

The receipts for the year, reported at the opening of the Legislature, amounted to \$187,747, including interest due on investments still to be paid in, and the whole of the interest due of the mortgage of the Breakwater and Frankford Railroad, of which \$35,886 was in arrears and not collectable, the Legislature having passed a joint resolution excusing the railroad from the payment at present of the moiety of the interest on the loan. The actual expenditures for the year were reported as \$150,409. The Governor recommends the conversion of the State bonds, which mature in 1885, \$441,000 in amount, into four per cent. interest-bearing bonds running twenty years, but redeemable at the option of the State after ten years, and a similar conversion of the remaining bonds, due in 1890 and in 1898.

On January 19th and succeeding days, Judge Bradford, of the United States Circuit Court, listened to an argument for the appointment of United States supervisors of elections to attend in the Levy Court and control the listing of voters, which, under the State laws, is a function of this body. Anthony Higgins, representing the Republicans, made the argument in favor of the application, and Attorney-General George Gray and George H. Bates

spoke against their appointment. Judge Bradford decided that supervisors of election could be appointed, upon due application, under the act of Congress to guard and scrutinize the assessment-lists and the lists of electors made out from these and furnished to the inspectors of elections. The United States statute makes it the duty of the Judge of the Circuit Court to appoint two supervisors in each voting precinct, who shall be of different political parties, at the request of two citizens in any town, or of ten citizens in any county, the office of these supervisors being to guard and scrutinize the registration, "if one there be," of voters for members of Congress; or, in case there is no system of registration, shall open the court ten days at least prior to the election and hear any case brought before it relative to the election. The Constitution gives the right of suffrage to every free white citizen twenty-two years of age, or older, who has resided one year within the State and one month in the county, and has paid within two years a county tax assessed six months at least before the election, citizens between twenty-one and twenty-two years of age being entitled to vote without having paid a tax. The enrollment of the name of a citizen on the assessment-lists of the assessors of the different hundreds and those of the Levy Court in each county is a legal condition of the exercise of the right of voting; and, unless so enrolled, no citizen, however well entitled on other grounds, can cast a ballot under the Constitution. Although in a literal and technical sense the making out of these lists by the assessors and the Levy Court is not a registration of voters, according to the sense and intent of the act of Congress, it is an act of registration more absolutely determining the rights of citizens with respect to the franchise than registration is in States which have specific registry laws. An enabling act, like that authorizing the appointment of supervisors, should not be subjected to a narrow and literal construction. The registration of voters must vary widely in the different States. Any method of making up the list of voters which allows of the occurrence of the evils and abuses which the Congressional act was intended to guard against, affords fit and sufficient subject-matter for the act to work upon, and constitutes a registration of voters within the meaning of the law. From the assessment-list of tax-payers made out by the assessors the Levy Court compiles the assessment-roll of the county; and from the latter the Clerk of the Peace makes out the lists of voters for each hundred or election district, upon which he writes the word "naturalized" opposite the name of each naturalized citizen, and the word "voted" opposite the name of every citizen who has already

voted, and also gives the residence of each voter. The laws of Delaware give to every citizen the right to challenge any name inscribed by the assessors on their list, and to demand the insertion in either list of the name of any citizen who has been improperly omitted. The Clerk of the Peace, in making out the alphabetical lists of voters for the use of the inspectors of elections, exercises *quasi-judicial* powers when he determines the fact of naturalization and determines and certifies to the residence of electors; but the prerequisite of assessment demanded by the Constitution is determined by the assessors and the Levy Court. The Judge decided, consequently, that their lists are subject to the scrutiny of the Federal officers which the act of Congress empowers the Circuit Judges to appoint for the supervision of national elections. The Democrats had submitted the names of candidates for supervisors, protesting at the same time against the appointment of such officers; and Judge Bradford appointed supervisors of elections from each party, subject to a revision of his action by the Court in banc.

The supervisors, after having as many names added to the lists as the assessors could attend to during the time of their sessions, still had a long list to present to the Levy Courts. A great number of citizens, mostly colored, who had not paid taxes nor voted for several years, or had been previously assessed, were added to the lists. It had been the practice of the managers of both parties to see that the names of poor voters were inscribed in the assessment-lists, and to take care that their taxes were paid. Owing to divisions among the Republicans, and to repeated defeats at the polls, this party had for some years remitted its activity, and allowed the names of its poor voters to be dropped from the lists by the assessors, who usually belonged to the opposite party. Formerly it was the custom to apply to the assessors for the addition of omitted names, the Levy Courts confining their attention to the rectification of mistakes in the lists. Having a large number of supplemental names to present to the Levy Courts, delegations of citizens soon after the opening of these courts requested that certain days should be set apart for the sole business of correcting the assessment-lists; and considerable dissatisfaction was created among the Republicans by the refusal of this request, and also by the delays in adding the names presented, occasioned by the necessity of examining the lists of the two preceding years, to ascertain whether the proposed were any of them delinquents, and therefore incapacitated under a statute passed a few years previously.

Several United States deputy-marshals were arrested on election-day, or were subsequently indicted for offenses against the State laws, which they were accused of having committed on that day. Those cases in which an indictable offense was charged were promptly trans-

ferred to the United States Court on writs of *habeas corpus*, it being held that these officers were not indictable before the State courts for any acts committed by them while in discharge of their duties; but the Wingate case was remanded by Judge Bradford to the Mayor's Court, the State tribunals having the power to require bonds for keeping the peace or otherwise act in cases where no indictable offense is charged.

The case of the negro, William Neal, who was tried and convicted of murder, and sentenced to death, was taken up by the United States Supreme Court in a way which, like the treatment of the deputy-marshal cases, was deeply resented by the State authorities and jurists of the dominant party. After a regular trial and conviction the counsel of the prisoner applied to the United States Courts to stay the execution of the sentence pending an investigation of the Supreme Court into the constitutionality of the mode of trial, and obtained an order to that effect from the Federal Judge. This lawyer, Anthony Higgins, had previously applied to the State bench to transfer the case to the Federal Courts, a demand which the Judges, Comegys, Houston, and Wales, all concurred in denying. The plea upon which he invoked the interference of the Federal judiciary was that there was no negro on the jury which tried Neal, and that the trial was vitiated by the studied omission of colored men from the jury-lists, which amounted to a breach of the Fifteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution.

Touching the mooted question of the limits of Federal and State authority and jurisdiction respectively which had repeatedly cropped up in the course of the year, and the unwelcome assertions of the power of the central Government conveyed in the several rulings of the Federal Court noted above, Governor John W. Hall used the following expressions in his message to the Legislature:

The repeated exercise of jurisdiction by Federal authorities over affairs purely of a domestic or local nature, such as the appointment of officers to supervise the assessment of persons in this State, and the interference with the administration of criminal justice, by challenging the State methods of constituting and organizing juries, have forcibly suggested allusion to this subject. It was hoped that these, and kindred other arbitrary expedients, which were ostensibly devised for the attainment of temporary ends, would disappear with the excitement out of which they were born. But in this we have been disappointed. The reaction of public sentiment which followed the partial subsidence of the unreasoning passions of men, did not reënthrone in the popular heart that sentiment of patriotism which alone is capable of subordinating the lusts of ambition to the sober dictates of reason, and of inspiring and shaping a governmental policy in accordance with the genius and spirit of our free institutions—a policy which raised this country from the condition of a few feeble States to the greatest power among the nations of the earth.

This unwarranted assumption of power clearly belonging to the States, which was first demanded as a temporary concession to the exigencies growing out of physical strife, is now claimed as a permanent

right, based as it appears on no higher ground than the absurd notion that the States are mere *quasi* corporations, subject to the control of a central, visitatorial power, lodged in the Federal Government. If this theory, which is at variance with all our ideas of republican government, is followed out to its logical conclusion, then those local institutions with which our dearest and fondest traditions are associated will be gradually drawn into the unyielding grasp of the Federal Government, and the State governments will be nothing more than mere shells or empty forms in which despotism will mask its hideous plots and conspiracies against the rights and privileges of humanity.

The national banks have refused to pay the State tax on bank-shares imposed by an act of the Legislature passed April 8, 1869. They communicated their refusal to the State Treasurer in July, basing it upon an act of Congress limiting the taxing powers of the States. The Treasurer did not proceed against the banks, but deferred the matter until the Legislature should take action upon it. The Governor in his message calls upon the Legislature to instruct him to collect the taxes, the Attorney-General having expressed the opinion that the position of the banks is untenable.

A serious election riot occurred at Wilmington on Saturday, the 16th of October, during a Democratic parade. While the procession was opposite a hall which served as a political rendezvous for colored Republicans, a fight commenced which soon developed into a bloody encounter in which pistols were freely used by the paraders and shot-guns by the negroes. The latter sought shelter in the houses and behind fences, from which points of vantage they were speedily dislodged by their assailants, who were much the more numerous party. Accounts differ as to which side commenced the attack. Both parties were suspiciously well armed, particularly the blacks, who had evidently equipped themselves either in anticipation of being attacked or with the intention of assaulting the procession. After the negroes were routed, the mob committed many excesses, breaking into houses, and making a start to burn the hall; but they became less dangerous and violent shortly, although the angry feelings aroused on both sides did not subside until after Sunday. A large number of men received wounds, but no lives were lost.

The peach-crop of Delaware in 1880 amounted to about 4,109,000 baskets, or about 3,000,000 baskets less than the great crop of 1875, and about the same as the crop of 1879, which aggregated 3,981,000 baskets. The bulk of the crop of 1879 was harvested in the southern part of the peninsula. In 1880 the most prolific section was the belt of country stretching from one bay to the other, north of North Murderkill, and south of Pencader and Red Lion hundreds. The largest shipments were from Middletown and Smyrna. The Delaware railroad shipments aggregated about 1,700,000 baskets; 1,287,000 went to Baltimore, 565,000 to Philadelphia, and 120,000 to New York, by

water; and 437,000 were canned and dried in the State.

A company was started at Riverside, near Wilmington, for the manufacture of sugar from beet-roots, and began work in 1879. Only about 300 tons of beets of indifferent quality were brought to the factory the first year. But in 1880, by widely advertised instructions and estimates, the farmers were induced to give their attention to the culture, and 3,000 to 4,000 tons of better quality were worked up in the mill. The roots yielded from 8 to 14 per cent. of saccharine matter, and the company paid for them from \$3.50 to \$7 a ton. A new and improved process of manufacture was used. The product was expected to be about 550,000 lbs. of raw sugar, 200,000 lbs. of molasses, and 1,700 tons of pulp, which latter the farmers buy for manure.

The Republican State Convention to select delegates to attend the National Convention at Chicago, met at Dover, May 6th. The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, 1. That being in entire accord with the Republican party of the United States, we are content to refer to the authoritative enunciation of its conventions for an exposition of our principles, and to point to the history of its acts as a most conclusive evidence of its usefulness.

2. That while the selection of its candidates should be considered simply as a choice of agents to administer the functions of government in accordance with those principles, the necessary condition of popular approval forbids the nomination of any person so liable to public censure as to render his election probably impossible, and under this absolute limitation regulating the action of political parties in a free government, any Republican who shall receive the endorsement of the National Convention will be entitled to the undivided support of the Republicans of the State of Delaware.

3. That the delegates chosen by this Convention from the State of Delaware to act in the National Convention, to be held in Chicago, on the 2d day of June next, are invested with power to vote on all questions according to their individual sense of right; that we send them for consultation and trust them without qualification, only reminding them that as nomination without election would be in vain, in their endeavor to discover the candidates who should be selected they should regard the preferences expressed by those States upon which we must rely for success, rather than the indications of those from which electoral votes can scarcely be hoped, much less expected.

The Greenback party held a convention at Dover, May 6th. The platform adopted contained the following declaration of principles:

We, therefore, pledge ourselves to work unitedly and heartily for the accomplishment of the following results.

The General Government alone to issue money for the benefit of all.

That all rights and privileges given to national banks to issue currency as money, or in lieu of money, or as a circulating medium, be at once withdrawn, that the people may have a currency of their own, free from the control of cliques and rings, and which can be supplied them, backed by the security of the entire nation, and free from extortion of interest.

The United States bonded debt was conceived in injustice, and has been perpetuated through the ignorance of the people, fostered by politicians for personal

ends, and the benefit of financial rings and corporations. We, therefore, demand, in the name of the people, the immediate calling in of all United States bonds and payment of them, principal and interest, either in gold or silver coin, or in legal tender green-back paper money of the United States—every dollar of such issue to be protected and receivable at par with other lawful money, never to be converted into bonds of any rate or class, and no more bonds of any rate or class to be issued. We fully approve the resolutions recently before Congress, that all currency, whether metallic or paper, necessary for the use of the people, should be issued and its value controlled by the Government, and when so issued be full legal tender for all debts, public or private. The public lands shall be reserved for actual settlers.

Military rule means despotism. We therefore protest against drilling and equipping more men for such service than are necessary for the navy-yards, and the protection of the frontier.

The ballot should be the expression of a free will. We oppose all attempts to deny its exercise on account of poverty, making a property qualification the test of one's right to vote, or limiting its action by the present system of tax-receipt requirement, which may be, and often is, used unjustly to favor party power.

We advocate such modification of the laws of this State that power will no longer be given whereby an unfortunate debtor can be stripped of every means of self-support, and in no case shall the homestead of a family, to the extent of \$700, be liable to sale for debt.

The Democratic Convention for the selection of delegates to the Cincinnati National Convention assembled at Dover, on the 25th of May.

A Democratic State Convention which assembled at Dover, August 24th, renominated E. L. Martin for Congress, and adopted a platform ratifying the nominations made at Cincinnati, and containing clauses on State affairs, declaring as follows:

That the rapid reduction of the public debt in this State, and the maintenance of her credit with a low rate of taxation, are attributable to wise and economical administration of the State government, which entitles the Democratic party to the continued confidence and support of the people.

That experience demonstrates that the continuance of the government of the State of Delaware in the hands of the Democratic party is absolutely necessary to the proper administration of her own internal affairs, State and county, and the protection of the rights and liberties of the people against the efforts of the leaders of the Republican party to encroach upon the same.

That they denounce the appointment of Federal supervisors of elections in this State as an unauthorized assumption of power, and the result of a deliberate conspiracy on the part of the leaders of the Republican party to intimidate the sworn officers of the law in the performance of their official duty, and to destroy the freedom of the ballot. That they utterly denounce the efforts made by the Republican party to awaken sectional animosity and strife, by their speakers and press, for the purpose of retaining power at the expense of national peace and prosperity, thus showing that they prefer a sectional victory to the harmony of the whole nation.

The Republican Convention, which met at Dover, September 2d, nominated John W. Houston as candidate for Representative in Congress, and adopted a platform containing the following clauses:

Touching matters pertaining to our State government, we declare—

1. That representation on the basis of population is in consonance with true republican principles, and should be given.

2. That the State should be divided into senatorial and representative districts, and the Senators and Representatives should be elected in such districts by the people thereof, and that the counties should be divided into districts, and the Levy Courtmen elected therefrom by the people thereof.

3. We favor the election of all county officers directly by the people thereof, and the reduction of the pay of such officers to a reasonable compensation for the services rendered.

4. Believing that neither public virtue nor intelligence has any connection with the soil, we are heartily opposed to freehold qualification for public office.

5. That a more liberal exemption law should be enacted, applicable to all debts hereafter contracted, and that in any such system all debts due for wages, for the current year, shall be wholly exempt from attachment or execution process.

6. The present assessment laws were conceived more in the interests of the Democratic party than of the people, and largely at the expense of the tax-payers. Their administration by the Levy Courts of the several counties is in derogation of the rights of freemen, is unjust, partisan, and dishonest.

7. That we may urge upon the Republican party of this State, and all persons having at heart its success, to give to the State Central Committee their full and hearty support in its efforts to place Delaware in the line of Republican States.

The returns of the November election gave a majority for the Hancock and English electors of 1,039, out of a total vote of 29,444; the Weaver electors receiving 129 ballots; and a majority for the Democratic candidate for Congressman over the Republican of 692 out of a total vote of 29,356, of which the Green-back candidate received 51. The Republican candidates for State Senator, Representatives, and local officers were elected in New Castle County, and the Democratic candidates in the other two counties. Judge Houston gave notice that he would dispute the seat of Mr. Martin, in the national House of Representatives, on the ground that some nine thousand votes which had been thrown and counted for the Democratic nominee were illegal, and that about the same number of citizens who possessed a constitutional right to the franchise, and who would have given him their suffrages, were prevented, through the irregularities of the registration, from voting. The object was to invite a Congressional inquiry into the supposed disfranchisement of the negro, worked by the assessment laws of the State. He subsequently withdrew his objections to the seating of Martin.

The census returns show the population of the State to be 146,654, an increase of 21,639 since 1870; the male population numbers 74,153, the female 72,501; of the total, 137,182 are of native birth, and only 8,723 of foreign; the whole population is divided into 120,198 whites and 26,456 of negro extraction. The city of Wilmington contains 42,499 inhabitants, against 30,841 in 1870; the whole county of New Castle 77,746, against 63,515; Kent County, 32,877, against 29,804; and Sussex County 36,031, against 31,696.

DENMARK, a kingdom of Northern Europe. The reigning sovereign is Christian IX, fourth son of the late Duke William of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, appointed to the succession of the Danish crown by the Treaty of London of May 8, 1852, and by the Danish law of succession of July 31, 1853. He succeeded to the throne on the death of King Frederick VII., November 5, 1863. He was married May 26, 1842, to Louise, Princess of Hesse-Cassel. The heir-apparent is Prince Frederick, born June 3, 1843, and married July 28, 1869, to Louisa, only daughter of King Charles XV of Sweden. Their children are three sons, born in 1870, 1872, and 1876, and three daughters, born in 1875, 1878, and 1880. The second son of the King is King of Greece. The oldest daughter, Alexandra, is wife of the Prince of Wales; the second, Dagmar, wife of the Czarevitch; the third, Thyra, wife of the Duke of Cumberland, who is the claimant to the throne of Hanover.

The King has a civil list of 500,000 rigsdalers, and the heir-apparent of 60,000 rigsdalers.

The Ministry of 1879 continued in office throughout the year, with the exception of the Minister of Worship and Public Instruction, in whose place J. F. Scavenius was appointed on August 24, 1880.

The area of Denmark proper, inclusive of the lakes, is according to a new measurement * 38,302 square kilometres (1 square kilometre = 0.386 square mile); population, according to the census of 1880, 1,969,454. The area and population of the dependencies were reported in 1880 as follows:

TERRITORIES.	Area in square kilometres.	Population.
Faroes.....	1,383	11,221
Iceland (habitable only 42,068 square kilometres).....	102,471	72,000
Greenland (Danish part).....	88,100	9,531
West India Islands.....	358.9	87,600
Total.....	132,262.9	130,352

Area of the entire kingdom, 230,565 square kilometres, with a population of 2,099,800.

The annual financial accounts, called *statsregnskab*, for the years 1877-'78 and 1878-'79 (the financial year closes on March 31st), were as follows (in crowns—1 crown = 27 cents):

YEAR.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1877-'78.....	46,956,231	43,880,407
1878-'79.....	46,065,263	42,113,656

In the budget estimates for the financial year ending March 31, 1881, the revenue was estimated at 47,246,558 crowns, the expenditure at 41,672,448 crowns, and the probable surplus at 5,574,110 crowns. The chief sources of revenue and expenditure were as follows:

* See Behm und Wagner, "Bevölkerung der Erde," vi (Gotha, 1880), p. 12.

REVENUE.

	Crowns.
1. Domain, net.....	881,385
2. Forests, net.....	451,656
3. State property.....	2,868,135
4. Direct taxes.....	9,064,100
5. Indirect taxes.....	29,357,000
6. Postal and telegraph department.....	158,579
7. Surplus of lottery.....	800,000
8. Revenue from the Faroës.....	50,841
9. Revenue from the Danish West Indies.....	12,500
10. Miscellaneous receipts.....	1,149,727
11. Reimbursements.....	1,587,590
Total.....	47,331,463
Excess of cost of the posts and telegraphs over receipts.....	84,905
Net receipts.....	47,246,558

EXPENDITURES.

	Crowns.
Civil list.....	1,000,000
Appanages.....	422,384
Rigsdag.....	200,000
Council of State.....	106,616
Public debt.....	7,851,000
Pensions, civil.....	2,613,280
" military.....	688,433
Ministry of Foreign Affairs.....	877,979
" of Worship and Public Instruction.....	978,372
" of Justice.....	2,465,368
" of the Interior.....	1,050,212
" of War.....	8,737,139
" of the Navy.....	6,125,704
" of Finance.....	2,920,174
Administration of Iceland.....	109,600
Extraordinary expenditure.....	8,190,729
Public works.....	3,221,738
Advances.....	518,720
Total.....	41,672,448
Surplus.....	5,574,110

The national debt of Denmark has been in the course of reduction since 1866, and from 1876 to 1879 was as follows:

DEBT.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.
Internal debt.....	159,655,045	153,950,192	158,974,096	159,382,773
Foreign debt.....	22,118,200	17,289,250	15,449,650	15,376,650
Total.....	181,773,245	176,248,442	174,423,746	174,759,423
State property.....	58,372,655	56,218,569	59,949,359	96,056,278
Debt proper.....	98,400,560	90,029,873	84,474,387	78,703,145

The total strength of the Danish army in 1880 was as follows:

ARMY.	REGULAR ARMY.		ARMY OF RESERVE.	
	Officers.	Rank and file.	Officers.	Rank and file.
Infantry.....	801	26,992	245	10,925
Cavalry.....	189	2,180
Artillery.....	175	4,755	48	2,068
Engineers.....	61	624
Total.....	1,176	84,551	293	12,993

The staff of the army was composed of 25 commissioned and 16 non-commissioned officers.

The navy in 1880 consisted of 33 steamers, of which 8 were armor-clad ships, and the rest unarmored vessels, mostly of small size. The navy is recruited by conscription from the coast population.

The movement of shipping during the year 1878 was as follows:

VESSELS.	SAILING-VESSELS.		STEAMERS.		TOTAL.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
Entered. { Coasting-vessels.....	14,174	162,051	7,164	148,695	21,338	810,746
{ Ocean-vessels.....	12,773	635,661	6,541	410,536	19,314	1,046,197
Cleared. { Coasting-vessels.....	15,029	140,637	7,264	140,308	22,293	280,995
{ Ocean-vessels.....	12,139	135,651	6,256	200,859	18,425	886,540

The following table exhibits the value (in crowns) of Danish commerce in 1878:

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain.....	41,316,000	63,131,000
Germany.....	75,661,000	46,394,000
Sweden.....	20,232,000	22,777,000
Norway.....	5,202,000	10,554,000
Russia.....	7,223,000	753,000
Holland.....	6,178,000	1,200,000
Belgium.....	3,369,000	839,000
France.....	3,172,000	1,317,000
Iceland.....	3,465,000	2,865,000
Greenland.....	740,000	583,000
United States.....	8,143,000	17,000
Danish West Indies.....	1,898,000	83,000
Brazil.....	10,000	1,000
Faeroe Islands.....	233,000	356,000
Other countries.....	13,477,000	1,517,000
Total.....	190,419,000	153,222,000

The commercial navy was as follows in 1878:

VESSELS.	Number.	Tons.
Sailing-vessels.....	3,096	210,763
Steamers.....	190	46,651
Total.....	3,286	257,419

The aggregate length of railroads in operation was 1,366 kilometres (1 kilometre=0.62 mile); of these, 811 kilometres belonged to the state and 555 to private companies. The number of post-offices was, in 1878, 159; the number of letters and postal-cards mailed, 25,463,599. The aggregate length of state telegraph lines was 3,376 kilometres; of wires, 9,016.

According to the census of 1870, there were only 14,614 persons, or less than one per cent. of the population, not belonging to the Lutheran Church. Of this number 4,400, or nearly one third, were Jews; the remainder comprised 1,857 Roman Catholics, 1,430 members of the Reformed Church, or Calvinists, 2,069 Mormons, 3,157 Baptists, 57 members of the Anglican Church, and 1,181 members of a sect called "Frimenighed," or the Free Community. In 1880 the Baptists had in Denmark 17 churches, 116 preaching-stations, 2,114 (adult) members, 697 Sunday-scholars. The Methodist Episcopal Church, in the same year, had 618 (adult) members and 121 probationers, the Seventh-Day Adventists 80 members, the Disciples of Christ 70 members, the Brethren or Tunkers 8 members.

Soon after the publication of the census of 1880, an agitation was begun in the Government papers in favor of an increase in the number of representatives to be sent by the city of Copenhagen to the Folkething. The capital was at present represented by nine members, that being the number to which it

was entitled under the census of 1850, according to the law of apportionment, allotting one representative for every 16,000 inhabitants. The population of Copenhagen had increased since 1850 from 130,000 to 235,000 inhabitants, and six additional representatives were claimed for it on the basis of the increase. The demand was supported by the Government and the Conservative party, because, it was said, the constituency of Copenhagen is a conservative one, and the proposed increase of representatives would add to the strength of that party in the Folkething.

The Finance Committee of the Folkething reported at the end of 1879 that, in the estimates for 1880 presented by the Government, the amount to be expended on military and naval account was estimated at 3,047,000 crowns as against 1,974,900 crowns which were voted under those heads for the previous year. Both branches of the Left proposed to make a great reduction in this amount, the moderate Left favoring a limitation of the appropriations to 1,570,600 crowns, and the radical Left desiring to fix them at 1,846,000 crowns. A deputation, including the Speakers of both of the Legislative Chambers, waited upon the Premier during January to present an address urging the Government to complete the defenses of the country at whatever cost. The Minister of Marine stated in the Landsting, at the beginning of June, that the plans of the Government contemplated a fleet composed of eight armored batteries, four large unarmored vessels, ten corvettes and schooners, twelve gunboats with heavy cannon, and thirty torpedo-boats, all of which were to be completed within ten years.

In connection with the subject of the defenses of the kingdom, a military writer in the "Cologne Gazette" remarked in February that the strategical position of Denmark might be of great importance in the event of a European war. The harbor of Copenhagen and several good anchorages on the coast of Zealand would afford to a fleet operating in the Baltic a secure basis which would be very useful in a war against Russia; while, in a war against Germany, Jutland would afford a place of disembarkation for a large army, which, marching southward, could cause a diversion that might be very awkward for the German commanders. It was, therefore, not improbable that some great power might attempt to imitate the achievements of the British fleet against Denmark in 1801 and 1807. During the Crimean War there was no suspicion as to the neutrality of Denmark, and it was consequently not attacked by any of the belligerents; but its neu-

trality might be doubtful in the event of a war between Germany, France, and perhaps Russia, in which case it would probably be deemed necessary "to set all doubts at rest by decisive action." The approaches to Copenhagen are very difficult for ships of war. The town could be most readily bombarded from the southeast, but on that side also great natural obstacles would have to be encountered. The channel between the island of Saltholm, in the middle of the sound, and that of Amager (on which a part of Copenhagen stands), is divided by the great Middelbank into two passages, the eastern one of which is called the Great Passage, and the western one the King's Passage. It was through the latter that Nelson penetrated on April 2, 1801, in order to attack the Danish fleet. No such dangerous achievement would now be necessary for bombarding Copenhagen, as rifled guns could reach the center of the town with their shot if fired from ships of war stationed in the Great Passage.

The relations between Denmark and Germany have become more pleasant. The King having paid a visit to Berlin in January, shortly afterward, the deputies from Schleswig, who had persistently refused, since that province was annexed to Prussia, to take the oath of allegiance to the Prussian Government, signified their willingness to comply with the prescribed formality. It was believed that the dispute about North Schleswig had been brought to a close, and that the visit of the King to the Prussian court might be regarded as an outward proof that he had accepted the new order of things. The deputy Larsen, who was elected as a deputy from North Schleswig to the German Parliament, published a statement declaring that, while he still adhered to his political opinions, he would, in consequence of the changes brought about by the abrogation of the fifth article of the Treaty of Prague, take the oath of allegiance to the German Constitution.

A trifling incident, which happened at Copenhagen in August, became the occasion of some embarrassment in the social relations between the representatives of Denmark and Germany. At a public dinner given in honor of a French actress, Baron Magnus, the German ambassador, proposed a toast to France in terms complimentary to the actress. The actress replied in a speech, at the close of which she expressed a hope that the toast of the German Minister had been to the whole of France—including Alsace-Lorraine. The Danish members of the party cheered this remark, and the actress responded to the cheers by intoning the "Tapfere Landsoldat," the well-known war-song of 1863. A member of the French legation then spoke of the intimate relations which formerly existed between Denmark and France, and was also greeted with cheers. At this moment the Danish gentleman who presided at the banquet thought it was time to rise from

the table. Prince Bismarck was said to be much vexed at the affair, and Baron Magnus was given a leave of absence on account of it.

The credentials of Nagaska Meringoshi, as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Japanese Government to the Danish court, were received in November.

The project of law relative to the purchase of the railways of Zealand by the state was adopted by the Chambers in July.

A meeting of merchants was held at the exchange at Copenhagen in the first week of July to consider what steps could be taken for the protection of Danish commerce against the consequences of the changes that were being made in the German customs duties, and of the proposed withdrawal from Hamburg of the privileges of a free port. Among the measures discussed were, the reduction of certain duties, the abolition of harbor dues, and the formation of a treaty with France. A commission was appointed to make definite proposals.

A formal meeting of the Rigsdag was called and opened October 4th, but was immediately prorogued till November 9th, the time for the opening of the regular session. At the opening of the Folkething on the latter day, it was announced that the estimates of the budget, which were balanced at 50,000,000 crowns, showed an estimated increase in the revenues of 2,750,000 crowns, and in the expenditure of 5,500,000 crowns as compared with the previous year, the additional outlay being due to the purchase of the railways of Zealand by the state, and the carrying into effect of the new military law.

DEPHOSPHORIZATION OF IRON. A process for eliminating the phosphorus of iron while being converted into steel in the Bessemer retort or the Siemens furnace, thus admitting a large class of ores in the manufacture of soft steel, notably many Cleveland and German ores, which were before unworkable, is the joint invention of two young Englishmen, Sidney Thomas and Sidney Gilchrist, the one a practical chemist, the other an amateur student of metallurgy, who were efficiently aided in the development of their idea by Windsor Richards, a well-known English metallurgist, the superintendent of works belonging to Bolekew, Vaughan & Co. The inventors were first permitted to experiment in the smaller establishment of that house at Blaenavon; then Mr. Richards tested it at Eston, and devoted much time and study to perfecting it, finally putting it in practice with a full plant at the same firm's Cleveland Steel Works. The process has been brought to a point where it can be commercially applied, although by the removal of some remaining difficulties it will prove much more profitable. The metallurgists of Germany, where there are large quantities of phosphoric ore, have done much to improve the process, and are now employing it on a large scale. It is called the basic process, and is characterized by replacing

the ordinary refractory lining of the converter of silicious materials with a basic lining. The first successful blow, after considerable trouble had been found in obtaining a good lining by burning magnesian limestone in a kiln, was made April 4, 1879, the news of which awakened the intensest interest of metallurgists all over the world. Thomas and Gilchrist explained their invention in a paper read at the next convention of the Iron and Steel Institute. Massenez and Pink, of the Hoerde Company, in Westphalia, and Brown, Bayley, and Dixon, of Sheffield, were the next to adopt the process. At first, charges of lime and oxide of iron, varying from 15 to 25 per cent. of the pig, were placed in the converter before the molten metal was poured in. Afterward the oxide of iron was discovered to be superfluous.

The material used in the lining of the old converter, called *ganister*, is nearly pure silica, which is an acid (Si_2O_4), being the oxide of the metalloid silicon. When lime is roasted with iron in the converter, the phosphorus is removed; but it is necessary, apparently, not only that the lime should be properly mingled and blown together with the metal, but that the converter should be entirely lined with lime or some alkali. The use of the acid lining would be fatal to the process, because the silica and lime would eagerly combine and form a kind of glass, which would go into the slag, leaving the phosphorus as it was. The silicic acid is the great enemy of the basic lining, causing the lining, and especially the bottom, to rapidly alter and degenerate. After many costly experiments, a practicable basic lining was obtained by wetting and molding magnesian limestone ground into powder, and then burning the dolomite bricks thus made at the highest attainable temperature. Another mode of forming the lining is, to ram into the converter hard-burned pulverized dolomite, mixed with ten per cent. of coal-tar. The *tuyères* used in lime-lined converters are either of the ordinary fire-brick kind, or the lime-bottoms are rammed around rods which form *tuyère*-holes. The lime-bricks as they are made are exceedingly expensive, and not always trustworthy, and yet are subject to rapid and certain destruction. The dolomite bricks are built up to form the lining with mortar of similar composition. The only material which has produced satisfactory basic bricks so far is magnesian limestone or dolomite. It was hoped that the afterblow—that is, the continuance of the blast for two or three minutes after the decarbonization has been completed—could be avoided, and the wear on the bricks, which takes place chiefly at this period, be greatly reduced; but when the chemistry of the process was better understood through the revelations of the spectro-scope, it was seen that the afterblow was the necessary and characteristic condition of dephosphorization. The phosphorus at the high

temperature of the Bessemer converter is converted into phosphoric acid, which will combine with the lime or other base only after the carbon and silicon and a large proportion of the sulphur have been eliminated. The preservation of the basic lining depends largely on shortening the period of the overblow as much as possible. Yet in Cleveland it is found necessary to continue it three or four minutes, producing a most destructive wear and tear. The corrosive action of the silicic acid is directly proportional to the amount of silicon contained in the iron; and the pig which is lowest in silicon can consequently be made into steel by the basic process the most economically. According to A. L. Holley, iron is best adapted for the basic process which contains under 1 per cent. of silicon, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of phosphorus, and from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of manganese, which is useful as a heat-giver as well as a valuable ingredient in steel. The ferro-manganese or spiegeleisen is added to the blown metal; and, before it is poured in, the slag is run out of the converter, to prevent the manganese from taking the phosphorus out of the slag again, and carrying it back into the iron. The basic process is, in other respects, conducted precisely like the ordinary process, except the afterblow.

The absence of any indication when the dephosphorization was completed, such as the drop of the carbon-flame in the ordinary process, necessitated the troublesome and time-consuming proceeding of taking out samples to test during the afterblow. If the blast were continued too long, the quality of the product would be impaired by oxygenation. The inconvenient accumulation of slag and metal, clogging the nose of the converter, while the samples were being taken out, was only partially avoided by reducing the size of the aperture and lining the nose with fire-brick. With increased experience it was possible to stop blowing at the right stage by timing the blast, without the necessity of sampling. The wear of the lining was much more uniform after this, as many as six hundred and thirty tons of steel having been made in one lining without repairs. J. Massenez has observed closely the chemical changes which take place during the basic process, in the works at Hoerde, in Westphalia. The silicon is reduced to a mere trace in about two minutes, a portion of the carbon burning out at the same time. While the silicon is in combustion the phosphorus not only is not attacked, but increases proportionately to the bulk of the mass while the silicon and carbon are being reduced. After the silicon is expelled, the carbon commences to burn off rapidly. The manganese oxidizes slowly and regularly during the whole blow. The trace of copper disappears at the commencement. The sulphur-curve rises until the beginning of the afterblow, and descends only slowly and partially at its end. The phosphorus is energetically attacked after decarbonization has

been completed. Its rapid combustion is the cause of the high temperature at the end of the process. After the reduction of the silicon, and while the carbon is being reduced from 2.72 to 0.16 per cent., the diminution of the phosphorus is only from 1.32 to 1.18 per cent. Then a rapid combustion of phosphorus takes place, leaving only a trace. The Germans succeed in more completely dephosphorizing pig-iron than the English. In the Hoerde works pig containing 2.75 per cent. carbon in combination, 0.50 per cent. manganese, 0.9 per cent. silicon, 0.31 per cent. sulphur, 1.51 per cent. phosphorus, gave on analysis after three minutes' afterblow 0.13 per cent. of phosphorus, and in twenty-five seconds longer 0.10 per cent., with 0.17 per cent. manganese, 0.12 per cent. sulphur, and of carbon a trace; and after the addition of the spiegeleisen the steel produced gave 0.19 per cent. of carbon, 0.57 per cent. of manganese, 0.10 per cent. of sulphur, and 0.10 per cent. of phosphorus. In Bolckow, Vaughan & Co.'s works a new six-ton converter is in use, especially adapted to this process. The lime and iron are lifted up by the force of the blast, but do not cling to the nose of the converter, and the metal can be poured into the converter when turned upon its side. The converter is first heated with coke, then about 16 per cent. of the weight of the metal of well-burned lime mixed with some coal is put in and blown until well heated, and then the molten pig-iron is poured in, and a blast of twenty-five pounds' pressure is turned on. It is decarbonized in about ten minutes. The method of sampling is still used in these works. After two and a half minutes' afterblow a sample is taken out, beaten into a sheet, cooled, and broken. If not ductile enough, the blast is continued some time longer before the spiegel is added. Another process is in use in the same establishment, which can be applied to Cleveland pig of different qualities, while special grades are required for the other. This is called the transfer system. The metal is desilicized in a converter with a silicious lining, and then poured into another with a dolomite lining, the silicious slag being carefully kept out, in which the afterblow of about three minutes is conducted, enough lime having been placed in the converter to absorb the phosphorus. Not expecting that the basic lining will through any improvements in the process become as lasting as the silicious lining, Mr. Holley, who has adopted the basic process in the United States, has devised an apparatus which works by means of an hydraulic ram, by which the converter-shells can readily be lifted off their trunnions and newly lined ones set in. The acid lining was not brought up to its present state of perfection without passing through a long period of experimentation and gradual improvement. The acid linings also are subject not only to wear from the mechanical action of the charge, but are chemically attacked by the various slags.

The silica linings have been perfected to the point where sixty charges can be got out of each pair of converters in twenty-four hours. This is their duty in the Bessemer works of the United States, where appliances have been devised for rapidly shifting interchangeable converter-bottoms, and for removing a burned-out converter, and placing a new-lined one on the trunnions, which are not yet introduced in Europe. The repairing of the fixed linings just above the tuyères, and the removal of the incrustations of slag which accumulate on certain parts of the lining, are the main problems in maintaining acid linings in order; and the conditions of the basic lining are precisely similar, only the chemical decomposition is much more rapid and general, so that the difficulties are increased about threefold. The bottoms and tuyères employed in the basic process can stand ten to fifteen charges, being nearly equal to the silica bottoms; but the lining near the tuyères, and in other parts of the converter, is soon eaten out by the decay and abrasion; and the converter must frequently be cooled off, and the lining repaired by inserting new bricks, or by patching, occasioning a stoppage of twenty-four hours, which is a more serious drawback in the United States than in Europe, where the average output of Bessemer converters is less than half that of American steel-works, and where the plant can be suffered to lie idle during the repairs of ordinary converters, whereas American iron-masters are obliged to employ mechanical contrivances to keep their whole force and plant busy every hour. The basic lining is seldom run above sixty charges without a thorough overhauling being necessary; and some of them must be repaired every time a new bottom is set. The adaptation of the basic process to American methods, until the basic materials can be obtained with enduring qualities equal to those of the acid linings, requires a contrivance of the nature of that devised by Holley, by which converters that are disabled can be replaced without loss of time by sound ones. Holley's converting plant differs from a system which is being tried in the Cleveland Steel Works, by Richards, in that the latter apparatus is designed to transport the entire converter, taking it off the pillow-blocks and conveying it, by means of an overhead traveler, to the repair-shops, replacing it by a fleshly-lined converter by the same apparatus; while Holley contemplates making the shell of the converter detachable, and lifting it out rapidly by a lift, lowering it to the ground-level, and rolling it to the repair-shop in a car.

In many parts of the United States phosphoric ores, adapted to the basic process, are abundant, and usually very cheap. In some districts, especially in the South, they are common in the same localities in which coal and excellent dolomite are found in great quantities. The occurrence of all the materials for cheap steel-making in immediate proximity in

these localities opens up the possibility of a great industrial development.

DISCIPLES OF CHRIST. The first detailed report of the statistics of the Disciples of Christ was made to the General Christian Missionary Convention in October, 1880. The following is a summary of its principal items:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Churches.	Preachers.	Members.
Alabama.....	85	28	3,250
Arkansas.....	56	45	5,928
California.....	49	88	5,775
Colorado.....	16	12	1,750
Connecticut.....	6	4	775
Dakota.....	7	4	675
District of Columbia.....	1	2	425
Florida.....	14	11	900
Georgia.....	75	48	9,850
Illinois.....	725	650	85,250
Indiana.....	675	580	78,950
Iowa.....	200	78	16,860
Kansas.....	125	98	15,500
Kentucky.....	595	485	79,525
Louisiana.....	12	7	1,680
Maine.....	7	5	725
Maryland.....	5	4	1,095
Massachusetts.....	7	5	1,240
Michigan.....	75	49	6,000
Minnesota.....	7	5	725
Mississippi.....	15	12	2,870
Missouri.....	565	395	60,900
Montana.....	6	4	675
Nebraska.....	75	41	18,550
New York.....	49	89	5,950
North Carolina.....	95	79	14,700
Ohio.....	425	217	45,500
Oregon.....	45	24	4,750
Pennsylvania.....	95	88	18,400
South Carolina.....	25	18	2,825
Tennessee.....	275	195	38,550
Texas.....	165	135	16,500
Vermont.....	8	2	425
Virginia.....	150	115	16,500
Washington Territory.....	1	1	75
West Virginia.....	65	48	7,750
Wisconsin.....	21	12	2,575
Wyoming Territory.....	1	1	95
Total.....	4,768	3,488	568,928

The floating membership is estimated to consist of 50,000 persons. Adding this, gives a total of more than 600,000 members in the United States.

The annual meeting of the *General Christian Missionary Convention* was held in Louisville, Kentucky, October 21st. Mr. T. P. Haley presided. The whole amount of the receipts of the Board representing the Convention for the year had been \$16,123, of which \$9,373 were in cash, the rest in notes and bequests. The Board had employed seventeen missionaries, and had carried on its work in Dakota, Washington, and Montana Territories, Oregon, Kansas, Nebraska, Tennessee, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, Pennsylvania, Colorado, Iowa, and New Mexico. Its missionaries had organized nineteen churches and twenty-one Sunday-schools, and returned 791 additions of members. Besides this work, sixteen State societies had received \$85,559, and returned 2,280 baptisms and 1,573 other accessions resulting from their labors.

The *Foreign Christian Missionary Society* had received \$12,887, and had expended \$11,807. It had missions at Southampton, England; Copenhagen, Denmark; Paris, France; Chester,

Southport, and Liverpool, England; and Constantinople, Turkey—all of which together returned 291 additions during the year, 514 members in all, 735 attendants at Sunday-school, and a total average attendance at church of 3,000 persons. The services in Liverpool were to be temporarily suspended, and a new station was to be opened at Bury, near Manchester; services had been begun at Frederickshald, Norway, with a congregation of sixty Free-churchmen owning their own house. A paper called "The Evangelist" was published at Southport, England, and a monthly periodical was published at Copenhagen, Denmark.

The *Christian Woman's Board of Missions* had received \$7,223, and had expended \$4,958. It employed five missionaries in Jamaica and two missionaries in Paris, France.

DOMINION OF CANADA. The Conservative Government still preserves a large and harmonious majority in Parliament. Sir John Alexander Macdonald is still Premier and Minister of the Interior, and the principal members of the Cabinet are the same as in 1879—Sir Samuel Leonard Tilley remaining Minister of Finance; Sir Charles Tupper, Minister of Railways and Canals; James Colledge Pope, Minister of Marine and Fisheries; and John Henry Pope, Minister of Agriculture. Among the changes in the Cabinet the principal one was the appointment of John O'Connor, previously President of the Council, to the postmaster-generalship, the office which he held at the time of the fall of the Conservative Ministry in 1873. The leader of the Opposition, Alexander Mackenzie, the late Prime Minister, who had headed the party in and out of power for over twenty years, felt compelled by failing health to resign the active leadership into the hands of his coadjutor, Edward Blake, who had been his supporter in debate for many years. Mr. Mackenzie did not cease, however, to take part in the debates of the House upon the main questions in controversy between the Conservative Government and the Liberal minority.

The Dominion Parliament was convened on the 12th of February, and prorogued on the 7th of May.

For the creation of the office of a resident representative agent in the United Kingdom, to be called the High Commissioner for Canada, which post is to be filled by Sir Alexander T. Galt, the vote of Parliament was obtained by the Premier.

A change was made in the currency law, reducing the specie reserve held against the Dominion currency notes and augmenting the issue. Under the old law the Government was permitted to issue notes, secured by a partial reserve in specie, up to the amount of \$12,000,000. Against the first \$9,000,000, a gold reserve of 20 per cent. was required to be held, and against all above that amount, up to \$12,000,000, a reserve of 50 per cent. For all notes placed in circulation beyond that amount

a reserve of dollar for dollar was required. By the new currency regulations the Government may issue \$20,000,000 in paper currency, and is required to hold only 15 per cent. in gold with 10 per cent. in bonds of the Dominion, guaranteed by the Imperial Government, as security for the redemption of the whole amount issued. New regulations were also made regarding the issue of notes by the banking institutions. In a conference with the bankers, Sir Leonard Tilley was dissuaded from the project of establishing a Government bank of issue which he proposed, and also from introducing the American national-bank system requiring a deposit of Government bonds to secure the circulation. The new banking law makes the notes of each bank a prior charge upon its assets, and requires the bank to keep a reserve of 40 per cent. of its circulation in Dominion notes, and to make full and clear statements of its financial condition to the Government every month. The banks were directed furthermore to cancel their notes of all denominations under five dollars, in order to make room for the new issue of \$8,000,000 by the Government, which is intended to be in notes of small denominations.

In connection with the increased tax on imported cigars, a change was made in the excise for the purpose of encouraging the cultivation of tobacco and the manufacture of the domestic leaf, by which special licenses are granted to manufacturers of Canadian tobacco only, for which the excise duty is reduced from forty to thirty cents a pound on cigars, and twenty to fourteen cents per pound on other manufactures; the license-tax for manufacturing Canadian tobacco exclusively is fifty dollars, instead of seventy-five dollars as in the case of other manufacturers. The increase of ten cents per gallon on spirits had the effect of considerably reducing the revenue from that source, owing either to a reduced consumption or to illicit distillation. The tax on distilled liquors is one dollar per gallon; there is a duty of fifteen cents per gallon on methylated spirits, and one of four cents on vinegar.

The revised estimate of ordinary expenditures for 1879-'80 was \$24,978,000; the estimate of revenue \$24,450,000. A supplementary estimate of expenditures increased the estimated deficit for the year to \$623,000. The estimated revenue for 1880-'81 is \$25,517,000, and the estimated disbursements, revised at the close of the sessions, are \$25,318,734, not including the item of the survey of Dominion lands, estimated at \$300,000, which was formerly charged to consolidated revenue, but is now transferred to capital account. The revenue of 1880 fell considerably below the estimate of the Finance Minister, the deficit reaching \$1,700,000. The actual expenditures for the year were \$25,161,712. The expenditures of the preceding year were \$24,455,381; before that, during the five years of the Liberal Ministry, they had remained at about \$23,500,-

000 each year, excepting 1876, when they reached nearly \$24,500,000, and before that, between 1867 and 1873, they had risen progressively from \$13,500,000 to \$19,000,000.

The following comparative statement of the receipts of the Treasury in 1879-'80, and the preceding year, shows an increase of \$1,298,463:

RECEIPTS ON ACCOUNT OF	1878-'79.	1879-'80.
Consolidated fund.....	\$22,517,883	\$23,307,406
Loans.....	23,189,908	28,316,878
Open accounts.....	6,771,574	1,558,849
Total.....	\$52,479,165	\$53,177,628

The customs receipts increased from \$12,900,659 to \$14,071,343; the excise receipts decreased from \$5,390,763 to \$4,232,427, and the stamp duties from \$185,190 to \$175,806; the post-office revenues increased from \$1,172,418 to \$1,252,498; public works revenues, including railways, from \$1,863,149 to \$2,167,401; and receipts on public lands increased from \$23,828 to \$120,479. The total expenditures increased from \$47,456,421 to \$50,879,241. The ordinary expenditures were \$6,963,852, against \$6,941,577 in 1878-'79. The principal items of controllable expenditure were civil government, \$893,505; administration of justice, \$574,311; legislation, \$598,105; department of public works, \$1,051,926; lighthouse and coast-service, \$425,304; ocean and river steam-service, \$385,334; mounted police, \$332,865; post-office, \$1,818,271; customs, \$716,126; public works, \$2,329,626. The total expenditure on account of consolidated fund was \$24,850,634, or \$1,543,228 in excess of the receipts.

The chief transactions of the Treasury for the year, were the placing of the £3,000,000 4 per cent. loan on the English market, which was taken up at £95 1s. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Out of the proceeds £1,208,000 of 6 per cent. debentures were retired. The only other operation was the conversion of \$3,005,095 of the Dominion 6 per cent. stock into a 5 per cent. loan, and the redemption of \$693,946 of the same, leaving a balance of \$422,197. By these operations the interest on the gross debt has been reduced from the average rate of 3.95 per cent. to 3.82 per cent.; that on the net debt from 4.51 to 4.37 per cent.; and that on the English loans from 4.57 to 4.45 per cent. The amount of debt outstanding which matures before 1885 is \$40,642,872, of which \$39,375,402 is payable in London: \$33,419,089 of the total amount does not mature until January 1, 1885. The total liabilities of Canada increased from \$188,974,753 on June 30, 1879, to \$199,125,323 on June 30, 1880; while the total assets increased from \$36,493,683 to \$42,182,852. The total debt, funded and unfunded, increased during the year from \$158,745,580 to \$173,673,929. The expenditures for the year on capital account for internal improvements, were \$8,241,173: \$2,123,366 on ca-

nals; \$8,730 on public buildings; and \$6,109,077 on railroads, of which latter amount \$2,048,014 were expended on the Intercolonial, and \$4,044,522 on the Pacific Railway.

Numerous changes were made in the tariff, nearly all of them in the direction of extending and increasing the protection of home industry. The malt duty of two cents per pound was reduced in the interest of the brewers to fifteen cents per bushel. In the original tariff a high duty was imposed upon woollens, while wool was left on the free list. To disarm the opposition to the national policy which was gaining ground among the farming population, a protective duty was placed upon certain grades of wool, without, however, materially benefiting the farmers, since the Canadian sheep-growers have bred their stock to mutton, and must export the greater part of their wool-clip, which is only used in the manufacture of blankets in Canada, while the woollen manufacturers have to import most of their material. The duty is three cents per pound, and covers "Leicester, Lincolnshire, Cotswold, Down, combing wools, or wools known as luster wools, and other like combing wools, such as are grown in Canada." A drawback of one and a half cent a pound on blasting explosives was allowed to miners. The duty on brown and common papers was raised from one to one and a half cents a pound. Paris green, before on the free list, was subjected to 10 per cent. duty *ad valorem*. Duties of 25 per cent. were placed upon emery-wheels and on gold and silver leaf. A discriminating duty was placed upon bituminous coal in the interest of the Nova Scotia miners, the ten cents additional duty raising the rate on soft coal to sixty cents per ton. An additional duty of five per cent. was imposed upon pianos and organs, and on billiard-tables, making the duty 15 per cent. A duty on cans was levied in retaliation for the famous lobster-can duty imposed by Congress; it is the same as the American duty, one and a half cents on quart-cans containing fish under the Washington Treaty, and a proportionately increased duty on larger cans. The duty on demijohns containing vinegar, wine, or acids was reduced from 20 to 10 per cent. China and porcelain are taxed 25 instead of 20 per cent. The duty on raw sugar was fixed upon the import price, including the export taxes of the exporting countries. The duty on trunks was raised to 30 per cent. The duty on books was raised from six cents per pound to 15 per cent. *ad valorem*, including British copyright books. Steel remains on the free list for another year. The duty on cigars and cigarettes was changed from 50 to 60 per cent.

In reply to inquiries of the Governor-General, made in a letter dated May 3, 1879, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach thus defines the policy of the Imperial Government with respect to the protective tariff:

In connection with the new customs tariff now under the consideration of the Dominion Parliament

it has been asked whether the royal instructions issued to you omitted for the first time the clause requiring that bills imposing differential duties should be reserved for her Majesty's approval. It will be apparent from a perusal of the papers that the clause in the former royal instructions requiring that certain classes of bills—and among them bills imposing differential duties—should be reserved for her Majesty's approval was, at the instance of the late Government of the Dominion, omitted from the revised royal instructions because her Majesty's Government thought it undesirable that those instructions should contain anything which could be interpreted as limiting or defining the legislative powers conferred in 1867 on the Dominion Parliament. It was, therefore, not with reference to the fiscal policy of your present Ministers, which indeed was not at the time in contemplation, that this particular alteration was made, nor does it in any way diminish the powers of reservation and disallowance which are fully and clearly set forth in the "British North America Act of 1867."

The dominion and jurisdiction over all the British possessions, with the exception of Newfoundland with its dependencies, which colony has not yet entered the Confederation, have been formally transferred to the Dominion by the Imperial Government.

A boundary question between the Ontario and Dominion governments, which had been adjusted by a commission under the previous Ministry, composed of Sir Edward Thornton, Sir Francis Hicks, and Chief Justice Harrison, subject to the ratification of the two Legislatures, was again unsettled by a bill brought into the Dominion Parliament providing for the administration of justice in the disputed territory. The arbitrators had fixed the western boundary of Ontario at a line running due north from Hunter's Island, and had drawn the northern boundary-line connecting the point on Hudson Bay, struck by a line running north from Lake Temiscaming as the northeastern limit, with a northwestern point on the Lake of the Woods. The delineation of the northern boundary involves an historical investigation of the treaties and laws defining the frontier between the Hudson Bay Company's possessions on the one hand, and on the other the old French colony, and the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada which were formed therefrom. It establishes, therefore, not only the northern limit of Ontario, but that of Quebec as well. The Hudson Bay Company claimed, in their controversies with the British Government on this question, that their territory was bounded by the "height of land," or the watershed between the Great Lakes and Hudson Bay. In the controversies between the British and French Governments in the beginning of the last century, the French colony claimed the fifty-fifth parallel of latitude as its northern boundary, and the company insisted on the fifty-third, which is coincident with the Albany River. The northern boundary of Ontario, defined above, was determined in accordance with the act of the British Parliament dividing the colony into two provinces in 1791, which fixed the eastern boundary of the Upper Province and its northeastern point on the line

running north from Lake Temiscaming to the shore of Hudson Bay.

The manifold schemes devised by the Government for the speedy completion of the Pacific Railway have one after another ended in disappointment. The mission to England undertaken by the Ministers in 1879 to induce the British Government to pledge its credit for the completion of the road was a total failure. The plan was, to intrust the direction of the enterprise to a joint commission appointed by the Imperial and the Canadian Governments, which should raise the funds for extending the works by the sale of 100,000,000 acres of land in the Northwest, set apart for the purpose, and upon Canadian bonds guaranteed by the British Government. The prospect of opening up a wide and fertile territory for immigration was advanced as a sufficient inducement to the Imperial Government to come to the relief of Canada in her helpless efforts to establish rail communication between the grain-fields of the Northwest and the seaboard, and to carry the road across the Rocky Mountains, and discharge her promise to British Columbia. As might have been expected, the Canadian Cabinet officers obtained nothing more substantial than good words from the Imperial Government. No direct negotiations took place; but in an informal conference with the Canadian representatives, the Secretary for the Colonies, Mr. Forster, expressed the opinion that the Imperial Government ought, perhaps, to aid the Dominion in completing her great public undertaking, but not if the Canadians recognized no mutual obligations, and continued to impose prohibitory and protective duties upon imports to the prejudice of British manufacturing and exporting interests. In the summer of 1880 Sir John A. Macdonald and Sir Charles Tupper again visited Europe with the purpose, this time, of inducing private capitalists to take the enterprise off their hands. It had been reported, before their departure, that negotiations had commenced with reference to such a plan with Lord Dunmore and Mr. Brown, of London, who visited Canada for this object. On September 27th, after his return, Sir John A. Macdonald announced in a speech at Montreal, that he had concluded an arrangement with an association, including certain of the leading capitalists of England, Germany, France, the United States, and Canada, by which the road was to be completed in ten years, and kept running for ten years after its completion "without the cost of one cent to the people of Canada." It was afterward understood that the European capitalists, among whom are supposed to have been the houses of Baring, Erlanger, and Rothschild, had not entered into an actual agreement with the Canadian envoys; but a syndicate of Americans, it was given out, the chief members of which were Morton, Rose & Co., the American Banking Agency in London, and Mr. MacIntyre, of Montreal, the principal shareholder in the Canada Central Rail-

way, had engaged to build the road on the same terms. These were understood to embrace the transfer of the portions of the road at present completed and contracted for, the cost of which, including surveys, is estimated to amount to \$34,834,618, the payment of a bonus of \$25,000,000, and a grant of 25,000,000 acres of land along the line of the railway.

The division of the line traversing the fertile plains of the Northwest, from Selkirk to the Rocky Mountains, 900 miles, and the Thunder Bay branch, now nearly completed, 404 miles, connecting it with the head of navigation on Lake Superior, are generally regarded as a sound commercial undertaking, which will return good profits in a short period; also the Sault Sainte Marie branch connecting the prairie division with the American network of railroads. The Rocky Mountain and British Columbia division, 550 miles in length, which is expected to cost \$30,000,000, or as much as it will to complete the whole 1,400 miles from Lake Superior to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, and the division around the shore of Lake Superior to connect the Northwest with old Canada, 620 miles in length and running through a barren wilderness, which is almost as costly to build as the British Columbia road, are justifiable only from a political standpoint, and could hardly be expected to pay their running expenses for a long time to come.

The portions of the Pacific Railway under contract at present are the section of the main line from Fort William to Selkirk, 404 miles in length; from Emerson to Selkirk, the Pembina branch, 85 miles; 100 miles on the main line and the Winnipeg branch west of the Red River; and 127 miles in British Columbia: altogether 722 miles. The total expenditure on account of the road up to the end of 1879 had been \$14,159,165. The Yale-Kamloops line in British Columbia was let in four sections, and the contracts were subsequently transferred to Andrew Onderdonk, of San Francisco, contractor and civil engineer, who acted for a syndicate of American capitalists, consisting of L. P. Morton and H. B. L. Laidlaw, of New York; S. G. Reed, of Portland, Oregon; D. O. Mills, of San Francisco, financial agent of the association, and Onderdonk himself, who superintends the construction. The disposal of their contracts at a profit by the Canadian contractors was made the subject of strictures upon the Government. The contract price for this difficult division, which involves much bridging, excavation, and tunneling, amounts to \$8,000,000 or \$10,000,000. The work was commenced the 15th of May with a numerous force of white and Chinese laborers brought from California.

The route of the Canada Pacific over the Rocky Mountains had to be selected from three only known passes. These are the Yellowhead Pass, at an elevation of 3,645 feet; the Pine River Pass, whose elevation is about 2,800 feet; and the Peace River Pass, with an elevation said to be only 1,650 feet. The dif-

facilities to be overcome in carrying the road through the tremendous cañons of the Cascade Mountains down to the Pacific are not greater in the route which has been adopted—over the Yellowhead Pass and along the courses of the Thompson and Frazer Rivers to Burrard Inlet—than by either of the others. The perpendicular cliffs or deep slopes down which terrific avalanches descend, and the rushing and variable mountain-torrents which sweep through the deep gorges, will make this part of the route a trying task for the engineers.

After surveys made in the Peace River district, in the Skeena River Valley, and the different passes leading to Port Simpson, the Government have returned to the Burrard Inlet and ratified its adoption. The route from Lake Superior to Port Moody, Burrard Inlet, by way of Yellowhead Pass, is 1,945 miles long, 190 miles less than the shortest route to Port Simpson. The estimated cost for the entire completion and equipment of the road from Ottawa to Burrard Inlet is about \$84,000,000, according to the latest statement of the Government. The cost of the line from Thunder Bay, on Lake Superior, to the Pacific terminus, is estimated at \$64,869,618, estimating the Fort William and Selkirk division at \$17,000,000; the 1,000 miles across the prairies, from Selkirk to Jasper Valley, at \$13,000 per mile; the section from there to Kamloops, 336 miles, at \$43,660 per mile; the Yale-Kamloops section, 125 miles, at \$80,000 per mile; and the section from Yale to Fort Moody at \$38,838 per mile. The cost of the extension from Fort William along the northern shore of Lake Superior to the terminal point at Lake Nipissing, about 600 miles, is roughly estimated at from \$30,000 to \$40,000 a mile, which would make the capital outlay for the entire road, not quite 2,600 miles in total length, between \$82,000,000 and \$88,000,000. The Pacific Junction Railway Company are engaged in building a line of road between Gravenhurst and Southeast Bay, on Lake Nipissing, a distance of 107 miles, which will connect the existing system of railroads with the Pacific Railway. This extension of the Canada Central will connect with both the main line and the Sault Sainte Marie branch of the Canada Pacific when completed, and in the mean time will open up a valuable country for lumbering and colonization. The time set for the completion of the railroad, to which the Government solemnly pledged itself in 1874, and which was the principal condition under which British Columbia entered the confederation, has already nearly expired. The aggregate length of the sections built at the end of 1880 is about 800 miles, of which 264 miles are opened to traffic.

The prices set upon the railroad lands, extending 110 miles on each side of the road, average \$2.12½ per acre for the railroad reservation. They are graduated as follows: for belt A, along the railroad, 5 miles on each side, \$5 per acre; belts B, 15 miles wide each, \$4;

belts C, 20 miles wide, \$3; belts D, 20 miles wide, \$2; belts E, 50 miles each, \$1. Pre-emption land is \$2.50 an acre in belts A and B, \$2 in belts C and D, and \$1 in belts E. The terms for pre-emptions are four tenths of the price at the end of three years, and the rest in six annual payments, with six per cent. interest from the time of taking up the allotment added. The quantity of land which the Government expected to be sold and pre-empted and disposed of by free grant was calculated to be 32,640,000 acres. According to a sanguine estimate of Sir Charles Tupper, the railroad could be completed by the Government in eleven years at the cost stated above; there would be a probable immigration of 500,000 people into the Northwest during that period, who will be paying \$1,800,000 a year in customs, and who will have paid toward the completion of the railroad for the lands upon which they settle \$38,000,000 in cash, with \$32,000,000 still due to the Government upon mortgages. The following lands have been disposed of within the railway belts in Manitoba and the Northwest Territory: Belt A, 34,932 acres; B, 28,213; C, 6,392; D, 12,085; E, 47,631; total sales, 129,303 acres. The scrip lands amount to 451,133 acres; free grants amounting to 229,721 acres have been taken up; free culture grants, 36,840 acres; pre-emptions, 590,240 acres; and homestead grants, 1,142,400 acres. The total area taken up amounts to 2,578,677 acres.

The contract for the building of the prairie section, and that connecting it with the Canada roads, signed by the Ministers, is with a syndicate composed of George Stephen and Duncan MacIntyre, of Montreal; J. S. Kennedy, of New York; R. B. Angus and J. J. Hill, of St. Paul, Minnesota; Morton, Rose & Co., of London; and Cohen, Reinach & Co., of Paris. The road is divided into four sections; the first extending from the western terminus of the Canada Central to the east end of Lake Nipissing, and called the Eastern Section; the second, from Lake Superior to Selkirk, called the Lake Section; the third, from Selkirk to Kamloops, called the Central; and the fourth, called the Western Section, running from Kamloops to Port Moody. The contractors are required to place a deposit with the Government of \$1,000,000, immediately after the organization of the company, as security or caution money for the construction of the road, on which the Government agrees to pay to the company 4 per cent. per annum interest, payable half yearly. Work must be commenced before the 1st of July, 1881, on the Eastern Section, and before the 1st of May on the Central Section. These two sections must be completed and in operation before May 1, 1891. The section in British Columbia now under contract must be finished by June 30, 1885. The other part of the British Columbian division, extending from Yale to the Pacific terminus, must be finished before

May 1, 1881. Both of these latter divisions are to be built by the Government and delivered over. The subsidies, amounting to \$25,000,000 and 25,000,000 acres of land altogether, apportioned to the different parts of the road, are to be handed over in the following amounts: for the first 900 miles of the Central Section, \$10,000 a mile and \$1,000,000, and 12,500 acres of land for each mile; for the next 450 miles, \$15,333 a mile and \$6,000,000, and 16,666-66 acres of land per mile; making the total money subsidy for this section, \$15,000,000, and the land subsidy, 18,750,000 acres. For the Eastern Section the syndicate is allowed a subsidy of land equal to 9,615½ acres per mile, or for the whole 650 miles, 6,250,000 acres. The company is to be called the Canada Pacific Railway Company, and to have its central place of business in Montreal. The directors are to be George Stephen, Duncan MacIntyre, J. S. Kennedy, R. B. Angus, J. J. Hill, H. Stafford Northcote, P. P. Grenfell, C. D. Rose, and Baron Reinach. Besides the Lake Superior Section, already partly constructed, the Pembina branch, and the Yale-Kamloops stretch under contract, the Government agree to complete and hand over to the company the 90 miles of road from Yale to Port Moody, the cost of which is estimated at \$3,500,000. The materials to be used in the construction of the permanent way are to be admitted free of duty. The company may select their own route between the termini. No other company shall have the right to construct other lines in the Northwest to compete with the road within a period of twenty years. The road and all its appointments shall remain free of taxation for ever, and no taxes shall be collected from the company on the lands included in the cession for twenty years. The road-bed must be as good as that of the Union Pacific when first built. The subsidy in money and land belonging to each twenty-mile section will be delivered upon the completion and equipment of such section, save a drawback of one fifth of the land, which will remain in the possession of the Government as a security for the maintenance of the railroad for ten years after completion. The company is authorized to raise money to build the road either by selling the land to settlers, or by issuing bonds secured by the land grant, or by mortgaging both the railway and the land; \$5,000,000 of the company's bonds may be held by the Government as a pledge until the operation of the road for the stipulated ten years is fulfilled. The grant of land consists of alternate sections of 640 acres extending back 24 miles on each side of the line. When any of this land is not fairly fit for settlement, the company may choose instead an equal number of sections lying within the same distance of branch or side lines, which it shall locate anywhere within the fertile belt, or between the forty-ninth and fifty-seventh parallels of latitude. Upon the completion of the contract

the railroad is to be the property of the company in perpetuity.

The Dominion Parliament was convened on the 9th of December, some two months earlier than usual, in order that the Ministry might obtain their ratification of the Pacific Railway contract. The speech from the throne contained the following references to this and other subjects of public concern:

During the recess my advisers thought the time opportune for making another attempt to carry out the declared preference of Parliament for the construction and operation of the Canadian Pacific Railway by means of an incorporated company, aided by grants of money and land, rather than by the direct action of the Government. Three of my Ministers, therefore, proceeded to England for the purpose of carrying on negotiations. I am pleased to be able to inform you that their efforts were so far successful that a contract has been entered into, subject to the approval of Parliament, with men of high financial standing in Europe, the United States, and Canada, for the speedy construction and permanent working of this great national enterprise. The contract and the papers connected therewith will be submitted to you without delay, and I invoke for them your early and earnest consideration. With this view I have summoned you before the usual period, as no steps can be taken by the contractors to prosecute the work, and no permanent arrangement for the organization of a systematic emigration from Europe to the Northwest Territories can be satisfactorily made till the policy of Parliament with respect to the railway has been decided.

Steady progress has been made in the construction of those portions of the railway now under contract. Two additional sections have been recently opened for traffic—one from Winnipeg to Portage La Prairie; the other from Cross Lake to Keewatin—so that there are now in all two hundred and sixty-four miles in operation.

You will be glad to learn that the measures adopted to promote economy in the working of the Intercolonial Railway and Prince Edward Island Railways, have resulted in a large reduction of the difference between the revenue and expenditure, and that the steadily increasing traffic warrants the expectation that during the current year these railways will be self-sustaining.

I have the gratification of informing you that her Majesty's Government has generously presented to Canada for training-school purposes the steam-corvette *Charybdis*, lately returned from service in the Chinese seas. The correspondence on this subject will be laid before you.

I have thought it well, in consideration of the increasing duties thrown by the development of the country upon the civil service, and for the more efficient organization of the service, to issue a commission to examine and report on the whole question. The report of the Commissioners will, I believe, be ready to be laid before you at an early day, and I ask for your consideration of such report and of the whole subject of civil service reform.

A measure for the enlargement of the boundaries of the province of Manitoba will be submitted to you.

I greatly regret being obliged to state that the entire failure of the usual food supply of the Indians in the Northwest Territories, to which I called your attention last session, has continued during the present season, and has involved the necessity of a large expenditure in order to save them from starvation. Several of the bands have, however, already applied themselves to the cultivation of their reserves and the care of their cattle. No effort will be spared to induce the whole of the aboriginal population to betake themselves to agricultural pursuits.

Immigration from Europe into Canada is

now increasing with rapid strides year by year. The heaviest immigration in any one year occurred in 1847, the year following the Irish potato-famine, when about 70,000 persons entered Canada for permanent settlement. The next greatest immigration took place in 1873, when 41,079 people landed. In 1866 only 10,091 immigrants settled in the Dominion. From that year up to 1873 there was a progressive increase. In 1874 the number fell off to 25,263; in 1875 it further declined to 19,243, and in 1876 to 14,499, the lowest ebb during the period of depression. In 1877, 15,323 persons from across the sea took up their abode in Canada; in 1878, 18,372; and in 1879 the number leaped up to 30,717. The arrivals for the first three months indicate a total immigration of nearly double that number in 1880. This influx is more than neutralized by the exodus of Canadians to the United States, which has been growing constantly larger for several years past, owing to the returning prosperity and higher wages in the United States and the continued depression in Canada, which the protective tariff failed to relieve; though good crops and revival of the lumber exports to the United States have in 1880 caused the tide to turn. The number of Canadians who crossed the border to settle in the United States in the fiscal year 1878 was 25,568; in 1879 the number rose to 31,268; and in 1880 it mounted up to nearly 90,000.

Among the multitude of unemployed laborers in the cities of the older provinces in the earlier part of the year were many immigrants who had been assisted in their passage over the ocean by the Government, which had undertaken to pay to the steamship companies a portion of the fare of such as declared a purpose to become farmers or agricultural laborers. To remedy this evil an order in council was issued for the winter months, prohibiting the landing of any passenger not possessing twenty dollars in cash. The practice of partly paying emigrants' fares from Europe was subsequently restricted, as it had been under the former Government, to farm-laborers and domestic servants.

The obnoxious land regulations in the Northwest caused many of the emigrants to the new Canadian wheat-lands to cross the American frontier and transfer their labor and their capital to the equally fertile prairies of Dakota and Minnesota. The number of settlers who took up lands in the Northwest in 1879 is estimated to have been about 16,000. Of these the number who settled in Manitoba was 11,665. The larger share of this immigration came from the older provinces of the Dominion, a few from the United States, and about 2,000 from the British Islands. The Government land policy provoked many complaints from settlers, and was criticised severely by the Opposition in Parliament, especially the plan of reserving one half of the railroad lands for speculators. The lands along the line of the railway are divided

into belts, the first on either side of the line being five miles broad, the next ones fifteen miles in breadth, and those farther back broader. The prices of the land for purchase or preemption were fixed at different figures for the different belts in the order of their remoteness from the railroad. Each belt was surveyed into square-mile sections, of which only one half are subject to homestead and preemption rights, each alternate section being held as a reserve, the proceeds of the sale of which are to be devoted to the building of the railroad. Of the portion open to settlers 160 acres in each section are given free as a homestead, and each homesteader is allowed a preemption right to 160 acres more. The reserved sections are salable to non-settlers, who are required to pay the purchase-money in ten equal annual installments. The plan of reserving the alternate sections to be disposed of to non-residents in the open market, which was adopted as a convenient means of raising money to aid in the extension of the railroad, was vigorously denounced by the Opposition, on the grounds that it would defeat its object by retarding the settlement of the country, and that it was unjust to actual settlers, doubling the cost of roads and schooling for them, and locking up a large portion of the reservation in the hands of land-speculators who would be enriched by the labor of the pioneers. The area of fertile lands in the Northwest Territory is differently estimated at from 150,000,000 to 220,000,000 acres. Professor Macoun estimates the extent of land adapted for agriculture and stock-raising between Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains at 150,000,000 acres, interspersed with 30,000,000 acres of sterile lands, of which two thirds are probably reclaimable. Of the tillable land 46,000,000 acres lie between the fifty-first parallel of latitude and the American boundary, the forty-ninth parallel, 88,000,000 acres north of the fifty-first degree, and 16,000,000 acres in the Peace River district. The Premier made the statement, based on reports of officers of the survey, that there were 220,000,000 acres in the Northwest east of British Columbia, exclusive of the northern part of the Montana desert, or the belt of dry lands immediately north of the American boundary-line, which, however, Professor Macoun thought was quite fertile, as the rainfall is found sufficient when the soil is plowed up and the moisture is allowed to penetrate the soil, although the rain evaporates and the herbage withers on the unbroken land.

The law relating to the survey of public lands in the Dominion requires that the eastern and western boundaries of each township shall be true astronomical meridians, and that the sphericity of the earth shall be allowed for, so that the northern boundary of every township is less than the southern. In carrying out this operation the surveyors are obliged to go over every line twice with chains of unequal lengths, and to regulate their measurements by frequent

astronomical determinations. In the survey of the railroad lands five principal meridians have been accurately determined, and partly traced, viz., the 97th, 102d, 106th, 110th, and 114th; and fourteen base-lines have been measured and marked connecting these, one of which, on the parallel of $52^{\circ} 10'$, has a length of 183 miles. Since 1876 eleven astronomical stations have been determined; and from these the latitude of sixty-six determinate points and the longitude of forty-five have been calculated.

The Fortune Bay fishery outrage which occurred in 1878 gave rise to a controversy between the British and American Governments concerning the meaning of certain clauses of the fishery treaty, which has not yet been settled. The cause of the dispute was a trifling one; but the different interpretations of the treaty are of material import. On Sunday, January 6, 1878, a mob of Newfoundland fishermen attacked the crews of several American fishing-smacks in Fortune Bay. They compelled the Americans to desist from seining for herring, which they were engaged in doing, and, in the struggle, cut and destroyed the nets and tackle. The fishing fleet sailed for home and laid their case before the authorities at Washington. In the bill for damages which they presented, they included the probable loss which they sustained from not being able to continue fishing through the season, owing to the destruction of their tackle, as well as the cost of their tackle and equipment. The entire amount of the claim was something over \$103,000. This claim was formally presented to the British Government, but Lord Salisbury, then Minister for Foreign Affairs, refused to consider it. His reasons, given in a note dated November 7, 1878, were based principally on the ground that the Americans were at the time engaged in drawing their seines from the shore, that being an infringement of the obligations of the treaty, which forbids American fishermen to trespass or interfere with private property. He pleaded secondarily the fact that they were violating a provincial law against fishing on Sunday, and other acts prohibiting the seining for herring on the coast between October 20th and April 26th, and requiring that seines shall be drawn immediately after being set. Mr. Evarts, in his statement, contended that the rights given to American fishermen by the treaty can not be limited by statutes of the local Legislature. Restrictions can be imposed only by the joint agreement of the two contracting Governments. The definite reply to the American demands was not made until April, 1880, shortly before the retirement of the Beaconsfield Government. Lord Salisbury refused positively to recognize the claim for \$103,000 damages on the ground that the American fishermen were exceeding the rights accorded them by the treaty in pulling their seines for bait from inshore. He took the ground that the term shore-fishing in the treaty does not include the

right to land for the purpose of drawing nets from the strand, and that the provision forbidding American fishermen to trespass upon private property forbids their landing. He also held that in fishing with seines the Americans violated local laws which were in force at the time of the conclusion of the treaty, which were the conditions subject to which the Americans received their fishery privileges; admitting at the same time that the local acts broken by the Fortune Bay fishermen, which had been passed later than the date of the treaty, were not binding upon the Americans. Lord Granville's note in answer to the second communication of the American State Department insists upon the construction that the local laws must be equally binding upon the Americans and the Canadian fishermen. (See UNITED STATES.)

A transatlantic line of steamers sailing from the western side of Hudson Bay, connecting with a railroad from Winnipeg, would give the fertile Northwest, which is now almost shut out from the world's market for want of the means of transportation, the most direct communication with the European ports of any portion of the American continent. To test the practicability of this route, Professor Bell embarked in a sailing-vessel from York Factory, on Hudson Bay, the prospective terminus of the projected railroad, in the spring, and landed in England in the middle of December. He reports that Hudson Strait is open for navigation five and a half months of the year. The vessel was wind-bound for three weeks in the strait, and no traces of ice were seen. This route was the one by which the furs of the Hudson Bay Company were transported to Europe, their vessels reaching York Factory in August, and sailing again in September. The severity of the climate on the western shore of Hudson Bay will probably determine the period of navigation rather than Hudson Strait, bad as its reputation has always been since Hendrik Hudson found it filled with floating bergs in August, at its discovery in 1610. York Factory is one of the coldest spots on the globe. The ground remains frozen the year round, and the shore is fringed with ice till August. The port will probably not be accessible longer than from the beginning of August to the middle of October. It might, nevertheless, become possibly the most advantageous shipping-port for the grain of the Northwest, if large storehouses were built for the accumulation of grain during the year, such as have been proposed for the Siberian ports.

An attempt has been made to solve the Indian problem, and induce the savages to settle upon the lands appropriated to them, by establishing model farms amid the reservations conducted by salaried instructors in agriculture. About twenty such instructors were appointed, and went out to their posts during the summer, provided with outfits of farming imple-

ments and live-stock. In some places the Indians suffered from famine; owing to the tardiness of the supplies, they felt resentment against the Government, and several times during the year broke out into hostilities. The presence of the mounted police in the Northwest Territories, the appointment of a regular magistracy, and the execution of the prohibitory liquor law, have greatly increased the security of life and property.

The Tilley tariff has proved at least as productive of revenue as the revenue tariff of 17½ per cent. which was introduced in 1874, when the rate was changed from 15 per cent. The latter rate had taken the place of a 20 per cent. tariff a few years before, and had proved itself a much better revenue-paying tariff than the higher one, yielding enough to change the annual balance from a deficit to a surplus, although the returns increased also when the average rate was raised again by 2½ per cent. The duties collected during the year realized the prediction the Minister of Finance made at the commencement of the Parliamentary session. The imports showed a sufficient increase over those of 1879 to indicate a return of prosperity, but remain far enough below the average for the previous eight years to show that the protective tariff exerts a powerful deterrent influence. The relations of the different tariff systems to the foreign trade and to the exchequer may be seen from the following table of the imports and duties collected each year since 1867:

YEAR.	Imports.	Customs receipts.
1867-'68.....	\$73,469,644	\$8,578,380
1868-'69.....	70,416,165	8,272,879
1869-'70.....	74,814,369	9,384,212
1870-'71.....	96,092,971	11,841,104
1871-'72.....	111,430,527	12,787,982
1872-'73.....	128,011,251	12,964,164
1873-'74.....	128,213,682	14,325,192
1874-'75.....	123,070,283	15,351,011
1875-'76.....	93,210,346	12,323,587
1876-'77.....	99,327,962	12,546,987
1877-'78.....	93,081,787	12,782,824
1878-'79.....	81,954,427	12,900,659
1879-'80.....	86,346,088	14,151,565

The exports exceeded the imports in 1880 for the first time in many years. The increase in exports was mainly in agricultural produce. The value of manufactured goods exported, notwithstanding a rise in prices, was less than in the year immediately preceding the protective tariff. The live-stock trade with England has largely increased, owing partly to the restrictions imposed upon the importation of neat-cattle into Great Britain from the United States. The exports in 1878 were 18,665 cattle, 41,250 sheep, and 2,027 swine from Canadian ports. In 1879 the exports from Canadian ports were 24,682 cattle, 79,085 sheep, and 4,745 swine, besides a considerable export by way of Boston. In 1880 the trade attained much larger dimensions; the exports of cattle for the first half year were nearly double those of the entire preceding year. The embargo placed

upon the importation of live cattle from the United States has worked detrimentally in the sections where American stock is required for breeding purposes. A ninety days' quarantine is deemed sufficient in the case of English cattle, although pleuro-pneumonia is endemic in that country in several infected districts, whereas in the United States it is of sporadic occurrence, and has not spread beyond a few circumscribed localities in the Eastern States.

The following is a comparative statement of imports and exports by the various provinces during the fiscal years 1878 and 1879: Ontario, in 1878, imports entered for consumption, value, \$38,628,697; duty, \$4,702,982; exports, \$22,937,060; in 1879, entered for consumption, \$34,260,205; duty, \$4,955,476; exports, \$23,854,549. Province of Quebec, in 1878, exports, \$37,392,287; entered for consumption, \$31,063,335; duty, \$4,526,460; in 1879, exports, \$29,740,512; entered for consumption, \$29,172,722; duty, \$4,733,248. Province of Nova Scotia, in 1878, exports, \$7,500,783; entered for consumption, \$8,180,750; duty, \$1,217,491; in 1879, exports, \$7,364,234; entered for consumption, \$6,828,972; duty, \$1,133,093. Province of New Brunswick, in 1878, exports, \$6,268,027; entered for consumption, \$8,474,047; duty, \$1,448,638; in 1879, exports, \$5,371,471; entered for consumption, \$5,338,022; duty, \$1,049,009. Prince Edward Island, in 1878, exports, \$1,700,752; entered for consumption, \$1,293,225; duty, \$231,386; in 1879, exports, \$1,831,389; entered for consumption, \$910,987; duty, \$206,245. The total exports for the whole Dominion of Canada decreased from \$79,323,667 to \$71,491,255; imports entered for consumption decreased from \$91,199,577 to \$80,341,608; the duty increased from \$12,795,693 to \$12,939,540; increase, \$143,847.

According to the report of the Chief Engineer of Canals, there are seven different stretches of canal between Lake Erie and Montreal, with a total length of 70½ miles and a total lift of 533½ feet, distributed over 54 locks. The enlarged locks will allow of the passage of vessels of 1,000 tons burden. The least depth of water in the locks is 9 feet at present. When the Welland Canal is enlarged there will be one lock less, and the distance will be shortened one mile. The Galop Rapids section of the canal is to be abandoned for the river-bed, which will be excavated from 10 to 16 feet. This work is now under contract. The purpose of the Government is to enlarge and deepen the canals so as to accommodate vessels drawing 14 feet of water throughout the route. That will be the minimum depth of water on the mitre sills of the locks, and their smallest size 270 by 45 feet. The distance between Lake Erie and the head of ocean navigation at Montreal, which is now rendered navigable by this system of canals connecting stretches of navigable waters, is 365½ miles. Lake Erie is connected with Lake Ontario by

the Welland Canal, 27 miles in length. To the head of the St. Lawrence are 160 miles of free navigation across Lake Ontario, and then 66½ down the St. Lawrence. The route then passes for 7½ miles through the Galop Canal, then down the river for 4½ miles, through the Rapide Plat Canal for 4 miles, and in the natural bed of the river again for 10½ miles, through Farran's Point canal ¾ mile long back into the river, which it follows for 5 miles, to enter the Cornwall Canal. This is 11½ miles in length, after which comes a stretch of free navigation through the Lake of St. Francis for 32½ miles, and then the Beauharnais Canal, 11½ miles long, a free course over the Lake of St. Louis for 15½ miles, and the Lachine Canal, 8½ miles long, which leads into Montreal. The expenditures on canals up to the beginning of 1880 were, \$4,699,248 on the Lachine Canal, \$412,916 on the Cornwall Canal, and \$10,233,320 on the Welland Canal.

The report of the Minister of Education for the year 1878 gives as the expenditure for public schools in Ontario \$2,889,347, a decrease from the previous year's expenses of \$184,142; the total number of children of school age, five to sixteen years old, was 492,350, a decrease of 2,444; the number attending school was 467,433 within the school age, and 21,582 of other ages; the average attendance was 224,588. The number of schools was 4,990, of teachers 6,473, 3,060 male and 3,413 female. There were 177 Roman Catholic separate schools, with an average attendance of 13,172 pupils, an increase of 623.

The report of the Minister of Justice for 1879 shows a marked increase in the number of convictions over those of the preceding year. The total number of convicts in the penitentiaries was 1,159 on June 30, 1878; during the next twelve months, 568 were received under fresh sentences, and 1,318 remained in confinement on June 30, 1879—an increase of 159. Want of employment is assigned as the principal cause for the continued increase of criminals. The sanitary condition of the prisons is as good as could be desired, only eight deaths having occurred during the year. J. G. Moylan, Inspector of Prisons, in his report, defends the employment of prisoners and the teaching of useful trades in the reformatories, saying that convicts should be instructed in order that they may earn an honest living after their release; that they could with propriety be employed upon articles used in the public service; that the desire among them is strong to learn trades, and permission to be taught is held out as the reward for good conduct; that the competition of convict with free labor is not noticeable, except when a large number of prisoners are suddenly engaged upon a branch of manufacture employing a limited number of hands, as an instance of which he cites the employment of convicts in New York State in the hatting trade; that many convicts maintain themselves before conviction, and that, in the cases of

such, their productive labor in prison can not disarrange the labor market; and that it is in the interest of the whole social body that convicts should be made to reimburse by their labor the expense caused by their punishment.

The paid-up capital of the chartered banks in April was \$60,558,822; notes in circulation, \$19,864,343; total liabilities, \$106,005,581; assets, \$179,551,651.

The deposits in the Post-Office Savings-Bank show a gratifying rate of increase. By the terms of the law, no depositor is permitted to place more than \$300 in the bank in any one year, or to increase the amount of his deposits beyond \$1,000. In the year ending June 30, 1880, the total amount on deposit was \$3,945,669, the highest total of any year since the establishment of the system, and \$740,000 more than the next highest, which occurred in 1873. The amount on deposit in the fiscal year 1879 was only \$3,105,051. The number of depositors had increased from 27,445 in 1879 to 31,365 in 1880; the average amount standing to the credit of each depositor was \$125.80. The annual interest allowed is four per cent. The cost of maintaining the bank since its foundation in 1868, during which period nearly \$23,000,000 have been received on deposit, has been one half of one per cent. upon the balance in the hands of the Government.

The Superintendent of Insurance reports that there are 63 active companies, with deposits in the hands of the Receiver-General amounting to \$6,479,092. The fire-risks covered aggregate \$407,357,985, of which Canadian companies have taken \$265,799,425. The average rate of premium charged in 1879 was \$10.51 on \$1,000 of risk; the average losses paid on the same, \$5.42. Owing to competition, the percentage of the amount received for premiums paid out for losses rose from 54 per cent. in 1878 to 66 per cent. in 1879. The life-risks covered aggregated \$86,273,702, 38 per cent. in Canadian, 39 per cent. in American, and 22 per cent. in British companies. The deaths were 6.94 per thousand—a low rate. The insurance paid was \$50 on every \$100 of premium; 11 per cent. of the policies were forfeited by lapse.

In the speech from the throne, at the opening of the Legislative Assembly of British Columbia, April 5th, the Lieutenant-Governor expressed satisfaction at the commencement of the Columbia Division of the Pacific Railway, and stated that demands had been made upon the Dominion Government for the construction of the section from Esquimalt to Nanaimo, and also for a subsidy toward the completion of the Graving Dock at Victoria, but without success. He requested that measures be taken to restrict Chinese immigration.

The Parliament of the Province of Manitoba met January 2d. Lieutenant-Governor Cauchon delivered the speech from the throne. Among the measures were an act to complete municipal organization throughout the prov-

ince, an act to provide for the drainage of low lands, and a bill relating to electoral lists.

The Legislature of the Province of Quebec was opened by Governor Robitaille, May 28th. The entire line of the Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa and Occidental Railway has passed into the hands of the Provincial Government. The cost of building the Provincial Railway has consumed the consolidated railway fund and a considerable sum beyond. The liabilities incurred in this and other public works have been partly funded and converted into a loan, which has been successfully negotiated in the Paris market. This loan of \$4,000,000, bearing five per cent. interest, was disposed of at two per cent. below par. The Government brought forward several measures imposing taxes on licenses, mining privileges, the public offices, etc., the object of which was to increase the revenue without resorting to direct taxation, which is regarded with great aversion in the Canadian provinces. Steps were also taken to somewhat reduce the cost of the civil service. The new loan had increased the debt of the province to \$11,000,000, and an additional loan was yet to be raised which would make it \$15,000,000. The principal part of the large debt of Quebec, which presents a striking contrast to the handsome surplus of Ontario, is owing to the larger subsidies granted in Quebec to railways, and the expenses incurred in constructing public institutions and local improvements, which, in the other province, are borne chiefly by the municipalities. Of the cost of construction of the twenty-three railways, aided in Ontario, with a total mileage of 1,357 miles, which amounted to about \$24,000,000, the subsidies granted by the Legislature amounted to less than \$3,000,000; the municipalities aided them to the extent of \$7,000,000, and private capital furnished \$14,000,000. In Quebec, on the other hand, there were twelve roads built, with a total length of 877 miles. The total cost was about \$20,000,000, one half of which went into the Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa and Occidental Railway, now in the hands of the Government. Of the total amount, nearly half was paid by the Government, \$7,000,000 by municipalities, and only \$7,000,000 by private capitalists. A proposed means of extricating the province from its financial difficulties is to transfer the North Shore Railway to the Dominion Government.

The Ontario Legislature was prorogued on March 5th, after a two months' session. The measures passed embraced the consolidation of the superior courts of law and equity, alterations in the jurisdiction and practice of the Division Courts, the readjustment of the rights of lumberers and settlers on free-grant lands, and the abolition of priority among execution creditors. The jurisdiction of the Division Courts was extended to claims on written evidence of liability up to \$200, instead of \$100 as before, for the settlement of which judgment is given by the Court upon the written vouch-

ers, without the allowance of law costs. The game-protection law was rendered much more stringent by numerous amendments. This measure excited strong opposition in the legal profession. The law had the intended effect, transferring nearly two thirds of the cases which were formerly brought in the County Courts to the Division Court, where they are more speedily and inexpensively settled. A needed act was passed, exempting the goods of a lodger from an execution taken out by the house-owner against the lessee for rent. An act was passed with reference to the granting of bonuses by municipalities for the construction of railways, making the expressed consent of a majority of all the rate-payers necessary to secure a bonus by-law. An enactment changes the respective rights of lumberers and settlers on free-grant lands. By the former law the licensed lumberer was obliged to vacate the standing timber to the settler after five years. The new act abolishes the five years' limit, and in return the settler is allowed one third of the Crown dues paid after the issue of his patent.

The revenue of the province for the year 1879 amounted to \$2,250,269, of which \$1,333,569 came from the subsidy, etc., and \$457,340 from woods and forests and public lands. The expenditures amounted to \$2,285,282. Only a few more miles remain to be completed of the railways to which subsidies have been granted. Deducting all liabilities on account of these, and on other accounts, and the deficit for the year, there remains a surplus fund of \$4,309,027.

An Agricultural Commission was appointed, which visited the different districts of the province, and collected a large mass of valuable information upon the state of agriculture and the best approved methods of farming.

The Nova Scotia Legislature was prorogued by Lieutenant-Governor Archibald, after authorizing the Government to raise a loan of \$500,000. The estimated revenue for 1880 was \$490,240,000, and the estimated expenditure \$486,798,000. The Nova Scotia coal-mining industry suffered an increasing depression in 1879, according to the report of the Commissioner of Mines, in spite of the protective duty of 50 cents per ton. Some experimental shipments of coal were made to Montreal before the general revival of trade; but this was only possible with unusually low freight-charges, and was not repeated. The sales in 1879 were 688,824 tons, a decrease of 4,883 tons as compared with 1878. The number of men and boys employed in the mines was 3,034. The total out-put was 788,273 tons. There were 40 gold-mines in operation in the province, and 28 quartz-mills, crushing 159,346 tons of quartz. The total yield of gold during the year was 13,801 ounces, an average yield per ton of 17 pennyweights 8 grains. The average product per man employed was \$2.34 per day. In the Montague district the product reached \$6.13 per man.

Prince Edward Island advanced a claim for \$1,250,000 as its share in the fisheries award, basing it upon the relative importance of its mackerel-fisheries, and pleading that it was a separate party to the Washington Treaty, and that it did not abandon its right to a separate share by entering the Confederation. This claim was refused by the Privy Council.

Newfoundland is the only part of British North America not now under the Dominion Government. The revenue of the colony in 1879 was \$962,921, of which a surplus remained of \$14,648. The deposits in the savings-bank at the beginning of 1880 were \$1,134,505, having nearly doubled in ten years. The profits of this institution go into a reserve fund for discharging the debt of the colony. A general duty of 15 per cent. has been imposed upon imports.

DU MOTAY, CYPRIEN TESSIÉ, was born in 1815, of an old Breton family. His education was received at Nantes. His opinions were molded by the celebrated De Lamennais, who was on intimate terms with his friends in Brittany. Du Motay's academic course completed, he went to Paris and devoted himself to literature. His poems gained him admission to the *salon* of Madame Récamier. He was thrown into association with Alfred de Musset, Chateaubriand, Victor Hugo, Dumas,

and other writers of that day. Financial troubles induced him to leave Paris for Germany. His attention was turned to science, chiefly to industrial chemistry and metallurgy. He secured patents for several inventions still in use. One for bleaching and dyeing fabrics was purchased by an English manufacturer for sixty thousand francs. He returned to Paris and became consulting chemist in a large laboratory. He opposed Napoleon III and the restoration of the Empire, and was exiled. Reduced to the greatest straits, he offered a London apothecary a simple process for bleaching wax, for which he received £2,000. Enabled to resume work, he invented a method of producing light by oxygen gas. The Emperor, then established on the throne, and intent upon embellishing Paris, recalled the inventor and granted him not only amnesty but a decoration. The outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War prevented the practical inauguration of his new lights in Paris. Du Motay, under the standard of the Geneva Cross, had charge of an ambulance. After the war he settled in New York. He was the consulting engineer and chemist of the Municipal Gas Company. He suffered from a disorder superinduced by his devotion to scientific pursuits. On the 6th of June he died in that city, of apoplexy, at the age of sixty-five.

E

EARTH, THE. *Comparative Statistics.*—We present below, as in some former volumes of the "Annual Cyclopædia" (1875, 1876, 1877, 1878), comparative statistics of area and population, as well as of some other subjects:

I. AREA AND POPULATION.—Of Behm and Wagner's well-known publication, "*Die Bevölkerung der Erde*," the sixth volume was issued in 1880. This periodical has now come to be universally recognized as the great fountain from which all other statistical works are supplied, so far as relates to the area and population of all parts of the globe. In the following table we reproduce the estimates of the area of the large divisions of land as given by the learned editors, to which we add, for the sake of convenience, the equivalent in English square miles:

DIVISIONS.	Area in	
	Square kilometres.	English square miles.
Europe (without Iceland and Nova Zembla).....	9,710,840	8,749,813
Asia.....	44,572,250	17,210,055
Africa.....	29,909,444	11,548,550
America.....	38,389,210	14,822,650
Australia and Polynesia.....	8,953,727	3,457,179
Polar territories.....	4,520,400	1,745,394
Total.....	136,055,371	52,593,171

The figure now given exceeds that of the fifth volume of the "*Bevölkerung der Erde*" by 1,-

594,601 square kilometres, or 615,704 square miles. The increase is owing to the new discoveries of land which have been made in the polar regions.

The following table, giving the estimated population of the large continents, likewise reproduces the figures given by Behm and Wagner, except in the case of America, which they credit with 95,495,500 inhabitants. To this figure we have added 3,000,000, as Behm and Wagner estimate the population of the United States at only 47,000,000, whereas a preliminary statement of the census of 1880 gives more than 50,000,000:

Europe.....	318,484,000
Asia.....	834,707,000
Africa.....	205,679,000
America.....	98,495,500
Australia and Polynesia.....	4,081,000
Polar regions.....	82,000
	1,461,428,500

The estimates made by Behm and Wagner, in their former volumes, of the population of the earth,* were as follows:

Year.	Population.
1879.....	1,377,000,000
1873.....	1,391,000,000
1875.....	1,397,000,000
1876.....	1,424,000,000
1877.....	1,426,000,000
1878.....	1,439,000,000

* For an account of former estimates of the total population of the earth, beginning with Isaac Vossius, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1875, article **EARTH**.

The claim of the above population statistics to accuracy becomes better from year to year, as the number of countries which take an official census steadily increases, and the method of taking the census continues to be improved. However, the aggregate population of all the countries in which an official census is taken was in 1880 estimated at only 626,000,000, and for the majority of the total population of the earth we are still dependent on mere estimates. (See CENSUS.)

II. RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.—In most of the European countries as well as in their colonies, in which an official census is taken, the religious denomination of the inhabitants is among the inquiries which have to be made by the census-taker. There has been of late a tendency in several countries to omit the religious feature of the enumeration, but we have for nearly every country at least one census which includes the religious denomination of the inhabitants. As it can be shown that the percentage of the religious denominations in the European countries has not been materially

changed during the last fifty years, the results of one census containing the religious statistics of a country are sufficient to form an estimate of the present strength of the religious denominations, which may be accepted as nearly correct. In the United States the bishops furnish annually an estimate of the Catholic population, while nearly all the Protestant denominations publish the statistics of their actual (adult) members. For the non-Christian countries, the number of the Christian inhabitants can be ascertained with tolerable accuracy from missionary accounts. As the immense majority of the Christian population lives in countries where statistical investigations are steadily improved, we are on the whole well informed on the statistics of the Christian population of the globe. A revision of the religious statistics published in former volumes of the "Annual Cyclopædia," on the basis of the official statements above referred to, gives the following results in regard to the numerical strength of the Christian population of the globe at the close of the year 1880:

DIVISIONS.	Roman Catholics.	Protestants.	Eastern churches.	Total Christians.
America (inclusive of Greenland).....	49,780,000	45,200,000	10,000	94,980,000
Europe (inclusive of Iceland).....	154,479,500	78,875,000	71,405,000	304,759,500
Asia.....	8,829,000	2,866,000	9,402,000	21,097,000
Africa.....	2,148,000	1,092,000	8,200,000	6,440,000
Australia and Polynesia.....	702,000	2,296,000	2,998,000
Total.....	215,983,500	130,329,000	84,007,000	430,324,500

Christianity is the prevailing religion in every state of Europe, except Turkey; in every State of America, in the Australian colonies, and most of the Polynesian Islands. In Africa, the independent Christian states are Abyssinia, Liberia, Madagascar, and the Orange Free State; while Christianity also prevails in the European colonies. The largest empire in Asia—Russia—is also a Christian country. India, the third Asiatic country in point of extent and the second in point of population, is under the rule of a Christian government, and so is a large portion of Farther India.

As regards non-Christian forms of religion, the number of Jews can be ascertained with about the same degree of accuracy as that of Christians, and is now generally estimated at from 7,000,000 to 8,000,000. The number of Mohammedans is conceded to be much larger than it is represented in former estimates, and may be assumed as not falling short of 230,000,000. (See MOHAMMEDANISM.) No trustworthy statistics can be given of Buddhism, which prevails in Farther India, China, and Japan. Recent reports from Japan claim, however, nearly the entire population of that country for Buddhism. (See JAPAN.) Brahmanism is the prevailing religion in British India.

III. STATISTICS OF SEX.—According to the latest accounts, the number of females for 1,000 males was in the countries from which statistics on this subject could be obtained as follows:

COUNTRIES.	No. of females to 1,000 males.	COUNTRIES.	No. of females to 1,000 males.
Norway.....	1,060	Greenland.....	1,181
Great Britain and Ireland.....	1,058	Martinique.....	1,091
Sweden.....	1,054	Colombia.....	1,058
Switzerland.....	1,046	Guadeloupe.....	1,039
Spain.....	1,044	Chili.....	1,006
Finland.....	1,042	Salvador.....	1,000
Portugal.....	1,041	Surinam.....	988
German Empire.....	1,036	United States.....	978
Austro-Hungary.....	1,035	Peru.....	977
Denmark.....	1,032	Canada.....	976
Russia.....	1,018	Argentine Republic.....	942
Netherlands.....	1,008	Brazil.....	938
France.....	989	Uruguay.....	934
Italy.....	989	St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	841
Luxemburg.....	989	AMERICA.....	977
Belgium.....	985		
Servia.....	963	Samos.....	1,009
Roumania.....	987	Japan.....	971
Greece.....	906	British India.....	944
EUROPE.....	1,024	Siberia.....	882
Lagos.....	1,161	French East Indies.....	914
St. Helena.....	1,081	Russian Central Asia.....	909
Natal.....	1,059	Caucasus.....	898
Egypt.....	1,021	Ceylon.....	877
Cape Colony.....	973	Labuan.....	618
Gambia.....	942	Straits Settlements.....	587
Mauritius.....	684	Hong-Kong.....	875
Mayotte and Nossi Be.....	619	ASIA.....	944
Reunion.....	608		
AFRICA.....	990		
Dutch West Indies.....	1,200	Australia, New Zealand, and Tasmania.....	812
Ecuador.....	1,189		

IV. RAILROADS OF THE WORLD.*—The following table shows the aggregate length of railroads in the several large divisions of the earth in the years 1875, 1877, and 1879, the length being expressed in kilometres (1 kilometre = 0.62 English mile).

DIVISIONS.	1875.	1877.	1879.
Europe	142,689	152,954	164,801
America	135,573	146,536	153,733
Asia	12,370	13,943	15,176
Australia	2,708	4,490	6,407
Africa	2,438	2,907	4,065
Total	295,783	320,830	344,182

V. POSTAL AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.—The following table shows how many millions of letters were mailed in the principal countries during the last year of which the statistics could be obtained:

COUNTRIES.	Letters.	COUNTRIES.	Letters.
Austro-Hungry	287,100,000	United States..	956,700,000
Belgium	79,900,000	Argentine Re-	
Denmark	25,500,000	public	5,000,000
France	453,300,000	Brazil	16,200,000
Germany	627,800,000	Canada	53,700,000
Greece	2,700,000	Chili	7,000,000
Great Britain ..	1,128,000,000	Mexico	3,400,000
Italy	152,100,000	Uruguay	1,000,000
Netherlands ..	54,700,000	British India ..	115,100,000
Norway	13,300,000	Japan	30,400,000
Portugal	15,700,000	Dutch India ..	3,900,000
Roumania	7,100,000	Egypt	3,900,000
Russia	103,300,000	Algeria	6,900,000
Servia	1,300,000	Australia (in-	
Spain	78,400,000	clusive of N.	
Switzerland ..	71,700,000	Zealand and	
Turkey	2,400,000	Tasmania) ..	71,700,000

The "World's Postal Union" was established by an international postal treaty concluded at Berne, October 9, 1874, and enlarged by the Paris Treaty of June 1, 1878. It embraces at present a territory of 73,000,000 square kilometres (1 square kilometre = 0.386 square mile), with a population of 755,000,000. The following countries belong to the Union:

In *Europe*: All the countries.

In *Asia*: Asiatic Russia, Asiatic Turkey, Persia, British India, Japan, the British, French, Dutch, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies, and the British post-offices in China.

In *Africa*: Egypt, Algeria, Tripoli, Tunis, Liberia, Zanzibar, the French, Portuguese, and Spanish colonies, and a part of the British.

In *America*: The Argentine Republic, Brazil, Canada and Newfoundland, Chili, the United States of America, Greenland, Honduras, Mexico, Peru, Salvador, Venezuela, Ecuador, Uruguay, San Domingo, the Danish, French, Dutch, and Spanish colonies, and a part of the British.

In *Australia and Polynesia*: The French, Dutch, and Spanish colonies.

The rapid progress of the electric telegraph all over the world is illustrated by the following table giving the aggregate length of lines

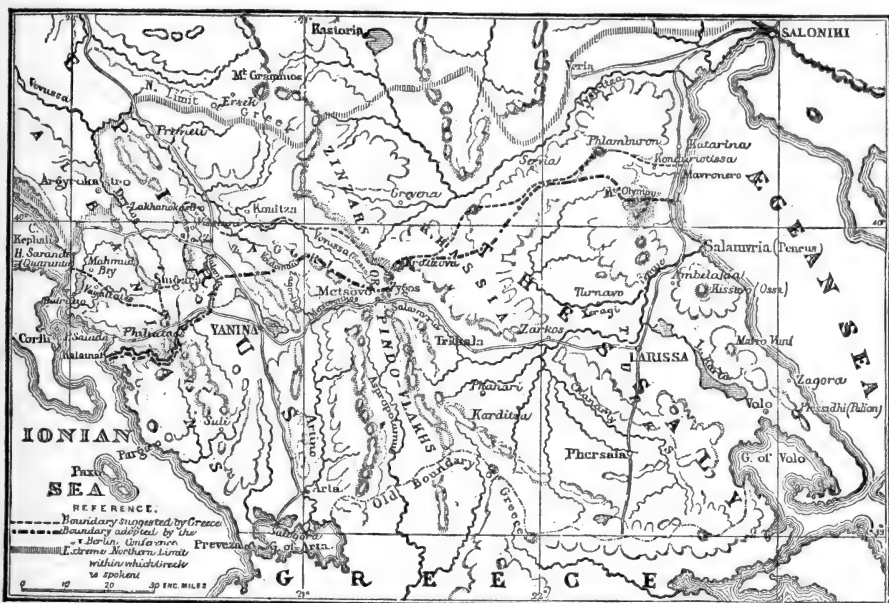
in all the important countries from which reports have been received:

COUNTRIES.	Miles.	COUNTRIES.	Miles.
Austro-Hungary...	48,932	Costa Rica	627
Belgium	5,410	Cuba	4,500
Bulgaria	2,057	Guatemala	1,867
Denmark	3,376	Honduras	1,046
France	56,500	Mexico	11,997
Germany	66,679	Paraguay	72
Greece	3,068	Porto Rico	750
Great Britain ..	14,334	Uruguay	1,033
Italy	25,538	United States ..	152,425
Netherlands ..	3,761	Venezuela	539
Norway	7,506	French Cochín-Cha	2,011
Portugal	3,711	British India ..	29,806
Roumania	5,238	Ceylon	1,803
Russia	75,082	Dutch India ..	5,654
Servia	1,461	Japan	2,934
Spain	15,498	Persia	5,432
Switzerland ..	6,552	Philippine Islands	1,149
Sweden	8,281	Egypt	7,541
Turkey	27,497	Algeria	5,585
Argentine Republic	7,757	Tunis	964
Brazil	6,942	Cape Colony ..	4,866
Canada	17,694	Orange Free State	441
Chili	7,162	Australia	41,632
Colombia	2,960		

EASTERN QUESTION, THE.* Most of the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin were successfully carried out in the course of the year 1879. The organization of Bulgaria as a semi-independent principality was completed. East Roumelia, though not as independent, likewise began its autonomous existence, with so strong a predominance of Bulgarian influence as to make the future reunion of the province with Bulgaria highly probable. Austria added the occupation of Novi Bazar to that of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which had been effected in 1878. Russia evacuated in August, as had been stipulated, Bulgaria and East Roumelia. Previously a special treaty between Russia and Turkey had made provision for the indemnity to be paid by Turkey to Russia. The British Government instructed Sir Henry Layard to make an energetic representation to the Porte on the subject of the reforms promised in the Anglo-Turkish Convention, and, when a British fleet was ordered into Turkish waters, the Turkish Government deemed it necessary to appoint Baker Pasha to a mission of inquiry in Asia. Two important provisions of the Berlin Treaty remained, however, unexecuted at the close of 1879. Neither Greece nor Montenegro had at that time obtained the territorial concessions which were promised at Berlin. The accession of a Liberal Government to office in England seemed to deprive Turkey of its only protector among the great powers of Europe, and to hasten the reorganization of the Balkan Peninsula. Lord Granville's appointment to the Foreign Office was, however, generally accepted as a pledge that the Liberal Government would be cautious and moderate. Mr. Goschen's mission to Constantinople, preceded by a visit to the capitals of some of the great powers, was the first step toward the formation of a European concert

* For detailed statistics of the railroads of each country, and of the increase since 1830, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878, p. 251.

* Continuing the article in "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878, p. 252.



for the execution of the unperformed parts of the Treaty of Berlin, which Lord Granville's circular on assuming office had indicated as the immediate object to be aimed at by the friends of international peace. Two main questions were to be settled. The Porte had not given effect to any of the numerous compromises suggested for solving the Montenegrin frontier difficulty, on the pretense that the opposition of the Albanians made it impossible to execute the transfer of territory acknowledged in principle to be a part of the settlement imposed by the treaty; and had all along refused to accept as binding the recommendation of the protocol adopted at Berlin, that a large part of Thessaly and Epirus should be ceded to Greece. Both questions were taken in hand by the powers shortly after the change of ministry in England. On June 12th the representatives of the great powers at Constantinople handed to the Porte the following identical note, which bears date of June 11th:

M. LE MINISTRE: The delay which has occurred in the execution of certain of the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin has led to an interchange of views between the signatory powers. The result of this step has been the recognition on their part that it is an object of European interest that an end should be put to this delay, and the conclusion that the union of their efforts would be the surest means of securing the objects aimed at by the act of the 13th of July, 1878.

Convinced of this twofold necessity, and in complete agreement with the Cabinets of Berlin, Vienna, Paris, Rome, and St. Petersburg, her Majesty's Government have instructed me to acquaint your Excellency with the point of view from which they look at the various questions raised by the non-execution of certain clauses of the Treaty of Berlin.

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As regards the rectification of the Turco-Greek boundary, the Porte has for some time had before it a proposal made by the Marquis of Salisbury, which had received the assent of the other powers, that an international commission should proceed to the frontier provinces to determine this rectification.

Although the Government of the Sultan have pointed out the difficulty which might be encountered by such a commission in the execution of the arrangement to which they were asked to agree, they have not yet given a definite reply. The mediating powers have consequently found themselves under the necessity of treating this silence as a refusal, and they have been obliged, as the next step, to consider the means by which the solution of the Greco-Turkish frontier question—a solution which the powers had in vain tried to arrive at in concert with the Sublime Porte, and which the interests both of Turkey and of Greece require—might now be secured as speedily as possible.

They have accordingly decided that their representatives at the court of his Imperial Majesty the German Emperor should meet in conference at Berlin on the 16th inst., in order to decide by a majority of votes, and with the assistance of officers possessed of the necessary technical knowledge, the line of frontier it will be best to adopt.

They have likewise agreed that, when a decision shall have been come to by the conference, a commission may proceed to the frontier to settle the questions of detail arising out of the general plan.

The state of things created in another quarter by the question of the Montenegrin frontier requires, in the opinion of the powers, more pressing attention and an immediate solution.

The Turkish authorities have failed to carry out the engagement entered into between the Porte and Montenegro, and adhered to by the representatives of the powers in the protocol of the 18th of April, 1880. They have compromised the agreement accepted by his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, by allowing the Albanians to occupy certain frontier positions assigned to the Montenegrins, and a collision may at any time occur between the Montenegrins and the Albanian forces opposed to them.

The powers, therefore, consider themselves abso-

lutely bound to request the Government of his Imperial Majesty to state in the most explicit terms what their intentions are as regards the Montenegrin frontier, and to put into immediate execution the arrangement come to between the Sublime Porte and Montenegro. The powers hold the Sublime Porte responsible in advance for the grave consequences that might be produced by a further delay in giving satisfaction to the rights acquired by the principality.

In conclusion, the attention of the powers has been drawn to a third point.

By the sixty-first article of the Treaty of Berlin of the 13th of July, 1878, the Sublime Porte undertook to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and administrative reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the attacks and the violence of the Circassians and Kurds, and periodically to make known the steps taken to this effect to the powers, who are to superintend their application.

So far as her Majesty's Government are aware, nothing has been done by the Sublime Porte to make known the steps which it may have taken in order to meet the stipulations of Article LXI of the Treaty of Berlin; nor have any measures been adopted by the Porte for the superintendence to be exercised by the powers.

All the reports furnished by the agents of the powers show that the state of these provinces is deplorable, and her Majesty's Government can not admit that the clauses of the Treaty of Berlin relating to the amelioration of this state of things should remain any longer a dead letter. They are convinced that only united and incessant pressure on their part will induce the Sublime Porte to fulfill its duties in this respect. Her Majesty's Government, therefore, as one of the signatory powers of the Treaty of Berlin, must demand the complete and immediate execution of Article LXI of that treaty, and call upon the Government of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan to state explicitly what the steps are which they have taken in order to fulfill the provisions of this article.

In bringing these views to the knowledge of your Excellency, I consider it my duty to call your most serious attention to the grave responsibility the Porte would incur by any fresh delay in the execution of the measures which the powers agree in considering to be essential to the interests of the Ottoman Empire and of Europe.

I have, etc., G. J. GOSCHEN.

The conference, as indicated in the preceding note, met at Berlin, on June 16th, under the presidency of Prince Hohenlohe, the Prussian plenipotentiary. The other members of the conference were Count Szechenyi, ambassador of Austro-Hungary; M. de St. Vallier, ambassador of France; M. de Saburoff, ambassador of Russia; Lord Odo Russell, ambassador of England; Count de Launay, ambassador of Italy. The work of suggesting to the plenipotentiaries a new frontier between Greece and Turkey, in accordance with the general geographical idea thrown out in the thirteenth protocol of the Berlin Congress, was intrusted to a so-called "Technical Commission." Colonel Blume, previously of the German general staff and War Office, and at the time commanding the Thirty-sixth Brandenburg Fusiliers, was unanimously elected president, a post which was also conferred upon him by the Technical Commission which sat in Berlin during the Congress. The conference had its last sitting on July 2d, in which a collective note which had been drafted by the French

ambassador was unanimously adopted. The text of the note is as follows:

The undersigned, ambassadors or ministers accredited to the courts of his Majesty the Sultan of Turkey and of his Majesty the King of the Hellenes, have the honor, in accordance with the wishes of their respective Governments, to submit to the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the Sublime Porte and of Greece the following note: The Congress of Berlin having indicated in its thirteenth protocol the principal points of the frontier line which it deemed necessary to establish between Turkey and Greece, the powers have, in the first place, called attention to the direct negotiations on this subject between the two states. At the two sittings of the conferences at Prevesa and Constantinople, the Turkish and Greek commissioners, after several long *pourparlers* had taken place, only succeeded in making more apparent the differences between them. In view of these unfruitful attempts at a solution of the question, the Powers named by the Treaty of Berlin have considered it necessary to interpose their mediation. This mediation, in order to be effectual, it was necessary to exercise in all its fullness, and the Cabinets, in view of the reciprocal dispositions of the two interested states, have authorized their representatives assembled in conference in Berlin to fix, according to the general indications of the thirteenth protocol, a line which would form a good and solid boundary between Turkey and Greece. The plenipotentiaries, after a most searching discussion, in which they were aided by the advice of the Technical Commissioners appointed by the various Governments, have unanimously voted, according to the terms of their mandate, the following tracing of the frontier line, which resumes and closes their deliberations: As the *pourparlers* between Turkey and Greece did not lead to any result, the undersigned plenipotentiaries of the powers appointed by the provisions of the act of July 13, 1878, to exercise a mediation between the two countries, have assembled in Berlin, in conformity with the instructions of their Governments, and after a long and earnest deliberation, inspired by the spirit of the thirteenth protocol of the Treaty of Berlin, have adopted unanimously the following line of demarkation: The frontier line will follow the valley of the Kalamas from the mouth of that river, in the Ionian Sea, to its source in the neighborhood of Kalbaki. It will proceed to the north of the Vonitza, the Haliaemon, and the Mayroneri and their tributaries, and to the south of the Kalamas, the Larta, the Aspropotamos, and the Salamyrias and their tributaries, over the Olympus, the crest of which it will follow as far as its eastern extremity on the *Ægean Sea*. This line leaves to the south the Lake of Janina and all its affluents, and also Metzovo, which thus remains in the possession of Greece. The Governments of Germany, Austria, Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia, therefore invite the Governments of the Sultan and of the King of the Hellenes to accept the frontier line as indicated in the above document. The mediating powers thus assembled in conference have acted in strict conformity to the terms of the Treaty of Berlin and of the thirteenth protocol of the conference.

(Here follow the signatures.)

The territory which, according to this collective note, is to be ceded to Greece, has an area of 8,500 square miles, with about 535,000 inhabitants. This would be an important accession for a kingdom whose present extent does not exceed 20,000 square miles. Of these 535,000 inhabitants about 470,000, or 88 per cent., are Greek Christians, 60,000 are Mohammedans, and 4,000 Jews. But few of the inhabitants are unable to speak Greek. The Berlin Congress of 1878 had vaguely indicated the rivers Kalamas and Salamvria (Peneus), the

one tributary to the Ionian, the other to the Ægean Sea, as forming a suitable base for direct negotiations between the two powers principally concerned. But while Turkey objected to yielding anything except a small slice of territory on the Gulf of Volo, Greece, encouraged by France, not only claimed the whole of the basins drained by the two rivers referred to in the Berlin Treaty, but also several districts lying to the north of those basins. The boundary suggested by Greece in December, 1879, embraced a territory of 9,400 square miles, with a population of 650,000 souls. It will be seen that Greece claimed about 900 square miles, with 115,000 inhabitants, more than the Berlin conference was found willing to concede. Greece, however, is to be put in possession of Janina, which lies within the basin of the Kalamas. Its lake, draining into that river through underground channels, has been allotted to Greece, but not the main road which connects the capital of Epirus with the coast opposite Corfu. The district of the Zagory, on the upper Vovussa or Viossa, which has been, since 1850, in the enjoyment of autonomous institutions, is cut in twain by the new boundary. In Thessaly, on the other hand, Greece has obtained nearly all she demanded, and the valley of Tempe and the lofty ranges of Olympus are to lie within the territory of the Hellenes. According to nationality, there live in the territory to be ceded to Greece, in accordance with the Berlin conference, about 366,000 Greeks, 80,000 Zinzars, 50,000 Albanians, 45,000 Turks, and 4,000 Jews. In Thessaly the fertile plains extending between Larissa, Pharsala, and Volo are almost wholly in the occupation of Turkish agriculturists. The ranges of the Pindus, which separate Thessaly from Epirus, are inhabited by Zinzars, Kutzo, or Pindo-Wallachians, a Latin race akin to the Roumanians, and, like them, supposed to be the descendants of Roman legionaries. These Zinzars are a thrifty people, who readily amalgamate with the Greeks. In Epirus, though the Greeks are in a majority, there exists a strong Albanian element. The Mohammedan Albanians, not exceeding 15,000 in number, seem to be averse to be severed from their countrymen in the north; but not so the Christian Albanians. None fought more vigorously for Greek independence than the Albanian Suliotes. Greek is universally understood throughout Epirus.

The Berlin conference, by directing Turkey to cede the disputed districts to Greece, hoped to avoid the outbreak of another apparently impending war between the nationalities of the Balkan Peninsula. The Turkish Government contested, however, the validity of this mandate, and was resolute in its resistance. As the powers were unable to agree upon an enforcement of the award of the conference, the frontier question remained undecided at the close of the year 1880. (See GREECE and TURKEY.)

In the mean while the powers had dealt more peremptorily with the Montenegrin question. Separate attempts to bend the Sultan's will having failed, a collective note was presented, which was met with dilatory pleas. Ultimately the powers decided upon insisting that the town and district of Dulcigno should be peacefully surrendered to Montenegro by a fixed date, and, when Turkey still held back, a conjoint squadron, under the English admiral, Sir Beauchamp Seymour, assembled at Ragusa. As the admirals of the squadrons were, however, not empowered to give active aid to the Montenegrins, the Porte, on October 4th, issued a defiant note, but when England proposed to send the squadron to Smyrna with a view to putting pressure upon the Sultan by the sequestration of the customs revenue, the menace sufficed to bring the Turks to a sudden submission, and only four days after the issue of the defiant note, it was announced that the Porte would unconditionally surrender Dulcigno. Again new difficulties were raised by the Turks, when they found out that the powers would not have proceeded to coercion, but at length Dervish Pasha handed Dulcigno over to the Montenegrins. (See MONTENEGRO and TURKEY.)

EASTERN ROUMELIA, an autonomous province of Turkey, created in 1878 by the Treaty of Berlin; area, 35,387 square kilometres; population in 1880, 815,513, of whom 573,231 are Bulgarians, 174,759 Turks, 42,516 Greeks, 19,524 gypsies, 4,177 Jews, and 1,306 Armenians. According to an estimate made by the Servian statistician Jakshitch, about three fifths of the population are Christians. The Governor General is Prince Alexander Vgorides (Aleko Pasha), appointed May 18, 1879, installed in office May 30, 1879.

According to the Constitution of 1879, drawn up by a national convention, and consisting of fifteen chapters, with 495 articles, the legislative power is in the hands of a single Chamber, called the Provincial Assembly. It is partly official, partly elective, and partly nominated by the Governor. The official members are the chief judicial and ecclesiastical dignitaries, to the number of nine; the elective members numbering thirty-six, and the nominated ten. Half of the elected members vacate their seats every two years. The electoral body consists of all men of Roumelian nationality who are of full age and of a certain property qualification, either individually or through their parents. The minimum age of candidates for election is twenty-five, but otherwise their qualification is the same as that of electors, public functionaries being excluded. The Assembly meets annually on the second Monday in October, at the capital. During the administration of Eastern Roumelia by the Russians, till the end of March, 1879, a reserve of 12,000,000 lei, or \$2,328,000, was formed and handed over to the new Government, to be expended in the execution of public

works. It is estimated that the public revenue in future years will amount to 22,606,000 lei, or \$4,384,000 per annum, and the expenditure to 21,000,000 lei, or \$4,074,000, leaving an annual surplus of 1,606,000 lei, or \$310,000.

Eastern Roumelia was created by the Treaty of Berlin, signed June 13, 1878. It was ordered that the province to be formed south of the Balkans should remain under the direct authority of the Sultan, but should have a Christian governor-general. It was further ordered that no irregular troops should be used in the defense of the province, while internal order was to be maintained by native troops. According to the Constitution of 1879, the legislative power is in the hands of a single Chamber, called the Provincial Assembly. It is partly official, partly elective, and partly nominated by the Governor. The official members are the principal judicial and ecclesiastical dignitaries, nine in all; the elective members number thirty-six, while ten are nominated by the Governor. The Assembly meets annually.

The agitation for a union of the province with Bulgaria grew in importance in 1880. The gymnastic societies, which had been organized during the Russian occupation, were the principal promoters of this movement, and in their ardor committed some great excesses on the Mohammedan population. As early as September, 1879, the International Commission had advised their dissolution, and Aleko Pasha, before his journey to Constantinople in November, 1879, issued an order to that effect. But the societies continued to exist, new outrages were perpetrated, and the Pan-Bulgarian movement increased daily in importance. In consequence of the new complications of the Porte in the Greek and Albanian question, in the spring of the year, the movement began to assume formidable proportions. A tax was openly collected from the inhabitants, Russia sent money and arms, and Bulgaria loaned forty thousand imperials. The gymnastic societies drilled their members in the use of arms without any attempt at concealment, and large numbers of armed men gathered at Aidos, in the north of the Balkan Mountains, for the pretended object of suppressing the Circassian robbers. On May 29th the East Roumelian and Bulgarian leaders of the movement had a secret conference at Slivno, at which it was even proposed to thank Aleko Pasha for his Bulgarian sentiments, to request him to leave Philippopolis, and to call upon Prince Alexander of Bulgaria to take possession of Eastern Roumelia. It was resolved to organize a "Union Committee for Southern Bulgaria," and to prepare a rising of the Bulgarians in Macedonia. At a public meeting held in Philippopolis in August, a Macedonian aid society was organized, ostensibly to collect money to build Bulgarian schools in Macedonia, but in reality to prepare everything for the rising in Macedonia, for which Bulgaria was to furnish the arms and ammunition, and Eastern Rou-

melia the money. Aleko Pasha did nothing to check these movements, and, feeling his impotency in the matter, asked to be relieved from his post. His petition, however, was not granted.

The Legislative and Executive bodies in East Roumelia have been engaged chiefly in maturing measures for the material organization and development of the province. The people have been disturbed considerably by the agitation for union with Bulgaria which was industriously promoted by the gymnastic societies and political emissaries, and by jealousies between Bulgarians and Greeks and Turks, which provoked frequent conflicts and an insurrection of the Turkish population in the Kirdjeli district. Much suffering prevailed during the winter on account of the scarcity of provisions, and attracted the continued sympathy and activity of foreign committees for relief.

An antagonism arose in the Provincial Assembly at the beginning of January against the Governor-General, Aleko Pasha, because he had refused to sanction certain measures which had been voted for reducing the expenditures of the Government. Aleko Pasha threatening to resign, the difficulty was arranged by a compromise. Orders were issued by the Governor-General a few days afterward for the partial demobilization of the militia, the greater part of which had hitherto been on a war footing. The measure was intended to secure economy, and at the same time to consolidate the military organization of the province.

The Provincial Assembly met in extraordinary session March 21st, and was opened by the Governor-General, Aleko Pasha, with a speech, in which he invited the deputies to give careful consideration to the provisions of the budget, to the projected railway line, to the press law, and to the proposal for the establishment of an agricultural bank. The House elected M. Ouechoff President, and M. Stransly and M. Groneff Vice-Presidents. An income-tax law was passed, declaring that every native of the province—excepting the clergy, teachers, soldiers, policemen, paupers, and widows who had lost their husbands during the war—should contribute to the revenue according to a fixed scale. Besides the classes of persons mentioned above, churches, mosques, schools, orphanages, and charitable institutions were also exempted from taxation. Foreigners were required to pay on income accruing from real estate, the annual yield of the same being estimated at six per cent. on the market value of the land. Due provision was made for the assessment of income in each commune, and a double appeal was allowed against an unjust assessment. The tax was made payable in monthly installments of one twelfth, and each commune was permitted to retain three per cent. on the amount collected as its commission. The tax-payers were divided into twelve classes, of which the first class includes

persons whose incomes are less than \$31 per annum, who will pay a tax of \$0.93 each, and the twelfth class includes those who receive more than \$1,215, who will be assessed at the rate of one and a half per cent. The intermediate classes will be assessed at fixed rates. A vote of censure was passed against M. Schmidt, Director-General of the Finances, in consequence of which he resigned his office. M. Strankya, a Bulgarian, was appointed to succeed him. Among the recommendations which the Governor-General made to the Assembly was one for a vote of a loan of \$14,500,000 for the construction of a railway from Bourgas to Philippopolis and Yamboli. The proposition was not acceptable to the Porte, for the reason that the existence of such a line would make it easier for Russian troops to enter the province; and a question was suggested as to the right of the East Roumelians to construct railways without special permission.

A number of the items of the budget as laid before the Assembly were objected to by the Turkish Grand Vizier, on the ground that the Governor-General had included in the revenue statement a sum of 4,000,000 piasters (one piaster=four cents), resulting from the sale of landed property, crops, and effects belonging to Mussulman refugees, and that he had allotted a subsidy of 1,000,000 piasters to the Bulgarian schools, while nothing was granted to the Turkish schools. The Grand Vizier further objected to the sum for the relief of the poor in Eastern Roumelia being fixed without any mention being made of the proportion in which the Mussulman refugees should participate in its distribution; and he opposed the insertion in the budget of a clause respecting the posts and telegraphs of the province, on the ground that those works belonged to the Turkish Empire.

The Provincial Assembly was again opened October 25th, with a speech by the Governor-General, who, after announcing that several bills would shortly be submitted, said that the present peaceful condition of the country was the best pledge of a happy future in store for the province. About thirty projects of law were presented before the 1st of December, some of which had been submitted to preliminary discussion. The most important of these bills related to four classes of subjects, viz.: 1. Improvement of the law courts and of the municipal and rural police; 2. Land-law reform, including the secularization of ecclesiastical property; 3. Changes in the system of taxation; 4. Public instruction.

The Eastern Roumelian Commission held its first sitting in Constantinople, June 17th, and constituted its bureau, electing four secretaries of Turkish, Russian, English, and French nationalities. Petitions were presented to the commission from Greeks asking that the nationalities of the border towns be respected as far as practicable in determining boundaries. At the end of July the commission had adopt-

ed financial provisions determining that the revenue from all the provincial taxes should be paid into the branch offices of the Imperial Ottoman Bank. It further decided that all the costs of local administration—including the expenditure for the gendarmerie and police—should be a first charge upon the revenue, after deducting which, the revenue, exclusive of the indirect taxes on salt, tobacco, silk, fisheries, and spirits, and the customs duties, should be divided into two parts, of which 15 per cent. should be devoted to public works and education in the province, and the remaining 85 per cent. should be sent to Constantinople. The General Assemblies of the vilayets were given control over the budgets. By the middle of August the commission had virtually completed the project of reform for those parts of European Turkey which are not included in the principality of Bulgaria or East Roumelia, and had still to consider the means of applying the reforms.

A disturbance took place between Bulgarians and Greeks at Philippopolis on the 6th of January, when the Bulgarian militia forcibly seized the church of St. Petka, belonging to the Greek community, on the ground that it had formerly been wrested from the Bulgarians by the Greeks. The Governor-General took possession of the keys, but the church was on the next day returned to the Greeks, pending the investigation of the question of title. A party of Greeks, rejoicing over the restoration of the church, and some Bulgarians became engaged, in the afternoon, in a slight riot, which was promptly quelled.

An insurrection of Mussulmans broke out in the latter part of February in the district of Kirdjeli, where the insurgent bands gained a strength of three thousand men. The Governor-General consulted with Reouf Pasha, Governor of Adrianople, concerning measures to put down the rising, and two battalions of infantry, a squadron of cavalry, and a detachment of local militia were sent against the insurgents. Four Mussulman villages were burned by order of a Russian officer of the militia, and a number of Mussulman families were compelled to emigrate from the province in consequence of the rudenesses to which they were subjected. The proceedings of General Strecker, the commander of the militia, were not satisfactory to the Governor-General, and he addressed a report concerning them to the Turkish Government. A commission, consisting of four Bulgarians, Colonel Borthwick, the commandant of the gendarmerie, and three Turks, was dispatched into the disturbed district early in April, to investigate the complaints of the Mussulmans and examine into the losses which they had sustained. The report of the commission was presented in June, and, in consequence of the conclusions embodied in it, three officers of the Bulgarian militia, two of whom were Russians, were dismissed from the service of the province, and a num-

ber of other persons who were implicated in offenses were remanded to the local tribunals for trial.

ECUADOR (REPÚBLICA DEL ECUADOR). For comparative statements of area and population, and for territorial division, reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1873 and 1878.

The President of the Republic is General Ignacio de Veintemilla, inaugurated in December, 1876.* The first Designado was Señor L. Salvador; and the second Designado, Señor J. Novoa. The offices of these Designados correspond respectively to those of first and second Vice-Presidents, and were created by the Convention of Ambato in 1878.

The Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Interior and Foreign Affairs, General C. Bernaza; Finance, Doctor Martin Icaza; and War and Marine, Colonel C. F. Boloña.

The Governor of Guayaquil was General J. Sanchez Rubio.

The armed land-force of the country is returned at 1,200 rank and file, and the navy consists of three small steamers.

In the absence of official reports, little is known of the real condition of the national finances. The revenue in 1876 amounted to 2,317,000 pesos,† and the expenditure was set down at 3,360,000 pesos; thus leaving a deficit of 1,043,000 pesos!

The average yield of the custom-house of Guayaquil—the chief port of entry—in the years 1870 to 1876 was about 1,450,000 pesos, or considerably over one half of the entire revenue of the republic for the last year of the septennial period mentioned. The receipts at that port in 1879 may be estimated at about 1,800,000 pesos, assuming 25 per cent. as the average rate of duty on imports of all classes.

The national debt of Ecuador was reported, on January 1, 1877, at 22,938,000 pesos, of which 10,150,000 represented the home debt, the remainder being the proceeds of a loan contracted for in England in 1855. Interesting particulars concerning this debt have been recorded in our volumes for 1874 and 1875.

The exports (exclusive of precious metals) and imports through the port of Guayaquil in 1879 were of the approximate values of 7,500,000 and 8,684,330 pesos respectively. Chief among the articles exported were cacao, 31,534,137 pounds, of the value of 6,937,510 pesos; Peruvian bark, of the value of 691,891 pesos; ivory-nuts (*tagua*), 573,675 pesos; India-rubber, 145,344 pesos; *jipijapa* (or the so-called Panama) hats, coffee, skins, etc. The precious metals shipped were of the value of 693,598 pesos.

The year 1879 was one of unusual prosperity for the province of Guayas, of which Guayaquil is the capital. The cacao-crop was par-

ticularly abundant, having reached 51,965,819 lbs., against 10,330,900 lbs. for the year previous. The crop of 1879 was of the value of 7,000,000 pesos. Large shipments of Ivory-nuts were also made, of the aggregate value of some 1,000,000 pesos. The province named produces also large quantities of woods, sugarcane, rubber, and hides. Straw hats are extensively exported. Fruits constitute an important article of commerce with Peru, while many other articles of the production of the country bring up the value of the miscellaneous exports of Guayaquil to over 1,000,000 pesos. Taking into consideration the exports of hats, cacao, India-rubber, tobacco, etc., etc., from Manta, Bahia, and Esmeraldas, products of the province of Guayas alone, the value of the exports to the different markets of the world was over 10,000,000 pesos—a splendid reward certainly for the labors of a district containing only 180,000 inhabitants. In addition to this, Peruvian bark, almost the sole product shipped from the interior, increased the value of exports from the port of Guayaquil alone by at least 1,500,000 pesos.

The import trade of Guayaquil increased considerably during the year 1879 by the war between the three more southerly republics of the continent, in which that port has been used as a sort of intermediary between Peru and Chili, more particularly during the brief period in which the commercial interdiction between those two republics continued. This trade was formerly done directly, and since the late decree of President Piérola has returned to its accustomed channels.

The shipping movements at the port of Guayaquil for 1879 were as follows: Entered, 226 vessels (of which 115 were steamers), of an aggregate tonnage of 215,831; cleared, 221 vessels (including 115 steamers), with a total of 216,056 tons. The Yaguachi Railway is reported as being completed.

The following decree was issued by the Municipal Council of Guayaquil under date, November 18, 1879:

ARTICLE I. Craft loaded with any class of merchandise which may arrive at the port of Guayaquil will pay duty in accordance with the following tariff: Small canoes, twenty-five cents; covered canoes, fifty cents; large canoes, two pesos; boats, fifty cents; launches, two pesos; rafts, one peso; small rafts, fifty cents; small sloops, one peso; sloops, two pesos; launches discharging cargo from ships or steamers (each voyage), two pesos; small river-steamers (each voyage), two pesos; medium river-steamers, two pesos; large river-steamers, four pesos. Sailing-vessels or steamers not exceeding one hundred tons register, three cents per ton; from one to five hundred tons, two cents per ton; of larger tonnage, one and one half cent per ton.

ART. II. Craft which are loaded only with provisions for general consumption, or goods from the province of Guayaquil, are excepted from the foregoing duty.

ART. III. The present order will come in force from the 1st day of January, 1880.

It would be particularly gratifying to record the progress of the country in political and

* Declared Dictator for an unlimited period in 1878. (See "Annual Cyclopædia" for that year, p. 260.)

† The Ecuadorian peso is at present equivalent to about 77 cents of United States money.

educational matters, as well as in its commerce. For several years Ecuador has been under military rule, and has passed through various revolutions, with successive changes of rulers, each more despotic than his predecessor. The popular vote has rarely been consulted, and the country "is as much tyrannized over as is Turkey or Russia, although it has nominally a President who assumes to be a constitutional chief magistrate." The principal activity displayed by the military ruler of Ecuador appears to have been in improving as much as possible his own personal interests and those of his friends, while the only reward of merit, when opposed to his principles, has been either imprisonment or exile.

"Although the Treasury," writes a journalist, "is said to be in a flourishing condition—something after the style of the Costa Rica Treasury, which is always overflowing, according to official accounts—yet colleges and schools are closing up because the teachers are unpaid. The college of San Vicente and the Schools of Law and Medicine are in a condition of complete misery, and sustained only by the voluntary efforts of the professors, many of whom are poor men. The School of Medicine, in which there are thirteen classes, subsists on the pitiable sum of 120 pesos; one professor, whose duties are divided between lectures and the hospital, receiving but 12 pesos per month. The Government, it is said, is a debtor to the college in a large amount, which if paid would place it in a condition to maintain its service efficiently, and to the immense advantage of the community." A Guayaquil newspaper published, under date of January 24, 1880, a severe arraignment of the Government on this account: "And as the Government appears to be composed of Veintemilla and his tools, who are more interested in becoming rich and great themselves than in dividing the blessings of Providence with the people, the evils complained of are likely to continue until the hand of destiny scatters to the winds the contemptible faction that ruthlessly assails private rights, fosters corrupt influences, muzzles the press, disregards the claims of education, and does its best to make the country a by-word among nations."

EDMUNDS, GEORGE F., an American statesman, was born in Richmond, Vermont, February 1, 1828. His father was a New England farmer, of the strictest Puritanical habits; his mother was of Quaker descent. He received a public-school education and the instruction of a private tutor, and early developed a fondness for study and intellectual effort. Possessing a natural aptitude for law, he pursued his legal studies with unusual assiduity and success. In 1849, at the age of twenty-one, he was admitted to the bar. He studied law in Burlington, but returned to his native town, to begin practice in the office of his future brother-in-law, A. B. Maynard. In 1851 he removed to Burlington, and was soon in the full tide of success at the bar. He was distinguished even as a boy

for maturity of mind, as well as for readiness of wit, and his strong intellectual qualities, joined to a great capacity for the acquisition of legal knowledge, early gave him a foremost place among the lawyers of his State. In August, 1852, he was married to Miss Susan Marsh Lyman, daughter of Hon. Wyllis Lyman, of Burlington, Vermont, a lawyer of considerable repute. At the end of five years of exclusive devotion to his profession, Mr. Edmunds was induced to enter the political arena, but he has never sought political honors. He was a member of the State Legislature of Vermont in 1854-'55, '57, '58, and '59, serving three years as Speaker; was a member of the State Senate, and its presiding officer, *pro tempore*, in 1861-'62. He was appointed to the United States Senate as a Republican, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Solomon Foot, and took his seat April 5, 1866, and was elected by the Legislature for the remainder of the term ending March 4, 1869. He has been thrice re-elected to the Senate, and his term of service will expire March 4, 1887. He was one of the members of the Electoral Commission of 1877. As a member of the State Legislature he was distinguished for his accurate knowledge of all business that came before it; and it was said of him then, as it is said of him now, that no measure could possibly get passed into the form of law without his scrutiny. As chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the United States Senate, in which position he succeeded Lyman Trumbull, of Illinois, he has had the shaping of many of the most important measures that have ever been passed by the American Congress. In the long contest with President Andrew Johnson, Senator Edmunds was an indefatigable worker, and in all the legislation of reconstruction and the enforcement of the Constitution he has acted an influential part, often adopting a more moderate and conservative course than many of his party associates. The initiation and passage of the Electoral Commission Bill and the Pacific Railroad Funding Act are largely due to his influence and exertions. He is not an eloquent but a very fluent speaker, with much readiness of repartee, and skill in the art of extemporaneous argument. He is master of a strong and incisive English style, and never varies his voice above a certain pitch, but talks with a calm, self-contained, conversational manner which compels attention. He is especially noted for the keen sarcasm and drastic humor with which he meets his opponents in debate, yet the keen contention in which he habitually indulges never goes far enough to cause a break in his personal relations with any other Senator. The most remarkable trait in his character is his freedom from all enmities and personal piques. His distinguishing characteristics as a legislator are his clearness of perception and quickness to detect any flaw or imperfection in a measure before the Senate, and his unswerving hostility to anything like irregularity in its proceedings.

EGYPT, a tributary of Turkey in North-eastern Africa. The ruler of Egypt, who has the title of Khedive, is Mohammed Tefvik, born in 1852, the eldest son of Ismail Pasha, who resigned June 26, 1879. The eldest son of the Khedive is Prince Abbas Bey, born July 14, 1874.

The area of the entire Egyptian territory is estimated at 2,987,000 square kilometres, with 17,400,000 inhabitants. Egypt proper has about 1,021,354 square kilometres, with a population of 5,517,627. The number of foreigners, in 1878, was 68,653, of whom 29,963 were Greeks, 14,524 Italians, 14,310 French, 3,795 English, 2,480 Austrians, 1,003 Spaniards, 879 Germans, 752 Persians, 358 Russians, 139 Americans, 127 Belgians, 119 Netherlands, and 204 others.

The movement of population is shown by the following table:

YEAR.	Births.	Deaths.	Surplus of births.
1876.....	186,637	132,088	54,679
1877.....	173,529	138,688	34,861
1846-1877..	4,685,983	3,631,605	1,054,383

The total value of Egyptian commerce was estimated, in 1855, at 275,000,000 of Egyptian piasters (one piaster = four cents); in 1870, at 1,028,000,000; in 1875, at 1,333,000,000; in 1877, at 1,275,000,000; in 1879, at 1,344,000,000.

The value of the principal articles of import and export in 1879 (in piasters) was as follows:

ARTICLES.	Imports.	Exports.
Grain.....	147,600,000
Beans.....	76,231,000
Cotton-seed.....	131,686,000
Sugar.....	16,585,000	67,569,000
Liquors.....	15,982,000
Articles of food.....	13,360,000
Coal.....	56,718,000
Iron.....	5,112,000
Hides.....	11,028,000
Ostrich-feathers.....	10,014,000
Spinning material.....	516,637,000
Wood and ivory.....	11,329,000	774,000
Yarns.....	11,371,000
Woven goods.....	165,556,000
Shoes and boots.....	8,757,000
Rugs.....	4,172,000
Drugs.....	23,456,000
Fats, oils, etc.....	23,170,000	22,245,000

The aggregate length of the railroads was, at the end of the year 1879, 1,494 kilometres. The number of post-offices was 83, the number of letters mailed 3,900,000; the aggregate length of the telegraph lines was 8,569 kilometres.

The Suez Canal extends from Port Said to Suez. Its total length is one hundred and sixty kilometres, or ninety-seven miles. Its width varies from fifty-eight to one hundred metres, and its depth is eight metres. The total cost for building and opening the canal, inclusive of repairs, etc., amounted at the close of 1878 to 479,175,683 francs. The buildings and property of the company were estimated in 1874 at 21,795,545 francs.

The state of the capital account was as follows at the close of 1879:

	Francs.
400,000 shares, of 500 francs each.....	200,000,000
833,833 obligations, of 500 francs each, bearing interest at 5 per cent.....	166,666,500
200,000 "bons trentenaires," issued at 100 francs each, bearing interest at 8 per cent, and redeemable at 125 francs each.....	25,000,000
Less 80,000 still unissued.....	10,000,000
	15,000,000
400,000 "bons de coupons," or bonds of 85 francs each, bearing 5 per cent. interest, issued for the consolidation of unpaid coupons on shares.....	84,000,000

The year 1872 was the first to show a surplus, which amounted to 2,071,279 francs. In 1879 the total receipts amounted to 30,949,148 francs, and the expenditures to 28,059,800 francs. The dividend paid to the shareholders, after placing five per cent. to the sinking fund, according to the statutes, amounted to four francs eighty-seven centimes in 1879.

The movement of shipping in the canal was as follows from 1874 to 1879:

YEAR.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1874.....	1,264	2,428,672
1875.....	1,494	2,940,708
1876.....	1,457	3,072,107
1877.....	1,668	3,418,949
1878.....	1,598	3,291,535
1879.....	1,477	3,236,922

In 1879 the number of vessels belonging to each nationality, and their tonnage, were as follows:

NATIONALITY.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British.....	1,144	2,508,524
French.....	93	262,013
Dutch.....	61	159,025
Italian.....	51	84,162
Austrian.....	40	71,400
Spanish.....	25	64,468
German.....	16	21,548
Turkish.....	17	18,781
Norwegian and Swedish.....	6	9,185
Russian.....	7	8,780
Danish.....	5	7,730
Portuguese.....	6	7,166
Others.....	6	9,185
Total.....	1,477	3,236,922

The number of travelers passing through the canal in 1879 was 82,144.

At a meeting of the Council of Ministers, with the English and French Comptrollers-General, held in June, the Khedive said: "I am asked to institute a Constitution, and to open a Parliament. This I am ready to do, but when I feel that I do not possess the elements for a Parliament—that the people do not know their country, that there are pashas who seek nothing but their own interests—I can not leave the welfare of my country in their hands. I hope, however, that, when the population is instructed, the necessary elements will be found, and then, at that time, believe me, I will grant a Constitution." The Council of Ministers thanked his Highness for his kind intentions, and the Ministers promised to coöperate with him in every way in

order to finish the reforms in the interior of the country.

Riaz Pasha, the Premier, spoke at a dinner given him at Cairo in reference to the work that had been accomplished in reform as a good beginning, but declared that more remained to be done before the object sought could be attained than it was in the power of the present generation of officers to perform. He said: "We have before us a task which will tax the energies, and which needs the hearty coöperation of all that is best and most honest among us. Our force lies in our union. We have to build up an organization which shall be strong because based on principles of justice. We have to introduce institutions which shall resist, so far as may be, the shocks and vicissitudes of time. By this means only can we assure the future; but the work, to be of use, must rest, not on hasty and partial reform, but on real and solid foundations."

In the budget for 1880, published in January, the receipts were estimated at £8,561,622. The expenses were estimated: for administration, pensions, civil list, etc., £3,491,544; tributes, £681,486; reserve fund, £150,000; leaving a balance available for the public debt of £4,238,592. The Comptrollers proposed to apply this balance contingently upon the approval of the Council of Ministers, in round numbers, as follows: to the unified loan, including the conversion of the short loans, £2,500,000; to the privileged loan, £834,000; to the Suez Canal, £200,000; to the Daira Khassa, £35,000; to interest on the floating debt, £200,000; balance, £419,592, available for the creditors.

The report of the *caisse* of the public debt stated that the capital of the unified public debt amounted on the 31st of December, 1879, to £56,085,000, that of the railway preference stock to £16,880,000, and that of the stocks of 1864, 1865, and 1867 to £300,000, £316,000, and £653,000 respectively.

The report of the English and French Comptrollers-General, containing their definitive scheme for the settlement of the financial situation of the country, was presented to the Khedive in January. It proposed to fix the interest on the unified debt at four per cent.: in case the revenue from the provinces set apart for the service of the debt should be insufficient to pay four per cent, the deficiency should be made up out of the general revenue; if, on the other hand, the taxes assigned should yield more than four per cent., the surplus should be paid to the holders of the unified debt up to a maximum of five per cent., and any further surplus above that amount should be applied to half-yearly purchases of stock in the open market. It provided also that any surplus of general revenue, if a surplus should accrue, should be applied, one half to the administration, the other half to the service of the debt. The Comptrollers considered this

to be a fair arrangement, and believed that the higher rate of interest would be resumed before long, but entertained no hope of ever being able to pay the sums owing on account of former coupons or the suspended half-yearly purchases of stock in the open market. Other provisions of the report were: that the unified stock held by the Paris syndicate should be exchanged for a special stock redeemable in a certain number of years; that the Moukabalah tax should be abolished, and in compensation for the rapid amortization of the short loans levied upon it, those loans should be exchanged at the price of eighty per cent. against bonds of the unified debt at their current market value; that the rate of interest on the railway preference stock should remain undisturbed; and that the tribute to the Porte should be a first charge upon the revenue. The Comptrollers expressed confidence in the sincerity and rectitude of the Khedive, and averred that they had reason to believe that, if the present state of progress continued, affairs would before long return to their normal condition. Past experience forbade an optimist view of the future, but never before had the hope of a final arrangement of the financial situation of Egypt been so well founded. That these anticipations might be realized, a distinct line of demarkation must be drawn at December 31, 1879, and all prior debts must be settled by liquidation, the terms of which would be embodied in a law, whose conditions shall be binding on all concerned, so that the Egyptian Government can never be sued for claims accrued before 1880. Such a law would be submitted to the European powers, and pending their decision would be applied to those accepting it. The Khedive accepted the report in a letter in which he thanked the Comptrollers for preparing it, and declared that complete harmony existed between himself and his Ministers, who accepted the report with the same degree of responsibility as himself. The Khedive had already signed decrees abolishing the Moukabalah tax as well as certain other taxes amounting to about six hundred thousand Egyptian pounds, which had been declared by the committee of inquiry to be of a vexatious and unproductive character. Some of the holders of the unified debt protested against the proposal in the report of the Comptrollers-General with regard to the non-payment of the arrears of the half-yearly coupons of that debt, and were answered that as the report contained only a provisional scheme drawn up for the purpose of affording the creditors an opportunity of making the Egyptian Government acquainted with their views before a definitive settlement was effected, the discussion of the subject by the *caisse* of the public debt must be deferred until the decree of liquidation had been submitted to it, when it would state what sacrifices it considered necessary, without, however, interfering with the personal action of the creditors, should

they disapprove the proposed arrangement. A contract was concluded with the Imperial Ottoman Bank, providing for gradual yearly advances on general revenue not specially set apart with the exclusive object of insuring the future punctual payment of the tribute to the Porte, and generally facilitating the administrative part of the budget. An arrangement amicably settling the claims of the Paris Syndicate was concluded in February. An International Committee of Liquidation was appointed with the concurrence of the great powers, and the assent of the Khedive given in March, for the purpose of effecting by mutual concessions a final settlement of the Egyptian financial situation binding on all parties. The committee was organized to consist of representatives of the English, French, Italian, Austrian, German, and Egyptian Governments, with Sir Rivers Wilson, English, as President. As defined by a decree of the Khedive, its duty was, after examining the whole financial situation of Egypt, and hearing the observations of the parties interested, to draft a law of liquidation between Egypt and its creditors, and also between the Daira Sanieh and the Daira Khassa and their creditors. The conditions of the issue of the domain loan were excluded from its deliberations. The committee was directed to work upon the basis furnished by the report of the committee of inquiry, and to sit for three months after the presentation of its own report in order to watch, in concert with the English and French Comptrollers-General, the execution of the decisions arrived at. The law of liquidation would be binding on all concerned. The sittings of the committee would be attended by representatives of the international tribunals. The five Governments represented in the committee having declared their acceptance of the law of liquidation, would collectively request the adhesion of the other powers represented on the international tribunals. The commission completed its labors on the 16th of July, and the law which it had prepared for the liquidation of the Egyptian debt was immediately signed by the Khedive and officially promulgated. It consists of ninety-nine articles, and is divided into five sections concerning respectively the consolidated debt, the Daira Sanieh, the non-consolidated or floating debt, and the general provisions. The interest on the unified debt was fixed at four per cent., to be paid from the revenues specially set apart for the service of the unified debt—namely, the customs revenue and the revenue from the provinces of Menoulieh, Garbieh, Behera, and Siout—and the coupon of the unified debt was guaranteed by the Egyptian Government on the general resources of the country. Any surplus from the revenue set apart for the service of the unified debt was directed to be applied to open-market purchases. The Daira Sanieh was declared to be a state domain under the Egyptian Government and the English

and French Comptrollers-General, the latter officers having their powers extended; and was continued as a five per cent. stock, with a Government guarantee of four per cent.; and provision was made for the payment of the old claims of the Daira Sanieh against the Egyptian Government and of the next coupon. An indemnity was allowed to the creditors of the Moukabalah tax. The floating debt was allotted thirty to forty per cent. in cash, the remainder in new privileged bonds, and the short loans were directed to be converted into unified stock, about two millions nominal. The privileges of the railway preference loan were maintained as under the Goschen-Joubert decree of the 18th of November, 1876. A new issue of £5,744,000 was authorized, to be in all respects identical with the existing preference stock, the interest of which should date from the 15th of April, 1880. The preference stock was secured on the revenues of the railways and telegraphs, and was made also a first charge on the revenues specially set apart for the service of the unified debt, and the revenue of the harbor of Alexandria. The commission had also before it the case of the claim of Halim Pasha, whose pension had been reduced by a decree of the Khedive from £60,000 to £15,000 a year. The Pasha's application for a restoration of his full pension was rejected, the decree of the Khedive was confirmed, and the pension was definitely fixed at £15,000. Halim Pasha was, however, admitted as a creditor of the floating debt in the amount of £150,000.

The adhesion of the United States and of Russia was given to the decision of the commission when it was made known.

The annual report of the directors of the Daira Sanieh, published in August, stated that in virtue of the law of liquidation that domain entered upon a new phase. The European system of public accounts would be introduced in order to facilitate the task of the directors in protecting the interests of the Daira bondholders. The Daira Sanieh was now for the first time free from debt; and its revenue undoubtedly admitted of a considerable increase, which was principally dependent upon the carrying out of administrative reforms. The abolition of the Moukabalah tax, however, involved an increase of the taxation payable by the Daira to the amount of £93,000 Egyptian, so that for the future the same revenue would be required to give a return of five per cent. which formerly yielded six per cent.

The amount encashed for the public debt up to the end of September was £1,320,000 for the unified debt, and £273,000 for the privileged debt. According to the statement of the *caisse* made at that time, the revenues specially set apart for the service of the unified debt would be required to complete the coupon of the preference loan falling due on the 15th of October; but after the payment of the coupon of the unified loan on the 1st of Novem-

ber, fully £150,000 would be available for open-market purchases for the redemption of the debt.

The publication of the budget on the 29th of December showed a surplus of £111,000.

The Khedive, in February, on the proposal of the Council of Ministers, issued a decree fixing dates for the payment of the land-tax, to correspond with the ripening of the crops in the different provinces. At the same time, the Minister of Finance ordered the governors of the provinces to acquaint the tax-payers with the exact amount of the yearly taxation. The British consul-general in July sent home reports which had been made by his subordinates concerning the condition of the country and the effect of the administrative changes, which were of a highly favorable character. The agricultural population, released from many odious and vexatious oppressions, appeared more contented, and were working more industriously than ever before. The people were voluntarily offering their taxes, to the astonishment of the tax-collectors. Land was rising rapidly in the market, and in some districts owners were asking one hundred per cent. more than they had asked twelve months before. The chief remaining subject of complaint was the forced labor, a certain amount of which was still exacted for the public works, and which bore hard on the poor, who were not able to commute.

The sovereignty of Egypt was proclaimed, in March, along the coast of the Red Sea to Cape Guardafui. Ali Riaz Pasha was appointed Governor of the Red Sea coast. After notice had been given to the powers of the annexation, the Italian Government occupied the Bay of Assab as a naval station. To prevent any lapse of its own authority, the Egyptian Government addressed a note to the Italian Government, expressing its willingness to allow the Rubattino Steam Navigation Company to establish a naval station at the bay on condition of its applying for authorization and submitting to the laws of the country.

Notwithstanding an announcement was made from Khartoom, on the 3d of January, that the slave-trade in the Soodan had entirely ceased, the traffic still continued to such an extent as to excite the remark of Europeans and attract the attention of the Government. It appeared, however, that although the trade had not been wholly broken up, a check had been given to the great slave-owners in the region over which Colonel Gordon had ruled; and the new Government professed to entertain an earnest intention to put an end to the traffic within the four years allowed for that purpose by the Anglo-Egyptian Convention, for which object full powers were given to Riaz Pasha, the Premier, to deal with the evil. During three weeks in April five convoys of slaves arrived from Kordofan, Sennaar, and Darfoor. On the 20th of April, a caravan composed of five hundred and ninety-eight

camels and more than nine hundred slaves openly entered Siout. No notice appears to have been taken of the arrival by the officers whose duty it was to look after the matter, but Mr. Roth, a Swiss and a teacher in the American Mission School, took upon himself to report the fact to the authorities at Cairo. Two officers were sent up by the Government, with a company of infantry, to investigate the affair and bring the guilty parties to punishment. They arrested thirty-six of the dealers, but most of the slaves had already been disposed of. The Council of Ministers on its own initiative, with the assent of the Khedive, dismissed the governor of the province and ordered him, his lieutenant, and the head of the special department for the abolition of the slave trade to be tried by court-martial for having failed to seize the caravan. A special European slave commission was appointed to prevent the repetition of the traffic and insure the execution of the slave convention; the Count della Sala, an ex-officer of the Austrian army, was appointed Governor-General at Siout, with whom the Governors of Upper Egypt were ordered to cooperate, and a force of six hundred troops was furnished to support the commission. At the beginning of August a modification in the Anglo-Egyptian Convention, to make it more stringent, was agreed to by the Minister, and a circular was issued, declaring that persons buying slaves should be subject to the same punishment as those selling them. Dr. G. Schweinfurth, the African traveler, published a communication in June, calling attention to a defect in the convention, in that it recognized "the impossibility of sending back slaves to their homes. This is not impossible," he said; "to liberate slaves after the Egyptian manner means to confiscate smuggled goods and distribute them among friends." Colonel Gordon took a similar view when he wrote from the Red Sea, September 29th, concerning the commission at Siout: "Now, as Siout is three hundred miles from Cairo, and the districts where the slave-hunters are at work are three thousand miles from Cairo, any captures made at Siout mean simply the handing over of slaves from individuals to the Egyptian authorities; it can have no effect on the capture of slaves; and in my opinion, when once sent away from their homes, it would be better for the slaves to remain with their original masters than that they should be taken possession of by the Egyptian authorities"; and he accused the Egyptian Government of bad faith, saying that the provisions of the slave convention and the decree of 1877 had never been made known to the people, but to satisfy Europe they had been put in the European papers. The evidence that the trade was continued accumulated. The Secretary of the British and Foreign Antislavery Society caused to be published, in August, a communication showing that an increase in the slave-trade in the

Soodan and the Red Sea had followed Colonel Gordon's departure, that the trade was carried on in the most open way, and that every steamer that left Souakim had slaves on board. One dealer, known to the correspondent, went backward and forward regularly, and he was only one of many. A report from the Deputy-Governor of the Soodan to the chief of staff was published in the "Official Journal" of October 18th, denying that the traffic in slaves had increased since the departure of Colonel Gordon, and averring that the work of repression was still actively carried on by the same European officers who were appointed to the command of the distant provinces by Gordon Pasha himself. This was immediately met by the publication of a letter from an Austrian officer who had just passed through the Soodan to the Victoria Nyanza to Dr. Schweinfurth, containing accounts of the open manner in which the slave-trade was carried on in Khartoum and on the Upper Nile, to which Dr. Schweinfurth added the comment, "Since the ever-to-be-deplored departure of Gordon Pasha, every post from the Soodan is but another Job's messenger for the cause of humanity." In answer to the letters of Gordon Pasha and the criticisms of a part of the English press respecting the continuance of the slave-trade, the Government caused to be published in the official "Moniteur" the details of the measures which had been adopted for the suppression of the traffic since the resignation of Gordon Pasha. During November, Dr. Schweinfurth published another letter from Cairo, which described the trade as still increasing, and said that all the efforts which had been put forth for the last ten years for its suppression, the convention with Great Britain, and the fighting that had taken place, remained fruitless. Saleh Bey, the Governor of Falosha, it is said, continued to levy the tax of two dollars a head; slaves were disembarked at Kassa and Kalakla with a view to avoid Khartoum; at Metemmeh gangs of slaves were to be met who were being taken up the Nile country to Berber; and a wholesale importation of little negro children took place every week into Jeddah in spite of the English and French consulate. In December the Khedive received an acknowledgment from the British Government of his efforts to abolish slavery.

The relations between Egypt and Abyssinia bore an aspect at the beginning of the year promising peace; but the accounts of the disposition and movements of the Abyssinian King were conflicting. Colonel Gordon, who had visited King John as an envoy from the Khedive, returned to Egypt in December, 1879, dispelling by his return some apprehensions that had begun to be felt lest he should be detained, and bearing a letter from the King respecting the terms on which he would make peace with the Khedive. He described King John as a sour, ill-looking man of about forty-

seven years of age, and of a fanatical disposition, himself hating and hated by all who came in contact with him. The country was surrounded by discontented tribes and rulers: to the east, was King Menelik of Shoa, sullenly opposing King John, but afraid to show open hostility; in the south, Rasalall was in almost open rebellion; and in other quarters, six or more other chiefs were in actual revolt. Placed in this position, Abyssinia could not attack Egypt, and could not in any case do it material harm. The troops of King John might, it was true, plunder the frontier tribes, but the latter were naturally warlike, and would certainly make counter-incursions and pillage the land of their aggressors. Indeed, if the Khedive would only supply the malcontent tribes with arms, the second son of King Theodore would soon be placed on his father's throne. The majority of Abyssinians believed that King John would fall in the course of two or three years by his own dullness and folly. If England and France were to send envoys to him, they would be treated with the same insolence as he had been subjected to. The King now regretted the exorbitant demands he had made upon the Egyptian Government, and had written explanatory letters to the Governments of England and France, casting the blame for the present crisis upon Gordon Pasha.

A belief was expressed among some of the Egyptian officers that King John had wished to entice the Egyptian Government into undertaking offensive operations, but had desisted on finding that his endeavors were not successful. The chief Rasalola was recalled, and this was regarded as a sign of more peaceful intentions toward Egypt, for that chief had favored an aggressive policy. The King was afterward troubled by a revolt of several of his chiefs, which ended in the defeat, with capture as prisoners, by the royal forces, of two bodies of insurgents, followers of Rasalola. Toward the end of March, the Egyptian Government informed the Porte that it might possibly be forced to undertake another expedition against Abyssinia. Evidence of the desire of King John for peace continued, however, to come in. Colonel Gordon gave to the public a letter from one of his former officers of the date of the 18th of January, relating that he had asked the King, "If the Christian nations of Europe should ask you to suspend for a time all idea of making war upon Egypt until they have been paid the sums due to them by Egypt, what should you do?" and that his Majesty had replied, "I should probably be obliged in that case to wait, because I do not wish to vex the monarchs of Europe, who are Christians like myself." "After this answer," said the writer of the letter, "I think we may look for peace between Abyssinia and Egypt for at least ten or twelve years to come." Naib Mahomed, who had been the bearer of a letter from the Queen of Great Britain to King John, without, however, pos-

sessing any authority to enter into negotiations, returned to Cairo in July, and represented that King John had given him a favorable reception, and informed him that he was desirous of maintaining friendly relations with Egypt. Early in October the Government was dispatching sixteen hundred troops to relieve the garrisons on the Abyssinian frontier. The official journal, a few days later than this, contradicted rumors of a fresh outbreak of hostilities on the frontier, and said that the relations between the two countries were not of a hostile character. The Egyptian Government, it is said, had made every effort, especially since the accession of Tefvik Pasha to the throne, to remove all causes which might lead to a conflict.

The first meeting of the Egyptian Judicial Reform Commission was held December 6th, under the presidency of Riaz Pasha. Thirty delegates of the powers who are represented in the international tribunals were present. The committee resolved that the *status quo* should be maintained until the 1st of February ensuing, unless the work of the committee should be concluded at an earlier date.

ELECTRIC LIGHT, VEGETATION UNDER THE. The success of Dr. Siemens in producing healthy vegetable growth under the electric light, contradicts effectually the conclusion of Sachs, that the action of light in promoting plant-growth is owing to properties favorable to chemical changes which are peculiar to solar light. The chemistry of plant-life is less understood than the chemical processes in animal physiology. The hæmoglobin of the blood enters as an active agent in oxidation: when extracted from the associated albuminoid matter in a pure crystalline state, it is capable of combining with oxygen and again liberating the oxygen, precisely as it does in the living body. The analogous process in vegetation is as dependent upon chlorophyl; but the part played by chlorophyl is more mysterious. Extracted from green leaves with alcohol or ether, and shown to be chemically identical with the coloring matter of the plant-cells by its giving the same complex spectrum, the chlorophyl exhibits no deoxidizing power detached from the vegetable protoplasm.

From the fact that the rays of light which are absorbed by chlorophyl are not those which are active in exciting cell-formation, since light which has passed through a solution of chlorophyl has been found just as efficient in producing vegetable growth, and from indications that the absorbed rays have the contrary effect of causing an excessive oxidation and a disruption of protoplasm, Pringsheim supposes, in the absence of any proof of an active agency of the green substance in decomposing carbonic acid, that this simply acts as a screen to protect the cells from the too vigorous action of the rays which promote oxidation, and that it is the living protoplasm which under the influence of the transmitted rays per-

forms the functions of liberating O from CO₂, and uniting the elements of the starch-cells.

Siemens propagated quick-growing plants, such as cress and mustard. For the purposes of comparison they were separated into lots, one of which was exposed to electric light alone, one to daylight alone, one to daylight and to electric light in the night-time, and one kept in darkness. He experimented in the open air, and afterward in a heated greenhouse, with a lamp constructed for continuous currents with two carbon electrodes, equal to 1,400 candles. The light was demonstrated to be equal or nearly equal to daylight in exciting chlorophyll-formation and deoxidation of carbon dioxide, and in promoting all manifestations of healthy vegetable life. Where the normal exposure to daylight was supplemented by electric lighting at night, the plants thrived much more luxuriantly than under the influence of sunlight alone. The electric lamp was observed to excite the phenomena of heliotropism, the erection of leaves after they had drooped for repose at night, the opening of flower-buds, and all the effects of sunshine. In a palm-house the lamp was placed in a position corresponding to that of the sun at mid-day, and lighted for eleven hours each night for a week. The plants under the double illumination assumed a more vigorous appearance, the leaves took on a darker and fresher hue, and the coloring of the flowers appeared to be more brilliant than usual. The electric light seemed to be more efficacious in bringing out flowers than sunlight. The effects of the light were most striking upon the plants which were nearest.

Dr. Siemens drew from his experiments the following conclusions: Electric light is effective in causing the formation of chlorophyll in leaves and in exciting vegetable growth; an electric lamp of 1,400 candles' brightness, placed at the distance of six and a half feet from growing plants, is equal in its effects to average daylight; the carbonic acid and nitrogenous compounds generated in the electric arc are not sufficient in quantity to injure plants in an inclosed room; plants under the influence of electric light appear to be able to sustain a degree of heat which would otherwise wither them; plants exposed to sunlight during the day and to electric light during the night, show an increased vigor and rapidity of growth, proving that a period of rest during the twenty-four hours is not required in vegetable life. The latter deduction is confirmed by prolonged observations made by Dr. Schübler, of Christiania, upon the effects on vegetation of the uninterrupted sunlight of the Arctic summer. He found that plants from lower latitudes acclimatized in Norway develop a larger and more rapid growth, that they bear heavier seeds, and that the pigments of their flowers and leaves acquire deeper and richer hues. The aromatic properties of plants and fruits also are augmented to a remarkable degree: a much larger percentage of essential oils can be

obtained from plants grown in northern latitudes, the flavor of vegetables like onions, and celery is much more pungent, and the aroma and flavor of berries, plums, and other fruits, much more pronounced. The formation of sugar is dependent upon heat, and therefore the fruits of this climate are very deficient in sweetness. Flowers when transplanted from more southerly climates attain an unusual size and take on stronger colors, white flowers acquiring a pink color, blue ones a deeper tint, and all receiving a tinge of red. No plant except the mimosa was observed to contract its leaves during the two months or longer that the sun remained above the horizon.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING. This method of lighting seems now to have passed the purely experimental stage, and to have become established upon a secure commercial basis. For the illumination of open areas and large interiors, such as factories, railroad depots, theatres, hotels, etc., the arc light is satisfactorily displacing gas, both here and abroad. In Paris and London the Jablochhoff candle has been more largely used than any other lamp; but in this country the lamps of Brush, Maxim, Fuller, and other American inventors are employed. These lamps have all been described, and need no further consideration; but in the first an important improvement has been introduced, which allows a number of them to be operated upon one circuit, without any one being affected by variations in any other. This consists in a construction of the feed-regulating helices, so that the current has two paths through the lamp, one by way of the arc and one by way of a resistance-coil. Each of the bobbins of the controlling magnet is wound with two coils in opposite directions, the primary one being of thick and the secondary of thin wire. The connections are such that the currents in the two coils are in opposite directions, but these latter are so related that when the arc is of normal length the attractive influence of the primary overcomes the opposing influence of the secondary coil. The current flowing through the high resistance secondary coil is ordinarily not more than one per cent. of the total current through the lamp; but when, by the lengthening of the arc, the resistance is increased, a greater part of the current goes through it, with the effect of weakening the primary coil. The cores of the bobbins then move downward until the arc is of normal length. When this becomes too short the resistance is diminished, and a larger part of the current then flows through the primary coil, which draws up its core and raises the carbon. By this construction the resistance of the lamp is rendered constant, however much that of the arc may vary, which is the sole condition necessary to the successful operation of a number of lamps on one circuit. Whenever a lamp, from the entire consumption of the carbons, or from any other cause, is rendered unfit to furnish light, it is cut from the circuit by

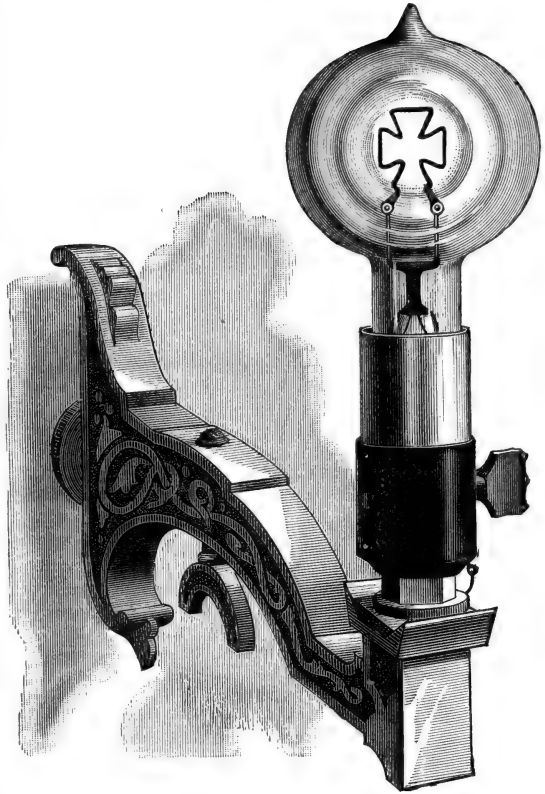
a simple magnetic switch. In the same case with the regulating bobbins an electro-magnet is placed, which is wound with two coils, both in the same direction, the inner one being of low and the outer of high resistance. The armature of this magnet is carried on the end of a lever, and when it is drawn up in contact with the pole the current has a path from one terminal of the lamp, through the primary coil of this magnet, through two contact points then together, and through a resistance-spring out to the other terminal. The secondary coil is connected with the corresponding ones of the regulating bobbins. Should the arc then fail from any cause, a greater part of the current circulates through the secondary coils, the cut-out magnet is magnetized and draws up its armature, allowing the main current to flow through the primary coil of this magnet and out to line. Each of the remaining lamps becomes proportionately brighter, but, by means of a simple instrument at the distributing center, resistance-coils are automatically inserted in the circuit, restoring their normal brilliancy. By these simple contrivances Mr. Brush is enabled to operate any desired number of lamps from one machine with the same ease as one, a necessary condition of any extended introduction of this light for industrial use. The light-machines are built in different sizes, the standard operating sixteen lights of two thousand candle-power each, and absorbing fourteen horse-power. The largest yet built maintains forty lights of the same candle-power, and uses thirty-six horse-power. Some five thousand of these lamps are now in use in this country, and extensive preparations have lately been made to introduce them in London. The carbons used in the lamps are twelve inches long and seven sixteenths of an inch in diameter, one pair burning eight hours. The lamps are also made with two sets of carbons, the current being switched to the second when the first pair are consumed. The method of doing this is simply an extension of the feeding-device employed with the single carbons. The tilting washer by which the carbon-holder is gripped and raised, is placed higher on one carbon than the other. When the core of the helix is drawn upward by the influence of the current in starting the light, the carbon with the higher washer is moved too great a distance to form the arc, so that it is established between the other two. This relation is maintained until the first pair of carbons are burned out, when the current passes through the second pair.

The incandescent light has made steady progress, and now appears to be in a fair way of going into use at an early date. Mr. Edison has finished his experimental work, and is ready to enter upon the general introduction of his system. The lamp in its present form differs from that described in the "Annual" of 1879, only in the employment of a strip of carbonized bamboo instead of

paper. Extended trial showed that the paper strips varied greatly in density, and hence became unequally heated when the current was passed through them, with the result of soon becoming disintegrated. The bamboo is much more homogeneous, and has therefore been adopted. For general use, it is intended to make the lamps of two sizes, the carbon strip in one being five inches in length and in the other three. Eight lights of sixteen candles each of the former, or sixteen lights of eight candles each of the latter, can be maintained, Mr. Edison states, with an expenditure of one actual, or one and a quarter indicated, horse-power. As in the best gas-engines twenty-five feet of gas an hour will give an actual horse-power, and as this amount of gas will only supply five lights of sixteen candles each, there appears to be a gain in the ratio of eight to five, in first converting the energy of the gas into electricity and this into light, over burning the gas direct as an illuminant. Electricity has, however, on this basis, a somewhat greater advantage than is shown by the figures, in that the lamps will give the full sixteen-candle light as long as they last, while gas-burners gradually deteriorate, with a consequent lessening of the light. The life of the carbon strip varies greatly with the different samples. Some will last but from thirty to forty hours, while others have remained intact as many as twelve hundred, the average of a large number of trials being three hundred.

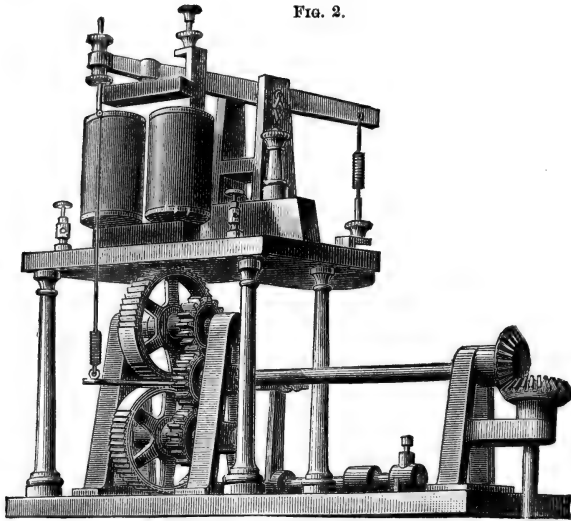
An incandescent lamp, quite similar to that of Mr. Edison, shown in Fig. 1, and a regulating apparatus, have been brought out quite recently by Mr. H. S. Maxim, the inventor of the arc lamp which bears his name. The carbon strip, made from cardboard or wood, is bent in the form of the letter M, or a Maltese cross, instead of a simple loop. The globe contains a rarefied atmosphere of gasoline, the object of which is to build up the thinner parts of the carbon by the deposition upon them of the free carbon of the dissociated vapor. This action takes place within a few hours after the lamps are started burning, so that the result is an incandescent strip in an atmosphere of hydrogen. The inventor states that the carbon is rendered very dense and homogeneous by this process, and its durability considerably increased. The sealing is done by inclosing the wires in a semi-elastic cement, instead of fusing them into the glass. The regulator, which is designed to automatically vary the current in accordance with the number of lamps in circuit, is of quite

FIG. 1.



simple construction, and has been found to be fairly satisfactory in use. It operates by increasing and decreasing the intensity of the field magnets of the machines furnishing the current, through the medium of an electromagnet placed in the lamp-circuit. When any considerable number of lamps are operated, the current is furnished by a number of generators, whose magnetic fields are maintained by a separate machine, and, in order to vary the current furnished the lamps, it is only necessary to increase or decrease the current supplied by the latter. This is done by shifting the commutator-brushes to and from the neutral points, the current varying with each change in their position. The mechanism by which this result is accomplished is shown in Fig. 2. The train of gearing in the lower portion of the apparatus consists of two ratchet-wheels, on the shaft of each of which is a spur-wheel, meshing into an intermediate one. This latter is mounted upon a shaft which moves the commutator-brushes of the machine, through the medium of the bevel-gearing to the right. Between the ratchet-wheels there is a reciprocating pawl, operated by the machine. In its normal position this pawl moves freely between

FIG. 2.

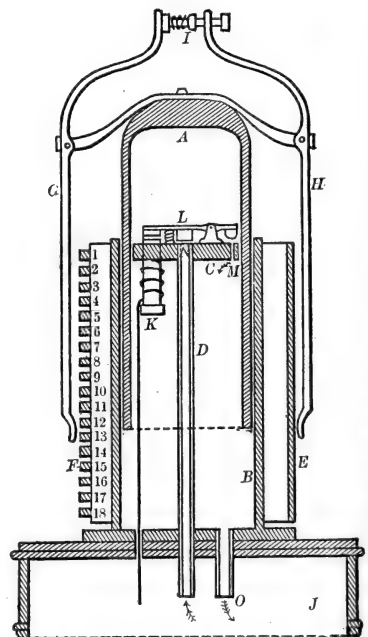


the ratchet-wheels; but when the current increases, from the turning out of any of the lamps in the circuit, the electro-magnet shown above the gearing becomes strengthened, and draws down its armature. By means of the connecting-rod from the lever carrying the armature to the reciprocating pawl, this latter is depressed, and then engages with the lower ratchet-wheel, which is moved one tooth with each vibration of the pawl. The spur-wheel on its shaft turns the intermediate one, causing the brushes on the machine to be shifted toward the neutral points, lessening the current. When the strength of the lamp-circuit diminishes, the armature of the electro-magnet is drawn away by the spring on the farther end of the lever; and the pawl then engages with the upper ratchet-wheel, which shifts the commutator-brushes in the reverse direction, increasing the current furnished the field of the generators.

The lamp known as the Sawyer-Man lamp, illustrated in the "Annual" of 1878, has been further improved by Mr. Sawyer, and is now pronounced by him to be perfected. The change in the new lamp consists in substituting for the small piece of carbon a thin pencil, some eight inches long, which is slowly fed upward as it wastes away. The waste is stated by Mr. Sawyer to be from one hundredth to one fiftieth of an inch per hour, giving the carbon a life of from four hundred to eight hundred hours. When entirely consumed it can be replaced at a small expense. By means of a switch, operating so that the current is gradually admitted to the lamp, the light can be varied, as with a gas-flame. Four lamps, each giving 27.4 candles, the inventor states, can be maintained per horse-power. Mr. Sawyer has also designed a lamp-regulator (shown in Fig. 3), which acts by inserting a greater or less number of re-

sistances in the circuit as the number of lamps in use varies. He states that it works satisfactorily, but is of the opinion that such devices are not of sufficient value to have a place in a system of general lighting. Resistance-coils are placed in the base and connected with the studs F, so that the current which enters at the base of the insulated contact plate E, and traverses the arms H and G, will pass through a greater or less number of them as the arms G and H rise and fall. This movement of the arms is effected by the cylinder A, which moves tightly in the cylinder B. Water is admitted by the tube D, and flows out by the pipe O. A tightly fitting piston, C, has two valves, N and M, which are closed by the lever L, operated by the electro-magnet K. When the core is not magnetized, the valve N is opened, and water enters above the piston

FIG. 3.



and raises the cylinder A. When the core is magnetized, the armature is attracted, and opens the valve M, allowing the water to flow out and the cylinder A to fall.

With the exception of the Maxim, which has been introduced in some places of business in New York City, none of the incandescent lamps have yet gone into use; but, as they have reached a commercial form, the next few years will probably witness their somewhat extended introduction.

ELIOT, GEORGE, the *nom de plume* of the English novelist Marian Evans, who died on December 23, 1880. As she was herself curiously reticent on all biographical details concerning herself, the actual facts of her early life are but little known. It is certain that the published sketches abound in inaccuracies. It is even disputed whether her original name was Mary Anne or Marian, and the exact date and place of her birth have never been authoritatively made known. She was not, as has often been stated, the daughter of a poor clergyman, nor is it true that she was adopted in early life by another clergyman of greater wealth, who gave her a first-class education. She was born about 1820. Her father, Robert Evans, was a land agent and surveyor, who lived in the neighborhood of Nuneaton, near Coventry, and served for many years as agent for the estates of more than one old Warwickshire family. He is still remembered as a man of rare worth and character by many neighbors in the midlands. The father of George Eliot is the prototype of more than one character in the writings of his daughter. Of these, Caleb Garth, in "Middlemarch," will be recognized as the chief example; but the same note of character—the craftsman's keen delight in perfect work—is struck in "Adam Bede," and the little poem of "Stradivarius." George Eliot's early years were spent in the country of Shakespeare. It is not very clear when she left her father's home, nor where her education was acquired, but she seems to have come to London almost as a girl, and to have devoted herself to serious literature. She became associated with many of the writers in the "Westminster Review," with John Stuart Mill, Mr. Herbert Spencer, George Henry Lewes, Mr. John Chapman, and others, and was herself a frequent contributor to that "Review." Her first serious work was a translation of the celebrated Strauss's "Life of Jesus," published in 1846, when she was only about twenty-six years of age. In 1853 Miss Evans published a translation of Feuerbach's "Essence of Christianity," the intervening period being that of her greatest activity as contributor to the "Westminster Review." The *nom de plume*, George Eliot, she assumed for the first time in her contributions to "Blackwood's Magazine." The manuscript of her first imaginative work, "Scenes of Clerical Life," was sent anonymously to "Blackwood's Magazine" in 1857, by George Henry Lewes, and eagerly accepted by the editor, who discerned in it the promise of rare and preëminent genius. Her next work, "Adam Bede," which was published in 1859, is probably still the best known and most widely ap-

preciated of all her works, and impressed the world at large with the conviction that a new novelist of the first rank had appeared. "Adam Bede" made the name of George Eliot a household word throughout England and the United States, where it was at once republished, and, like others of her late books, it was quickly translated into French and German, and subsequently into Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Russian, and other languages. Although George Eliot was anxious to conceal her name and her sex, the secret soon leaked out, and before "The Mill on the Floss," the second great novel of the series which has immortalized her name, was published in 1860, it was well known, in literary circles at least, that George Eliot was none other than Marian Evans, the contributor to the "Westminster Review." To her intimate friends she was already known as Mrs. Lewes, for by this time was established that close association and literary friendship with the gifted George Henry Lewes, which only terminated with the death of Lewes in 1878. As Mr. Lewes had been unable to obtain a legal divorce from his first, erring wife, the quasi-marital union between the philosopher and the authoress could not be legalized by either church or state, but it was sanctioned by the approval of a large circle of personal friends. In 1861 she published "Silas Marner," the shortest but, as many think, the most perfect of all George Eliot's novels. "Romola," a masterly study of Florentine life in the days of Savonarola, originally written for the "Cornhill," followed in 1863; "Felix Holt, the Radical," in which she returned to the description of English life, in 1866; and "Middlemarch," the most popular of all her works, in 1871. Meanwhile she had given to the world a poem, "The Spanish Gypsy" (1868); and another was issued in 1874, entitled "The Legend of Jubal." After another long interval of silence she published her last novel, "Daniel Deronda," in 1876; the profound and instructive character of this work was generally acknowledged, but as a novel it was thought to have committed the unpardonable sin of failing to entertain. Her last work, published in 1879, "The Life and Opinions of Theophrastus Such," disappointed the public. After eighteen months of virtual widowhood, she was married, May 6, 1880, at St. George's, Hanover Square, London, to Mr. John Walter Cross, of Weybridge, Surrey, a London banker, formerly resident in New York. Mr. Cross was many years younger than his bride, and had long been an intimate friend both of herself and of Mr. Lewes. The attainments of George Eliot were almost universal. To the chief classical and modern tongues she added an acquaintance with Russian and modern Greek. She knew all the physical sciences, all arts and philosophies, and was deeply versed in the history of thought on the most vital topics. In her literary avocation she was extremely laborious, often injuring her health by intense application. She composed

with rapidity, but corrected with great care. She was modest and unassuming in social life, never spoke of herself, nor used any of the ordinary arts of popularity, and had comparatively few intimate friends. Like many other authors, she oddly preferred her poems to her novels. The later works of George Eliot were extraordinarily successful in a pecuniary sense; while she received only \$1,500 for "Scenes of Clerical Life," "Middelmarch" gained her the enormous sum of \$40,000, and "Daniel Deronda" nearly as much.

ENGINEERING. The renewed impetus which abundant crops and restored prosperity have given to railroad extension in the United States has called this branch of engineering connected with railroad-building into unusual activity. The progress of the art in some of the most important departments is little noticed except by the practically interested. There have been 7,150 miles of new railroad constructed in the United States during the year 1880. This is the largest construction of any one year except 1872, which exceeded it by 190 miles. Of the total length built in 1880, 79.6 per cent., or 5,698 miles, was west of the Mississippi River. The total length of railroad in the United States amounts to 93,637 miles. The increase in the railroad mileage, taking the extension of the year 1880 as a basis of calculation, is $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum, while the increase in population in the United States is only about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. annually. In the construction of iron railroad-bridges American engineers stand foremost in the world, as might be expected when it is known that the American network of railroads is nearly as extensive as the combined railroad systems of all Europe. There are 900 miles of bridge-structures in the United States, of which 300 miles are of iron or stone. The details of two of the most recently completed railroad-bridges, which are typical iron long-span truss structures, illustrating the most improved practice of American bridge-builders, are given below. O. Chanute, a Western engineer, has collected the statistics of some of those fields of engineering whose achievements are too familiar to be esteemed at their true value. There are, according to his computations, 3,257 miles of canal in the United States. He also states that 569 towns and cities of the United States and Canada are supplied with water-works, which have 13,000 miles of water-pipes, 10,000 miles of these being of cast-iron; and improvements have been wrought in the methods of water-supply within a quarter of a century which reduce the cost 50 per cent. The gas companies of the country have increased in number from 50 in 1850 to about 900, representing a capital of as much as \$200,000,000. The success of the Suez Canal and the project of the interoceanic canal through the Isthmus of Panama have directed attention to the Isthmus of Cape Cod, through which a tide-level canal

is being cut which promises to benefit coast navigation to an extent incommensurately greater than the cost in labor and capital outlay. This labor is undertaken by private capitalists; but from Government initiative still greater works of a similar character are called for in many quarters. The latest matured project of this kind is for a ship-canal with locks across the Florida Peninsula. More urgent improvements are being carried out on a liberal scale, notably the blasting away of reefs to make a new entrance for deep-draught vessels to New York Harbor from Long Island Sound, the commencement of which has been fully described in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1876. Very valuable service is being done in the regulation of the changeable currents of the rivers of the West, in the study of which admirable skill has been shown, and original methods evolved. Engineers are more and more convinced that no scheme for river improvements is efficient unless it embraces the entire course of the river; and that, if the regimen of the river throughout its entire length is not taken as a whole into consideration, any local improvements, whether diking or the rectification or deepening of channel-beds, may do more harm than good. (The much-needed improvements of the Sacramento River, just commenced, with the plans proposed for their execution, are described in CALIFORNIA.) In Great Britain several important harbor improvements have been completed in 1880, chief of which are the great Victoria Dock extension in London, and the enlargement of the Harlepool Docks, by which a completely landlocked harbor is secured for a port whose situation is favorable for a commercial development in other directions besides in the timber-trade, which is now its main business. The extension of ocean telegraphy proceeds at an augmenting rate. Only fifteen years after the two great commercial nations of kindred race which face each other across the single ocean of the land hemisphere were enabled to send instantaneous signals over the first Atlantic cable, each and every land nearly of all the six continents, which has aught to contribute or receive in the world's market, or takes any active share in the busy interchange of economic services, is joined by these vital nerves of commerce, whose iron threads wend over the hills and valleys of the ocean's bottom. The first American cable is wisely intended to link the United States to the sister republics of the same continent, with which intercourse and trade have been slighter and less frequent than with the antipodes, while other industrial nations have known how to turn their peculiar and invaluable organic and mineral products to a profitable account.

The bridge across the Missouri River at Plattsmouth, built to connect the Iowa and Nebraska divisions of the Burlington and Missouri Railroad, lately consolidated with the

Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, replaces the ferry by which passengers and freight have heretofore been transferred. The selection of the location for the bridge was a difficult problem, on account of the varying channel of the river at this point, affected by the irregular volume of the Platte, which flows into it about a mile above the town. Opposite the town the river-bed is a mile wide, though the narrow channel-bed alone is occupied by the river at low water. The channel is constantly shifting from one side of the river-bed to the other opposite the town, but some distance below the river flows through a narrow passage between a dike and a high bluff. The width here is only 800 feet; but below the river widens, and the variations in the position of the channel above throw the channel now against one bank and now against the other. It was necessary, therefore, to place the bridge as near as the configuration of the banks would allow to the narrow passage in which there is the least variation in the position of the channel. The shifting nature of the current also necessitated the adoption of a high-bridge instead of a drawbridge plan. At the point selected the width of the river, except in the flood season, is about 800 feet. The bridge crosses this in two spans, 50 feet in clear height above high water. On the east side are three deck-spans of 200 feet each, crossing the sand-bar, which is submerged in the spring floods; beyond which is an iron viaduct, 1,440 feet long. On the west side an iron viaduct, 120 feet long, reaches from the extremity of the high bridge to the western approach, which is a cutting, 80 feet deep at the deepest point, leading in a curve to Plattsmouth. The bridge is 3,000 feet long from abutment to abutment. The main bridge-structure measures 804 feet between the centers of the outside piers. The foundations of the three piers of the main structure are carried down to bed-rock, 30 to 50 feet below extreme low water. The first pier on the flat also has its foundation laid on the solid rock, and the second one rests on piles. The work on the bridge was commenced in July, 1879. The pier on the west shore was sunk by blasting through a mass of boulders 28 feet deep. The two other river-piers, and the one on the sand-flat resting on piles, were sunk by the plenum pneumatic process. The caissons were of a new pattern, designed and furnished by William Sooy Smith. The entire space above the roof was filled as they were sunk by Portland cement concrete, the foundation being thus built downward; but the walls of the caisson were inclined inward, so that little of the weight rested on the roof of the working chamber, and the caisson was sunk by continuous pressure, instead of intermittently blowing off the compressed air, as is usual. The concrete foundation extends from the solid rock, which is horizontally stratified limestone, nearly up

to the low-water mark. The piles under the pier on the east side of the river-bed have a penetration of 28 feet, the masonry commencing three feet below low water. All the rest of the masonry has concrete foundations. The stone used is the finest kind of magnesian limestone, and it is laid in Portland-cement mortar. The sides of the three main piers, from the foundation up to seven feet above high water, have an incline from the perpendicular of one in twenty-four. At the top their thickness is eight feet, their length 33 feet. Both ends are circular arcs, meeting and forming an edge, the radius of the arcs being about three fourths of the thickness of the pier. The arch with circular sides of these dimensions is expected to meet best the conditions of the Missouri River, which carries down great quantities of drift-wood. The extreme variation in the level of the river at this point is 17 feet. The superstructure of the iron viaducts and of the deck-spans over the sand-bar is of iron; but in the channel-spans steel was largely employed. The bridge was designed throughout to bear a running load of 2,000 pounds per linear foot, and to resist a wind-pressure of 30 pounds per square foot when a train is crossing, equivalent to 50 pounds per square foot when empty. The iron viaduct, of riveted-plate girders resting on wrought-iron posts, has forty-eight spans on the east and four on the west side, each of 30 feet, is constructed entirely of wrought-iron, except the cast-iron bed-plates. The three deck-spans, 30 feet deep and 16 feet apart between the centers, are of the single-system Pratt truss, with inclined end-posts, and eight panels of 25 feet in each truss. The wrought-iron trusses, secured with steel pins, rest on cast-iron pedestals anchored in the masonry. The superstructure of the main bridge was made by the Keystone Bridge Company. The two channel-spans are just 402 feet each between the centers of the piers. The trusses are 50 feet deep, and placed 22 feet apart from center to center. The plan is the double-system Pratt truss with inclined end-posts. Each span has sixteen panels of 25 feet each. The top chord, the tension-members, end-posts, the jaw-nuts on the bottom chord, and all of the smaller parts are of steel, except the rest of the nuts, which are of iron. The main ties and the bars of the bottom chord were rolled by the Klonan process, the motion of the rollers being reversed while the steel is between them. The intermediate posts are formed of two channels laced at the sides, and are pinned in the center to the diagonal bars, as well as to the top and bottom chords, the pins in the center being also connected with transverse struts between opposite posts, braced by diagonal rods extending to the top lateral struts. The open-hearth steel used in the structure, specified to contain not over 0.35 per cent. of carbon, was tested by making $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch bars bend 180 degrees around their own diam-

eters, elongate 12 per cent. of their length, and sustain a pulling strain of 80,000 pounds. The tests disclosed the same superior strength in bars of small section as compared with larger ones which is observable in wrought-iron bars. The chief engineer was George S. Morrison. The floor of the bridge, which is uniform throughout, is constructed with iron guards of angle-iron, within oak guard-timbers. These angle-bars with the broad side flat will, it is expected, carry a derailed car or train for any distance.

A railroad-bridge over the Ohio River at Beaver, Pennsylvania, consists of six spans over the river and an iron viaduct across the flats on the north side of the river, 1,000 feet long. The first span on the south side is a plate deck-girder, 30 feet long; the second span over the channel is 446 feet, crossed by a double-intersection Pratt through truss; the next truss, 260 feet long, is of the same pattern; the third, 180 feet long, is a Pratt deck-truss, as are also the fifth and sixth, 230 feet each. The bridge is for a single track. The bridge proper has a length of 1,376 feet, and the iron viaduct of 1,080 feet, divided into thirty-six spans of 30 feet each. The piers for the channel-span were built up from the solid rock, in coffer-dams. They are 90 feet high from the low-water mark, and are 12 feet thick, and 30 feet long under the coping, sloping outward one in 24 to the foundation courses. The next pier, at the north end of the 260-foot span, has the same height. The next two piers, supporting the first 230-foot truss, are 60 feet high above low water, and eight wide by 24 feet long at the top. The channel-span is formed by two trusses, 18 feet apart and 42 feet high. The end-posts are inclined, and the intermediate posts, which are double, each half being formed of an eight-inch beam with plates riveted on the flanges, are stiffened by a longitudinal strut, formed of two channel-bars, fastened to them at their centers, and running the whole length of the bridge. The trusses are divided into 21 panels of 21 feet two inches each. The channel-span was erected in the river upon a temporary bridge of three spans, 135 feet each, of Howe trusses, resting on timber piers, 55 feet high, and these upon columns of rough masonry, ten feet high above low water. Under these temporary spans the river-traffic was conducted without interruption. The shorter span of double-intersection trusses was raised upon a wooden trestle-work. The viaduct rests upon iron trestles, each formed by two legs inclined one in eight, and braced by four panels of cross-struts and diagonals. The height of the viaduct is 60 feet from the ground. Each leg of the iron columns is anchored in a masonry foundation. The longitudinal bracing is a line of struts composed of two channel-bars, fastened to each leg at its center, and strengthened by diagonals. Every third span was left unbraced to allow of expansion.

The Tay Bridge disaster led to a long Parliamentary investigation. This resulted in the adoption of plans for an entirely new bridge by the side of the old one, which is still standing unimpaired, except the thirteen long spans over the main current. This number was adopted by Sir Thomas Bouch, in place of fourteen spans of shorter breadth, in order to hasten the completion of the bridge. This broke down in a high gale of wind on the 28th of December, 1879, while a passenger train was passing over, causing a terrible loss of life. (For description of the bridge see *ENGINEERING* in "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1877.) In the report submitted to Parliament the commissioners say: "The conclusion to which we have come is that the bridge was badly designed, badly constructed, and badly maintained, and that its downfall was owing to inherent defects in the structure, which must sooner or later have brought it down." The engineers stated that 20 pounds on the square foot of wind-pressure had been allowed for, although maximum pressures of 40 to 50 pounds have been observed, and the locality of the bridge is subject to storms of extreme violence. French engineers usually allow for 50 or 55 pounds per square foot of lateral wind-pressure, or more. It transpired that the customary allowance for wind-pressure made by English bridge-builders is much less than observed maximum pressures, though invariably greater than the allowance made in the iron piers of the Tay Bridge, and that the only reason why such disasters had not before occurred was that a far greater lateral stability is usually secured than is nominally held in view.

The new Thames Dock in London, which was called while building an extension of the Victoria Docks, but was opened on the 24th of June, under the name of the Royal Albert Dock, is the largest in the world. It was built to provide for the greatly enlarged shipping traffic of London, and to furnish accommodations for the steamships of colossal size which are replacing the smaller vessels for which the existing dock facilities were intended. The improvements were commenced in 1875, with the channel which was begun between the old dock and Gallion's Reach, a work which was only intended originally as a new entrance below two troublesome bends in the river. This plan was abandoned in favor of a new dock, which it was foreseen would have to be constructed before very long, and which would render the expenditure upon the canal in a large measure superfluous. Instead of the depth of 27 feet, as was intended for the canal, the depth of 30 feet was seen to be necessary in the new dock to accommodate such vessels as the Orient. The new dock is connected with the Victoria Dock by a channel 80 feet wide. At its lower end it has another entrance, communicating with the Thames through a large basin, connected with it by a lock, and connected by another with the river. The new dock and the old one run in one straight line,

from which the two entrances slightly deviate. The total distance between the old entrance at Blackwall Point and the new one at Galleon's Reach, below Woolwich, is two and three-quarter miles. The new entrance joins the docks to the river at its widest part. It is protected by two concrete jetties, opening outward, timber leading-jetties ending in curves presenting a wide mouth guiding into the entrance-lock. The entrance-lock to the basin is 800 feet long and 80 feet wide. It has three pairs of wrought-iron gates. The distance from the outer to the inner gate is 550 feet. There is 30 feet of water over the sills at high tide, and any of the ironclads of the British navy, as well as the largest merchant-vessels afloat, can enter the docks. The entrance-basin into which this lock conducts has an area of nine acres. From this a channel, which is 300 feet long by 80 wide, leads into the main dock. This passage has a pair of gates similar to those of the entrance-lock. The main dock has an area of 75 acres, and is one and a quarter miles long. It has a uniform breadth of 490 feet between the copings. On the south side of the new dock are being built two large dry docks, the larger one 510 feet long and 84 feet wide, and the lesser one 420 feet long and 68 feet wide. Their sills are 22 feet below high water. The largest ironclads can be admitted into the first. Beneath the passage connecting the two wet docks the double track of the Great Eastern Railway passes through a tunnel 1,800 feet long, the gradients of which are one in fifty from both sides, the level of the track in the center being $43\frac{1}{2}$ feet below the high-water line. Another double-line railway, as well as a roadway, is carried over the connecting canal by one of the largest swing-bridges yet made. It spans 90 feet, and weighs over 860 tons. The Royal Albert Dock-works are remarkable for the extensive use in them of Portland-cement concrete. The dock-walls of the whole of the main dock and its entrances from the Thames and from the old dock, as well as the two great graving docks, are constructed almost entirely of this material, which was made and deposited on the spot. The aggregate length of the dock-walls and the walls to the passages is about three and a half miles. These walls are about 40 feet high, five feet thick at the top, and 18 or 19 feet thick at the base. They required in their construction about 500,000 cubic yards of concrete, for which some 80,000 yards of Portland cement were used, besides about 20,000,000 brick. Upward of 4,000,000 cubic yards of material were excavated and lifted an average height of seventeen feet, which was accomplished by steam-excavating machinery of the most advanced types. The steam-navvies used were capable of moving 500 cubic yards a day each. The number of steam-engines constantly employed for various purposes was 70, the number of workmen 2,000 to 3,000; 43,000,000 gallons of water a day have at times been pumped out. All the

lock-gates, swing-bridges, cranes, capstans, etc., used in connection with the docks are worked by hydraulic machinery; and an extensive system of pressure-pipes and water-mains, with fire-hydrants attached, surrounds the whole dock. The numerous hydraulic cranes are supplied with water under high pressure from the pressure-mains through jointed pipes made of gun-metal. The total area of these docks, including the entrance-basin to the new dock, which can be employed as a landing dock if desired, is about 175 acres. They belong to the St. Katharine Dock Company. There is a complete and direct connection with the whole system of British railways. The transfer of goods to or from the manufacturing districts or the London warehouses is very perfect and economical. The docks will also be largely employed for the transfer of passengers. The cost of the dock extension would have been much greater if the gravel excavated had not been used in making the concrete. The total cost was about £1,000,000.

The harbor of Holyhead, on the island of that name, adjacent to the Island of Anglesea, at the northwest corner of Wales, is important, as being the regular landing of the Irish steamship traffic, lying directly opposite Dublin. The harbor is formed by the great breakwater which was begun by J. M. Rendel, in accordance with an act of Parliament passed in 1847, and completed after his death, by Sir John Hawkshaw, in 1873, the plans having been changed and the pier extended so as to inclose 400 acres of deep water, in addition to the 267 acres of water-space originally intended. The outer end of the breakwater was constructed with extreme difficulty, owing to the great depth of the water, which was 55 feet at the extremity, and the heavy seas which washed out of place the huge blocks of stone which were employed, and the rubble foundation 250 to 400 feet wide. An extension of this harbor and new landing docks have been dredged out within the shelter of the breakwater for the London and Northwestern Railway Company. The new docks were opened on the 17th of June. The railway company commenced the harbor extension in 1862, adding ten acres to the area of the harbor, and in 1865 they built the quay-wall which forms the west side of the new harbor. The quay on the east side was commenced, as the beginning of the extensive improvements just completed, in 1874. The harbor, which has been excavated for the traffic of the railway and its sixteen steamships employed in the Irish packet service, is 2,000 feet long and 600 wide. The cost has been about £500,000. In connection with this large open dock is the graving dock, with an entrance 70 feet wide, a floor 398 feet long, and a depth of 27 feet.

Important dock and harbor works are being constructed at Milford Haven, South Wales. The docks, which are being constructed after the plans of J. M. Toler, will have an area of

62½ acres. They include a graving dock 710 feet long and 96 feet wide, in obtaining the foundations for which some of the deepest excavation ever accomplished under tidal water has been done. In the construction of the sill, which is 34 feet below high water in ordinary spring tides, a large iron caisson was used in excavating for the foundation. The sill or entrance is in the form of a groove, the object being to enable the dock to be used as a wet dock for very large vessels when desired. The sill-stones are blocks of granite placed directly on the solid rock, which was excavated to the average depth of eight feet. The gate to the entrance is a floating caisson, the largest ever made of its kind. A large caisson-chamber for receiving the caisson when opening the dry dock, with heavy walls of limestone and concrete, is 100 feet long, 45½ deep, and 15½ wide. This chamber was excavated in the rock to the depth of 12 feet. Some of the deep foundations were obtained by sinking a kind of cofferdam formed by a huge monolith of concrete. This was built up on the surface of the ground to be excavated, and the inclosed earth dug out, the weight of the mass causing it to sink, the sides being built up above the water-level in the beginning or progressively while it was sinking. The largest of these monoliths, used in digging for the foundation of a breakwater at the lock-entrance to the graving dock, is 36 feet by 24 feet, with side-walls averaging six feet in thickness. This had to be sunk 57 feet below the surface of the ground before reaching the solid rock. This mode of tidal excavation has not before been tried in England. It promises to be a valuable method for sinking the foundations of piers, breakwaters, or lighthouses. A channel, 100 yards wide, giving 34 feet of water at high spring tide, has been cut from the graving dock to deep water in the haven. The dry dock has an entrance at both ends, communicating with the wet dock and with the haven, allowing it to be used as a tidal basin or as a lock. A small graving dock, 300 feet long, and capable of accommodating ships of 20 feet draught, is within the area of the wet dock. In this new graving dock the Great Eastern steamship was recently docked for repairs. Of the 62 acres of dock area in the haven, one half will soon be opened for use, affording 5,000 feet of wharfage, with quays of an average depth of 200 feet. When the whole of the wet docks are completed the wharfage-room will be about 7,000 lineal feet, with 26 feet of water in the basin. The entrance-lock will be 500 feet long and 70 wide, with 34 feet of water on the sills at spring tide. A low breakwater will protect the entrances to the tidal lock of the basin and to the graving dock. Close to the docks is a deep-water iron pier, with three lines of railroad-track leading to the coal-fields. There are several hydraulic cranes and a powerful hydraulic elevator attached to the pier, which are capable of discharging 1,000 tons of coal in twenty-four

hours. The pier can also be used for landing passengers, as it is approachable at all states of the tide. This pier is of a novel design. It is nearly 1,000 feet long and 40 feet wide, and is built of solid wrought-iron bars, or screw-piles.

Extensive dock accommodations have been added at Hartlepool, which is the only harbor of refuge along an extensive stretch of dangerous coast, and has now been made one of the most accessible and commodious ports on the eastern coast of England. The docks have been extended by successive additions since the first one was commenced in East Hartlepool in 1840, until they now embrace an area of 176½ acres. The east harbor is connected with the harbor of West Hartlepool, which has too shallow an entrance for large craft, by a deep channel. A large flat which was covered at high tide has been excavated to form the new dock. A tidal basin connects this with the deep-water channel, letting into East Hartlepool Harbor, which is open to the sea. The tidal lock or basin, which is 450 feet long and 26 to 27 feet deep, is provided with a double set of gates, the outer pair of which are constructed of wrought-iron, with air-tight compartments large enough to enable them to float on water. They are operated by hydraulic machinery. The bridges for railroads over the entrance passage are of remarkably easy action; though containing 500 tons of wrought-iron and 200 tons of cast-iron each, they revolve upon a system of wheels of pure steel as though they were of the lightest construction.

The boring of the St. Gothard Tunnel has been completed, the latter part of the work having proceeded with increased rapidity. The Belgian system of tunneling by top-headings, adopted by the late engineer, Louis Favre, and the use of compressed-air drills of the latest types, compressed-air locomotives, and improved methods of ventilation, have enabled the work to be done at quicker rates than would have been possible if the engineers had not so readily availed themselves of new inventions. (See *ENGINEERING*, in "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.) Before the two sections of the tunnel met, the temperature had become almost insupportable in the headings. Two serious hindrances were encountered in the latter portion of the work: a large influx of water occurred at one point, and at another the tunnel passed through a mass of disintegrated feldspar with alumina and gypsum, which swelled very rapidly upon contact with air, and was pressed out by the weight of the superincumbent rocks with a force sufficient to crush every kind of arched lining which could at first be devised. Granite arches capable of withstanding the enormous pressure were finally made, though the heavy lining of five feet thickness was sometimes broken down, and had to be reinforced with side-walls, also of granite, about 6½ feet thick. The two headings met on the 30th of April; the calculations

as to grade and direction proved surprisingly accurate, and the deviation was almost infinitesimal. It is proposed to connect the tunnel with Andermatt by a sloping tunnel 700 metres in length. Andermatt lies almost exactly midway between Goeschenen and Airolo. This slight extension of the scheme would, it is thought, not only prove profitable by increasing the receipts, but would make the ventilation of the main bore as good as could be desired, and also prove extremely useful in case the tunnel should cave in and become temporarily impassable on either side.

The Mont Cenis route passed through the same soft stratum of decomposed feldspar and gypsum which proved so serious an obstacle in boring the St. Gothard Tunnel, crossing it in an open cutting in the Replat section, near Modane. The sides of this excavation have been continually crumbling, and the cutting has only been kept clear at great expense and by the exercise of constant vigilance. The cutting is consequently being replaced by a tunnel 1,583 metres in length, which enters the mountain about 1,000 metres from the mouth of the great Fréjus Tunnel, and joins the latter about 600 metres from its terminus. The Colladon machinery and perforators, worked by compressed air, have been used in boring this tunnel.

A new tunnel, which is being made through the Arlberg, is intended to connect the Swiss and Austrian railroad systems without crossing German territory, and requiring to use a link belonging to the German system, as at present. This tunnel, which is intended for a double line, will be six and one half miles in length. The railroad line will follow the right bank of the Inn, passing Innsbruck, Landeck, and Bludenz. A shaft is to be sunk from the height of 1,540 feet near the middle of the tunnel, to accelerate the boring, and to secure the ventilation of the tunnel.

A ship-canal across Cape Cod is a project which has been brought forward from time to time ever since the first settlement of the American colonies. During the War of the Revolution a military commission examined the ground and reported in favor of such a cutting. In the next war its need was strongly felt, and in the succeeding period the route was surveyed, first by order of the Commonwealth authorities, from 1818 to 1824, and then by command of the Federal Government. The latter survey was carefully made by Major Perrault, an engineer of the army, in 1825, who reported the results to Congress the following year. In 1828 the Board of International Improvement adopted a route and plans, and the Government was about to execute the project; but it was abandoned, together with other public works, upon the advent of a new Administration, with a different policy regarding internal improvements. In 1860 the Massachusetts government revived the scheme, and obtained a favorable report upon it from the Coast Survey. After lying

dormant for twenty years more, the project has been taken up as a commercial enterprise, and the canal is being made by private means. An association of Boston and New York capitalists obtained an unexpired charter granted for this object, purchased a strip across the isthmus 1,000 feet in width, and arranged with contractors to commence the cutting immediately, and complete the canal in two years. The engineer is George H. Titcomb, with whom P. Elbert Nostrand is associated as assistant engineer.

The canal is to pierce the interior neck of Cape Cod at its narrowest part, connecting Buzzard's Bay, the deep indentation in the southern coast of New England, which gives to Cape Cod its peninsular form, to the arm of Cape Cod Bay, called Barnstable Bay, which hollows the other shore directly opposite the extremity of Buzzard's Bay. The route of the canal is marked out by nature. Two shallow watercourses, the Monument and Scusset Rivers, coincide with a line straight across the isthmus at its narrowest point for seven eighths of the way across. The summit of the ridge which divides them is only 35 feet above the average low-water level of the bays on each side. This narrow ridge crosses the route, which follows northeast and southwest bearings, five miles from the Buzzard's Bay entrance. The length of the canal will be a little less than eight miles. The material to be removed is very easy of excavation, consisting principally of gravel. The canal is to have the depth at mean tide-level of 25 feet, a surface width at mean tide of 225 feet, and at bottom of 66 feet. Its width at bottom is six feet less and its depth one foot less than the Suez Canal. The New Amsterdam Canal is 21 feet broader at bottom, and two feet shallower; the Caledonia Canal is not within 16 feet as broad nor within five feet as deep. The capital stock of the joint-stock company which is digging this canal is \$8,000,000, of which \$1,500,000 was paid in at the commencement. The actual distance saved to coasting-vessels by the Cape Cod Canal will be 90 miles; the saving in time at least eight hours. The advantages of this route will prove much greater and the saving more, owing to the storms and fogs encountered in rounding Cape Cod. The canal will afford a safe and protected passage between New York and Boston; and the Sound steamers, which now transfer their passengers at Stonington and Fall River, will be able to sail, just as smoothly, all the way to Boston Harbor. The navigation around this most dangerous point along the Atlantic coast is of immense magnitude. This coasting traffic, it is estimated, employs 40,000 vessels annually, carrying cargoes of \$600,000,000 aggregate value. The saving in insurance, time, wages, etc., which the canal will effect at the start is calculated to amount to \$1,500,000 a year. The tonnage which is expected to pass through it the first year is 4,000,000 tons. The canal will facilitate commercial intercourse not

only with New York and the Sound ports, but will render the coasting-trade speedier and safer between New England and all the rest of the seaboard. The final survey of the route was made in July, and work was commenced the middle of September, 1880. The northeast end of the canal is about one third of a mile north of Sandwich. Here two parallel jetties will be carried out into deep water, forming a prolongation of the canal-banks. An interior basin of ten acres' area, made by excavating a salt marsh within the line of the shore, will serve as a harbor. It connects with the canal and the channel between the jetties at their point of meeting. Breakwaters will be so constructed that vessels can run up into the basin from Cape Cod Bay in all weathers. At the head of Buzzard's Bay and at the mouth of Monument River is an excellent natural landlocked harbor. The engineer employed by the same company in 1878, Clemens Herschel, estimated the cost of the canal at \$2,500,000, allowing only 15 to 20 cents per cubic foot for excavation, which estimate was only one quarter of that first made by the present engineers. The former schemes for a canal over this route all contemplated a greater or less number of locks. The bolder plan of an expeditious, free channel cut below the level of the tide was first adopted by the company which has now taken this work in hand, and is the result of the vogue for ocean-level canals brought about by the great achievement of Lesseps and his still greater new enterprise. A serious drawback to a tide-level canal across Cape Cod may be encountered in the strong tidal current, which Herschel calculates will run through at the rate of four knots an hour. Navigation against such a current must be attended by expense and delay. Whether it would also injure the banks and bed of the canal, or entail expensive works for their preservation, can not be clearly calculated beforehand. In the second and third weeks of September several hundred Italian laborers were set at work clearing the ground and commencing the excavation at Sagamore Hill. The Cape Cod Ship-Canal Company was incorporated in the year 1870, and would perhaps have completed the undertaking some years ago had it not been for the financial panic of 1873 and its effects. They were compelled by statute to expend \$100,000 on the canal and collect \$400,000 into their treasury before the 1st of November, 1880, or to forfeit their charter. A second company was chartered April 24, 1880, who should succeed to the privileges of the old one in default of their fulfilling these conditions.

The route of the ship-canal which it is proposed to dig across the peninsula of Florida has been surveyed under the direction of General Q. A. Gillmore. If constructed, this canal will effect a saving in distance between Atlantic and Gulf ports of about five hundred miles, besides the escape from the perils of the passage through the Florida Straits. The route recommended starts from the St. Mary's River

on the east, and descends to the Gulf of Mexico through San Pedro Bay. Its length from the bar opposite the mouth of the St. Mary's to deep water in the Gulf is 169 miles. From the bar to the mouth of the river the distance is $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles. There are 34 miles of ship navigation in the St. Mary's to Camp Pinckney, the eastern terminus of the canal proper. The length of canal to be excavated from here to Ellaville is 122 miles, and from this point to deep water in the Gulf $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The summit-level is 105 feet above tide-water. The plan is to ascend the St. Mary's River to the summit-level by means of seven locks of 15-foot lift each. The summit-level commences with Okefinokee Swamp, $11\frac{1}{2}$ miles above Camp Pinckney, and is 62 miles in length. It runs 22 miles through the swamp, and 14 miles beyond the point where it emerges it meets the Suwanee River, which is to serve as the feeder of the canal. The waters are to be raised to the level of the canal, and diverted into it by means of a dam, which will produce an artificial lake near Blount's Ferry. From this lake to the end of the summit-level the distance is 18 miles. It descends on the Gulf side by two locks of 10 feet lift, then five of 15, and one of 10-foot lift. The line crosses the Allapaha and Withlacoochee Rivers, and is carried through the center of San Pedro Bay. A channel must be dug, and protected with jetties, for $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles to deep water. The drainage area tributary to the summit-level is 1,200 square miles, in which the average annual rainfall is about four feet six inches. The cost of the canal, according to the plans proposed, would be about \$50,000,000. These plans contemplate a canal 25 feet in minimum depth, 80 feet wide at the bottom, and 108 feet wide at the water-level. The locks are to be 25 feet deep on the sills, and to have a width at the gates of 65 feet, and a length of 500 feet in the chambers. They have the same dimensions as those of the projected Panama Canal, and differ from them only in the lifts. They are to be dual locks, a reserve lock being placed by the side of each working lock so that traffic may not be arrested while it is being repaired. To enable ships to pass each other the canal is to be widened to 155 feet at bottom and 255 feet at the water-surface, for 1,000 feet above and below each pair of locks; and other basins for the same purpose are to be placed at intervals of six miles along the line. To earn current expenses and 5 per cent. interest on the cost of construction, estimated at \$50,000,000, 10,714,300 tons must pass through annually if the canal-toll is fixed at 28 cents per ton, and a traffic of 1,750,000 tons would have to pass through in order to enable the current expenses and cost of maintenance to be met. The actual tonnage which passed through Florida Straits in 1879 was about 2,600,000; but this traffic will probably be much larger in future as a result of the improvements at the mouth of the Mississippi. It has been computed that the

saving upon present rates of freight and insurance between the Gulf States and Atlantic and foreign ports, which would be effected by a Florida ship-canal, would be at least 25 per cent. The drainage area available for the water-supply amounts to 1,200 square miles. The average annual rainfall is 54 inches at St. Mary's, and somewhat greater in the interior. It would afford some 1,200 cubic feet of water per second available for feeding the canal, sufficient for the supply of the canal if it can be all utilized. About one fourth of this, the actual supply, or one sixteenth of the total precipitation, must be stored away in reservoirs during the wet season for use in the dry season. The reservoir could only be economically constructed by embanking the margins of Okefinokee Swamp, and thus forming two vast shallow ponds, one on each side of the canal.

New lines for canals have been surveyed in Germany to connect all the principal navigable rivers. The canalization of the Main is proposed, between Frankfort and Mayence, a canal connecting the Rhine with the Weser and Elbe, one from Ems to the Jahde, one from the Elster to the Saale, two others connecting the Spree with the Elbe and with the Oder, one connecting the Oder with the Danube, and canals between Berlin and the cities of Rostock and Stettin. Another project is the Baltic and North Sea Ship-Canal, planned by Dahlstrom, to go from the Bay of Kiel to Brunsbüttel in the estuary of the Elbe. It is to have a minimum depth of 20½ feet, a width at the surface of 160 and at the bottom of 64 feet. A peculiar system of reservoirs and locks has been designed to increase the depth at will to 25 or 26 feet, so as to float the heaviest ironclads in the German navy. It is estimated that this canal can be completed in six years, at a cost of about \$18,750,000.

The constant shifting of the channels of the Western rivers, owing to the erosion of the light prairie soil of their banks, causes the double evils which have long been felt: that of uncertain and insecure navigation, and that of the instability and frequent destruction of riparian property, evils which increase with the growth of population and prosperity in the Mississippi Valley. The rapidity and extent of the displacement of river-beds increases in geometrical progression with the swiftness of the current. The erosion of the banks and the deposit of the material washed out causes the deflection of the current, and the gradual formation of great bends. The river returns, after a circuit, sometimes of many miles, to its old bed at a point not far below the spot where it deviated. The narrow neck of land between is eaten away by the impact of the current on the lower bank at the first bend, and bars are formed in the loop until a cut-off is formed; and then the sudden increase of slope disturbs the regimen of the river for many miles above and below; the banks below are washed away, new hollows excavated and bars deposited, the formation of

new loops hastened, and the same transformations of the channel and alterations in the velocity of the current reproduced farther down. The report of Captain Hanbury, of the Engineer Corps of the Army, on the condition of the Missouri River near Omaha, describes simple and inexpensive devices, by the skillful application of which the mutable regimen of these rivers can be controlled, their channels rectified and conserved, the navigable way kept clear, and the farmsteads and urban sites along their banks rendered secure. This is accomplished by arresting the sediment carried down by the river, and causing the deposits to take place where they will preserve or improve the channel, and either increase or lessen the slope of the bed, according to the requirements. The most effective contrivance for filling up a channel-bed when it is desired to deflect the channel into a new course, is a floating-brush dike, technically known where it is used as the "weed." It is made by nailing or wiring scraggy brush to saplings 20 or 30 feet long, and four to eight inches in diameter. The brush is sometimes made fast to a length of rope instead of to saplings. These weeds are anchored from 10 to 20 feet apart in the stream where the bed is to be filled up. The anchor is of sufficient weight to withstand the force of the current. To the down-stream end is attached a buoy to prevent the weed from being driven to the bottom by the pressure of the current. The action of these floating dikes is to retard the current and gradually check it, causing a portion of the solid matter which is rolling along the bottom, or held in suspension, to be arrested and precipitated. The sedimentation caused by these dikes is remarkably rapid, a single season often sufficing to build up the area over which they are stretched to the ordinary high-water level. Another device for the same purpose is the willow curtain. This is made of willows an inch or more in diameter, fastened parallel to each other, six or eight inches apart, with wires. The curtains are anchored athwart the current by rows of weights attached to the bottom edge, and are held up against the current, in a perpendicular or inclined position, by floats fastened to their upper edge. A screen made entirely of wire has been used in the same way as the willow curtain, with very satisfactory results. The wire is woven like a seine, and entangles rootlets and vegetable filaments, which accumulate and form a mat dense enough to check the velocity of the current. These curtains perform the same service as the brush-dikes. The protection of banks exposed to the impact of currents is another important task in this branch of hydraulic engineering. The bank is graded to a slope of two in three, or a less grade. This is inexpensively performed by hydraulic force-pumps. Watted mats of brush or willow are then spread down the bank from the flood-limit, and along the incline of the river-bed,

far enough out to prevent the bottom from being scoured out below the screen. The total width of the revetting is usually about 100 feet. The portion which is carried out into the river is sometimes anchored with pieces of rock; but usually it is held in place by the action of the current, and is soon imbedded under a deposit of sediment. The varieties of revetment which have given the best satisfaction are the brush-blanket, in which the brush is bound together to form a mat with wire; the woven brush revetment; and the willow screen, in which the willows are bound close together with wire, instead of at a distance apart, as in the willow curtain. Where the bank is protected with revetting, instead of being worn away by the current, a deposit of sediment forms on the screen which drives the current farther and farther out. The cost of these protective screens is \$2.25 to \$2.50 a foot, measured along the bank. The brush-dikes cost \$1 a running foot.

The removal of Flood Rock in Hell Gate, the entrance to New York Harbor from Long Island Sound, will widen the channel from 600 feet, its present width, to 1,200 feet. About three acres had been undermined and were ready to be blasted in August, and between five and six acres remained to be excavated. The clearing away of this obstruction will enable the largest ships to enter the East River, giving from 26 to 32 feet of water at low tide through this channel. The velocity of the tide will probably be increased by the destruction of this reef. There were over two miles of galleries, four or five feet broad and seven feet high, excavated at the beginning of December, and 783,000 feet of rock taken out, more than the whole excavations at Hallet's Reef. The entire reef is to be blown up with a single blast, in which over 200,000 pounds of the highest explosives will be used. There are ten tunnels, already 600 feet long, running parallel with the current. The tunneling progresses at the rate of 500 feet a month. The excavations are approached through a shaft, sunk from the crown of the rock, and 60 feet deep. The top of the reef is below the high-water line, and to sink the shaft a cofferdam had to be used. With the excavated material an island was built up on the surface of the rock, upon which stand a blacksmith's and repairing shop, a boiler-house, etc. The final explosion will probably take place about the middle of the year 1883.

The removal of Diamond Reef in New York Harbor, situated midway between the Battery and Governor's Island, a serious obstruction to navigation, which received its name from the wreck of the ship *Diamond* upon it, was completed on the 9th of July. The excavation of this large and dangerous rock was accomplished by means of the drilling scow invented by General Newton for submarine mining. (See *HELL GATE IMPROVEMENTS* in "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1876.) Diamond Reef was

entirely submerged, and was about four acres in extent. The surface-blasting system for submerged rocks proposed by Maillefert was tried upon this reef; and before him other contractors had attempted to clear it away, but abandoned the undertaking. These attempts were made under the authority of the city government, which entertained the plan also of building up the reef into a visible island. The average depth of the holes drilled by the rods of the drilling scow was 10 or 12 feet below the surface of the rock. As many as 21 holes, charged with 1,140 pounds of nitro-glycerine, were sometimes fired in a single blast. A part of the material of the reef consisted of deposits of glacial clay, pebbles, and boulders. General Roy Stone, the superintendent of the work under General Newton, employed an hydraulic jet for removing this lighter matter, and the deposits of silt and harbor rubbish which overlaid it and the surface of the rocky portions of the reef. Where the rock was not homogeneous, but was mixed with the clay and loose pebbles, boring with the scow was impracticable, and some device like this method of hydraulic mining was necessary. Powerful streams of water with a pressure of 150 pounds per square inch were projected upon the surface, when consisting of soft material or mixed hard-pan and detrital matter, which penetrated the mass at the rate of a foot a minute, producing a hollow three to five feet in diameter, in which boulders of 20 pounds' weight would be suspended by the force of the stream. The cost of removing the reef by these methods amounted to only \$309,400.

Appropriations have been voted by Congress to survey a route for connecting the Hudson and East Rivers above Manhattan Island by a navigable channel. The projected canal is to be 18 feet in depth, allowing the tide to pass freely from one river to the other, and from 350 to 400 feet wide. The survey has been conducted by General John Newton. The beds of Harlem River and Spuyten Duyvil Creek will be utilized. The canal is to start on the east side at the mouth of Harlem River, which it follows as far as Dyckman's Meadows, where it turns westward to join Spuyten Duyvil Creek, a cutting having to be made through a ledge of rocks and through dry ground for some distance beyond. The route then follows the creek to its mouth, considerable rocky excavation having to be made in its bed. Such a passage would save vessels going to New England with freight taken on in the North River, the distance around the Battery, about 24 miles, and would relieve the crowded rivers to the extent of this traffic. The cost of the improvement is estimated at \$2,000,000.

The French Paris-New York Telegraph Company, which has lately laid a cable across the Atlantic, is the fourth transatlantic cable line which has been established. The three others are in operation, but have all been brought

under the control of the Anglo-American Company, the pioneer association, which in spite of doubts and disasters first linked the continents of both hemispheres with two cables in 1865 and 1866. The initial capital of that company was \$3,400,000. The large profits acquired by the Anglo-American Company, during the first two years, when it possessed the monopoly of cable communication and fixed the tariff at its own discretion, first at \$20 a word, then at \$5, and afterward at \$2.50, induced French capitalists under the lead of Baron Erlanger to start a rival line. In 1869 the French Atlantic Cable was laid between Brest and the French island of St. Pierre, adjacent to Newfoundland, and thence to Duxbury, near Boston. The competition was not severe enough, though one line would have been sufficient for the business, to prevent the new company from obtaining good revenue. The situation of the French cable was particularly favorable for the distribution of messages. Competition ended in a combination; both companies pooled their earnings, establishing a uniform tariff, on the condition of the French company's having 36 per cent. of the joint gross receipts. To obtain a complete control over the traffic, the English company afterward bought out the French company, paying by agreement 1,044 francs for every share of 500 francs. A new rival sprang up immediately in the Direct United States Cable. The single cable of this company was carried from Ireland to Torbay in Nova Scotia. This new company, which immediately acquired 30 per cent. of the business, was also merged in the Anglo-American, leasing its line to that company for twenty-five years. The new French cable, recently completed, entered the field as the sole rival of the original company. Its published aim was to establish a complete double-cable line between the continents, and to efficiently compete with the British cable combination. The leading promoter of the second French cable was M. Pouyer-Quertier. One of the cables was to connect France with the United States directly without touching foreign territory, the other to unite England with her American colonies. The total length of both lines is a little over 6,000 geographical miles. The first cable, from Brest to Louisburg, on the Island of St. Pierre, 2,430 miles long, has been laid; and the continuation from St. Pierre to Rye Beach, in New Hampshire, 880 miles. Of the British cable, only the section which was to connect it with the Continental land lines, running from Penzance, on the Scilly Isles, to Brest, 151 miles, was put down. The total length of cable laid by the French company is, therefore, 3,461 miles. The cable which was to connect the Scilly Isles with St. Pierre would have a length of 2,285 miles, and the extension to Torbay of 270 miles. From the latter terminus lines would have to be constructed to connect the cable with the Canadian land system. This cable was to have a double termi-

nation on the European side, a cable 30 miles long from Penzance to Land's End, connecting it with the British lines, and the one already laid joining it to the Continental land system at Brest. The company was already provided with a repairing-ship before the cable was laid. The communication has been interrupted twice, once by a break in the main cable, which occurred May 22d near the Island of St. Pierre, which was repaired the same month, and a second time by a break in the section between St. Pierre and Cape Cod, which occurred November 21st.

A cable connecting England and Norway has been laid between Newbiggin and Grøderig, near Arendal, Norway, a distance of 424 miles, and thence to Marstrand, Sweden, a distance of 99 miles. The core is 120 pounds of copper and 200 of gutta-percha per mile. It is sheathed with 12 wires, for a part of the distance No. 6, and for a part No. 8. Both sections have heavy doubled shore-ends.

The third cable of the triplicate line between Marseilles and Algiers has been laid. It has a length of 525 miles, and is of the same type as the new Australian cable, described below.

A cable, 525 miles in length, has been made by the India Rubber Telegraph Works in England, for the Mexican Telegraph Company of the United States, to be laid in the Gulf of Mexico between Vera Cruz and one of the coast islands in Texas, near the mouth of the Rio Grande. It has a core with 107 pounds of copper and 166 of gutta-percha per mile. The main portion is sheathed with 12 No. 6, and the shore-ends with 14 No. 1 galvanized iron wires. The whole cable is thoroughly protected by compounds and tapes. The line is to run from Brazos Santiago to Tampico, and thence to Vera Cruz, 505 miles in all. By arrangement with the Mexican Government it will transmit all the foreign messages of the Mexican lines. This cable will reduce the distance between the United States and Brazil, or the west coast of South America, by over 6,000 miles, and the cost in proportion, as all messages must now be sent by way of Lisbon and the Madeira Islands.

The duplicate Australian submarine cable consists of four sections: Penang and Malacca, 275 miles; Malacca and Singapore, 116 miles; Singapore to Banjoewangie, 920 miles; Banjoewangie to Port Darwin, 1,131 miles. The cable was all laid but the last section in 1879. The core of this cable is 107 pounds of copper and 140 pounds of gutta-percha per mile. The deep-sea portion has eleven No. 13 homogeneous wires covered with two layers of protecting tapes. In the intermediate and shore-end portions the core is protected from insects by being wound round with brass tape. The cable was all down on January 28th.

A cable between Hong-Kong and Manila, which was put down in April, has a similar core to the above in the deep-sea section, cov-

ered with nine homogeneous iron wires alternating with as many manila strands, each wire being separately taped, and the whole cable sheathed in two of the patent compound tapes; the other portions are of four kinds, differing in the size and in the number of wires used in the sheathing, according to the depth. They all have their cores protected with the patent covering to keep out insects, and are wrapped in outside tapes. The ends of the different cables are connected with insulated wires laid in pipes filled with water. At Banjoewangie there is a length of 11 miles of these pipes, and at Hong-Kong the pipes are carried over a hill 444 feet high. Some insulator for the core which will stand dry heat better than gutta-percha is greatly desiderated. The most promising substitute is the ozokerit core invented by Henley. The length of the cable is 529 nautical miles, the length of the deep-sea section 327 miles.

These cables were laid by the Telegraph Construction Company, of England, which has also laid for the Anglo-American Company an Atlantic cable, 2,073 miles in length, between Valentia, Ireland, and Heart's Content, Newfoundland, utilizing for 170 miles from Heart's Content, and 94 miles from Valentia, the shore-ends and a portion of the intermediate section of the 1866 cable. The new cable has a core with 300 pounds of copper and 300 pounds of gutta-percha per mile. The deep-sea portion has ten No. 13 homogeneous wires, each one covered with Clifford's compound, a new protective, and separately taped, alternating with hemp yarn, the whole being incased in tape. About 190 miles of the cable made for the Breast-St. Pierre line were used in the deep-sea portion; this has 400 pounds each of copper and gutta-percha per nautical mile in its core. At the shore-ends the cable was made with steel wire for short distances, so that it may be grappled and raised without breaking in case it may have to be taken up for repairs. The cable was laid in the month of August, by the steamships Scotia and Seine. This cable is the restoration of that laid in 1866, of which the two shore-ends were utilized. It is called the cable of 1880. The 1866 cable was broken January 13, 1877, and finally abandoned July 27, 1878. Its renewal has cost about \$1,100,000. The 1865 cable was broken March 11, 1873, and abandoned finally February 1, 1878. The third cable laid by this company, in 1873, was broken April 2, 1879, but is still in operation, as well as that laid in 1874, in which no break has occurred. The Anglo-American Company has, consequently, three cables of its own in operation between Ireland and Newfoundland, with extensions to Sydney, 300 miles.

The Erlanger cable, which was purchased by the Anglo-American Company from the first French company, was broken in May, 1870, the year after it was first laid, and has been broken and repaired several times since. The

last time it was repaired was in August, 1879, the break having occurred on the 22d of the preceding February. It was worked until December, 1880, when it broke again. The company then declared their intention of abandoning the cable, as it was too rotten to warrant any further attempts to keep it in order. The cable of the Direct United States Company, which was laid in 1874, has twice broken, once near the Torbay end of the main cable, January 4, 1879, and once in the section between Torbay and Rye Beach, in February of the same year. The cable was repaired, and is supposed to be in good condition. The working of the Muirhead system of duplex telegraphy in the Direct United States line has fully doubled the capacity of the cable. Brown and Allen's relay enables this line to send messages direct from Torbay to New York without transmitting at Rye Beach.

There are six cables, between 15,000 and 16,000 miles in aggregate length, now working between Europe and America. Their total cost has been about \$55,000,000. The three cables of the Anglo-American Company have an aggregate length of about 6,450 miles; the old French cable is 3,329 miles long; the Direct United States cable from Ireland to Torbay and Rye Beach is 2,360 miles long; and the new French cables have a total length of 3,461 miles. A project has been mooted of a double cable line, to be built with American capital, and used in connection with the United States lines, remaining under the control of one of the American telegraph companies. The projected cable was to extend from Cape Cod to Cape Breton.

The danger of overhead telegraph-wires in cities, and the occasional stoppages of electric communication by breakage of the wires caused by storms or incrustations of ice, have impressed both the public and the directories of the companies with the necessity of soon adopting some method of underground insulation, especially in inhabited places. In England gutta-percha has been used for several years, not with entire success. In Germany there are long lines of subterranean telegraph similar to ocean-cables, and these have been worked satisfactorily for periods long enough to prove them, though the insulation is less perfect than in overhead wires. The Western Union Company has a cable of 60 wires running under the North River, and one of 80 wires under the streets of New York City, the wires being inclosed in iron pipes of 2½ inches aperture. Brooks's underground system has been tried with success in a section across the St. Louis suspension-bridge, and is also employed for telephone-wires. This cable is made by drawing copper wires, wrapped in cotton or jute, through iron pipes filled with liquid paraffine, every particle of moisture being carefully excluded from the materials, and no air suffered to enter.

EUROPE. The area of Europe was estimated in 1880 at 9,710,340 square kilometres,

or 3,749,313 square miles.* With regard to their population, the countries of Europe (inclusive of their European dependencies) held the following relative position in 1880:

1. Russia (inclusive of Finland).....	74,509,000
2. Germany.....	45,500,000
3. Austro-Hungary.....	38,000,000
4. France.....	37,147,000
5. Great Britain (inclusive of Malta, Gibraltar, and Heligoland).....	35,098,000
6. Italy.....	28,210,000
7. Spain.....	16,343,000
8. Belgium.....	5,536,000
9. Roumania.....	5,376,000
10. Turkey (exclusive of Bulgaria, East Roumelia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina).....	4,790,000
11. Portugal (inclusive of Azores).....	4,618,000
12. Sweden.....	4,579,000
13. Netherlands.....	4,087,000
14. Switzerland.....	2,808,000
15. Denmark (inclusive of Faroe Islands and Iceland).....	2,053,000
16. Bulgaria.....	1,965,000
17. Norway.....	1,879,000
18. Servia.....	1,652,000
19. Greece.....	1,650,000
20. Bosnia and Herzegovina.....	1,326,000
21. East Roumelia.....	816,000
22. Montenegro.....	800,000
23. Luxembourg.....	205,000
24. Andorra.....	18,000
25. Lichtenstein.....	9,000
26. San Marino.....	8,000
27. Monaco.....	7,000
Total.....	818,484,000

The Eastern question kept Europe throughout the year in a state of excitement, though not to the same degree as in 1879. (See EASTERN QUESTION.) Of the two provisions of the Treaty of Berlin which had not been carried out in 1879—the cession of territory to Montenegro and Greece—only the one relating to Montenegro was disposed of toward the close of the year 1880; the other, the Greco-Turkish difficulty, being carried over into the new year. The Porte, with the consent of the great powers, concluded a special treaty with Montenegro, according to which Turkey kept the territory which the Berlin Treaty had given to Montenegro, and in exchange promised to cede to Montenegro the town of Dulcigno and some neighboring villages. In the execution of this new treaty the Turkish Government was so dilatory, that the European powers, by sending their fleets into Turkish waters, made a joint demonstration against Turkey. In October the representations of the German, Austrian, and French ambassadors at last prevailed upon the Turkish Government to order the evacuation, which was effected in November, after the resistance of the Albanians to it had been overcome. (See MONTENEGRO.) For settling the dispute between Greece and Turkey, the great powers arranged another conference of plenipotentiaries at Berlin, on June 16th. The conference agreed upon a new frontier between Greece and Turkey, which the Turkish Government refused to accept, and which Greece declared itself determined to conquer if necessary by force of arms. (See EASTERN QUESTION and

GREECE.) At the close of the year no real progress toward the permanent settlement of the question had been made. In the mean while the condition of Turkey continues as hopeless as before, and a further disintegration of the empire becomes more and more probable. (See TURKEY.)

In England, public attention was engrossed by the change of government and the threatening attitude of the Irish Land League. The general elections which began at the close of March, led to a crushing defeat of the Conservative party, and to the formation of a new Liberal Government under the leadership of Gladstone. It was to be expected that England's influence in the great international questions, especially in the Eastern question, would be weakened by this change, and so the new Government, at the close of the year 1880, could not point to a single success in its foreign relations. In home questions the successful progress of the Irish Land League was a cause of still greater embarrassment. All parties in the United Kingdom agree in the opinion that in Ireland the leaders of the Land League possess a much greater influence than the English Government. No one expects that the result of the trial, which the Government in the last days of the year instituted against the leaders of the League, can in any way determine the further development of the Irish question, which bids fair to occupy a very prominent position in the history of the year 1881. (See GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND.) The war in Afghanistan inflicted again some severe losses upon the British army, and at the close of the year no definite agreement between the English and Afghan governments had been arrived at. (See AFGHANISTAN.) In South Africa, the English Government had to face two new wars, the rising of the Basutos, who refused to deliver up their arms, and the attempt of the Boers of Transvaal to restore their republic. (See CAPE COLONY.)

In Russia the Nihilists again scared the Government by a new plot against the Emperor's life, which was followed by the appointment of an executive commission, with General Loris-Melikoff at the head. The commission was clothed with very extensive powers for the purpose of rooting out Nihilism. The effect of the terrorism which prevailed in Russia in consequence of the bold operations of the Nihilists made itself felt at the gloomy celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Emperor's accession to the throne. In the course of the year Melikoff succeeded, however, in checking the demonstrations of the Nihilists, and in allaying, to some extent, the growing discontent of large classes of the Russian people. The negotiations with China on the retrocession of Kulja were not yet concluded at the close of 1880, and the war against the Tekke-Turkoman was to recommence. (See RUSSIA.)

In Italy, the resignation of the Ministry of Cairoli led to the dissolution of the Chambers,

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, article EUROPE, for a table of the European countries, arranged in order of their areas.

and a new general election, at which the Ministry again obtained a small majority. The Ministry successfully repressed the impetuosity of the party of Italia Irredenta, which clamors for the annexation of the Italian districts of Austria to Italy, and thereby endangers the continuance of friendly relations between the two countries. Republican sentiments are gaining strength, and are well represented in the Italian Parliament. (See ITALY.)

In France, the republican form of government is making from year to year greater progress. The supplementary election of members of the Chamber of Deputies, as well as the election of general councils, resulted in a signal victory for the Republican party. A violent conflict between the Government and the Catholic party arose, when the former, on March 29th, issued a decree, which enjoined upon all religious communities the duty to apply for a recognition by the state, and to submit to the Government their rules for approbation. The members of all the communities which failed to comply with the demand of the Government were sent out of the country. When the Prime Minister Freycinet hesitated to carry through this policy, he had to give way to Jules Ferry, who announced to the National Assembly, when it reassembled in November, that a complete compliance with the law of the country had been enforced. The relations of France with all foreign countries were of a peaceable character, and some warlike utterances which Gambetta ventured to make in a speech at Cherbourg were promptly disowned. (See FRANCE.)

In Germany, the new protective policy of Bismarck was fully carried through, without, however, producing the favorable result which the Government expected from it. The rate of taxation is higher than before, because the Government demanded and obtained from the Reichstag an increase of the military budget for the next seven years. The exceptional laws aiming at the repression of the Social Democracy were allowed to remain in force until 1884. In April, Bismarck again tendered his resignation, because, in the discussion of a new stamp-tax by the Bundesrath, Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony had been outvoted by the smaller states under the leadership of Württemberg. The resignation was, however, revoked, as the Bundesrath complied with the wishes of Bismarck, who remained at his post, although the Reichstag rejected a number of the measures proposed by him. The Government of Prussia showed itself willing to make some concessions to the demands of Rome, but a full reconciliation was not obtained; and at the completion of the Cologne Cathedral the Catholic party kept aloof from the celebration in so demonstrative a manner that the Conservative party of the Prussian Diet cut the alliance which had hitherto existed between the two parties. (See GERMANY and PRUSSIA.)

In Austria, the Cabinet of Count Taaffe drifted more and more into the ranks of the

Federalistic party. The representatives of liberal ideas resigned in the course of the year, and the new members were either mere functionaries, without any political convictions, or members of the Federalistic party. An important concession made to the Czechs in regard to the official use of their language, widened the breach between the Ministry and the bulk of the German population of Austria, and called forth on the part of the latter several enthusiastic manifestations of attachment to the German nationality. In the foreign relations of the empire there was no notable change, and the meeting of the Emperors of Austria and Germany at Ischl was regarded as a confirmation of the German-Austrian alliance, which both parties appeared equally desirous to keep intact. (See AUSTRIA.)

EVANGELICAL ASSOCIATION. The following is a summary of the statistics of the Evangelical Association, as they are given in the "Christian Family Almanac" for 1881:

CONFERENCES.	Itinerant preachers.	Local preachers.	Members.
East Pennsylvania.....	83	70	14,864
Central Pennsylvania.....	76	66	11,618
Atlantic.....	20	10	2,148
Pittsburgh.....	57	58	7,735
Erie.....	31	10	2,782
New York.....	38	14	4,108
Canada.....	87	19	4,723
Ohio.....	54	66	7,933
Michigan.....	45	86	5,802
Indiana.....	89	87	5,285
South Indiana.....	21	9	2,046
Illinois.....	82	73	10,207
Iowa.....	48	11	3,583
Wisconsin.....	66	26	10,097
Minnesota.....	44	12	4,292
Nebraska.....	18	8	675
Des Moines.....	34	85	3,274
Kansas.....	41	24	3,087
Pacific.....	9	4	708
Switzerland.....	20	6	3,419
Germany.....	35	11	4,261
Total.....	898	595	112,197

Whole number of churches, 1,477, having a probable value of \$3,115,299; number of parsonages, 435, having a probable value of \$426,816; number of Sunday-schools, 1,976, with 131,257 scholars; number of baptisms, 1,466 of adults, and 7,494 of children; amount of conference contributions, \$5,098; of contributions for missions, \$64,911; of Sunday-school and tract contributions, \$2,106.

The annual meeting of the *Missionary Society and Board* was held at Cleveland, Ohio, October 8th. The total receipts for missions had been, for the year, \$72,561, of which \$13,605 had been contributed to the principal treasury for home and European missions, \$3,020 for the heathen missions (in Japan), and \$55,849 had been received by the conference treasuries. The expenditures had been \$80,860, exceeding the receipts by \$8,298. The subject of establishing a harbor mission in New York City was considered and referred to the bishops. The proposed organization of a Woman's Missionary Society was approved.

F

FAVRE, JULES CLAUDE GABRIEL, a French statesman, born in Lyons, where his father was a tradesman, March 21, 1809; died January 19, 1880, at Versailles. M. Favre is known in the political history of France as a life-long adherent of republican principles. At the outbreak of the Revolution of 1830, he was a law-student at Paris. He took a very active part in the revolution, and wrote articles in the Paris newspapers in favor of a republic. He first joined the Lyons bar, and in 1841 fought with the National Guards against the rioters. In 1835, defending some political prisoners before the House of Peers, he began by saying, "I am a republican," and, though ill, spoke for four hours. After the Revolution of 1848, he became secretary to Ledru-Rollin, and was credited with the authorship of the celebrated instructions to the provincial commissioners. He resigned this post on being elected deputy, was for a short time Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, supported the prosecution of Louis Blanc, and voted on some other questions with the Right. He condemned the expedition to Rome, and Louis Napoleon's presidential acts, and, on Ledru-Rollin's flight, became the virtual leader of the Mountain. After the *coup d'état* he kept for six years aloof from any active participation in political life, confining himself till 1858 to the exercise of his profession. In that year his defense of Orsini secured his election for Paris, and he became the leader of the Republicans who were the nucleus of the gradually increasing parliamentary opposition to the Empire. In 1863, being also elected for Lyons, he decided for that city, to secure that seat for the Republicans. His speeches on Mexico, Italy, and Germany made a great sensation; nevertheless, he was defeated at Lyons in 1869 by the more radical Raspail, and in Paris defeated Rochefort by only a small majority. After the overthrow of Napoleon's dynasty, he became Vice-President of the Provisional Government of National Defense and Minister of Foreign Affairs. He had to carry on the negotiations with Bismarck concerning the conclusion of a treaty of peace, and his remarkable failure as a diplomatist is now a matter of history. From the position taken in his diplomatic circular, that he would pay any amount of indemnity, but not give up an inch of French territory, he had to recede in a very conspicuous manner when he consented, in the treaty of peace, to the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany. Previously, in concluding the armistice, he had not only been beguiled into excluding Bourbaki, but he had forgotten to notify the exclusion to the Bordeaux Government. A still more disastrous blunder was his insisting, despite Prince Bismarck's warnings, on the Paris National Guard retaining their arms, without which the Commune

could scarcely have occurred. He was elected by six departments to the Assembly, and remained Minister of Foreign Affairs till conservative pressure obliged M. Thiers to substitute M. de Rémusat. In 1867 he was elected a member of the French Academy, as successor of M. Victor Cousin. On this occasion, as well as in several speeches made in the National Assembly, he strongly declared his belief in God and Christianity, and he was looked upon as a devoted member of the Catholic Church. An action for defamation, which, though resulting in a condemnation, had laid bare remote domestic irregularities, confirmed him in his desire to withdraw from political life. A widower since 1870, he married in 1874 a Protestant governess, and finally became a regular attendant at Protestant worship. His two principal works were "Rome et la République française" (Paris, 1871), and "Le Gouvernement du 4 Septembre" (2 vols., 1871-'72), both of which have been translated into English.

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES. The monetary transactions of the Government have been marked during the year by a large increase in the receipts, especially from duties on imported goods, while the expenditures, except for pensions, have increased but little, as will be seen by the following statement:

NET ORDINARY RECEIPTS.	YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	
	1879.	1880.
Duties on imports.....	\$137,250,047 70	\$186,522,064 60
Internal revenue.....	118,561,610 58	124,009,873 92
Sales of public lands.....	924,781 06	1,016,596 60
Taxes on national banks.....	6,747,500 32	7,014,971 44
Interest repaid by Pacific Railway Companies.....	2,707,201 03	1,707,867 13
Sinking fund for Pacific Railway Companies.....		786,621 22
Fees, fines, etc., customs.....	1,100,871 66	1,143,900 16
Fees, consular patents, and lands.....	2,136,051 79	2,337,029 00
Sales of Government property.....	181,128 81	282,616 50
Profits on coinage.....	2,924,938 67	2,792,186 73
Revenues of District of Columbia.....	1,741,461 16	1,809,469 70
Miscellaneous.....	4,551,591 68	4,099,693 83
Total.....	\$273,827,184 46	\$353,526,610 95

NET ORDINARY EXPENDITURES.	YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	
	1879.	1880.
War.....	\$40,425,660 73	\$33,116,916 22
Navy.....	15,125,126 84	13,536,984 74
Indians.....	5,206,109 08	5,945,457 09
Pensions.....	35,121,432 39	55,777,174 44
Interest.....	105,327,949 00	93,757,575 11
Miscellaneous.....	65,741,555 49	57,508,550 15
Total.....	\$266,947,883 53	\$267,642,957 73

The receipts from duties on imports have been derived chiefly from importations of sugar, and of woolen and silk goods, as will be seen by the following exhibit:

ARTICLES YIELDING NOT LESS THAN \$1,000,000 OF REVENUE.	RECEIPTS FOR YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	
	1879.	1880.
Breadstuffs, and other farina- ceous food not otherwise specified.....	\$2,299,949 08	\$2,558,676 90
Buttons and button materials	878,151 48	1,081,025 94
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines.....	3,433,701 16	4,079,317 67
Cotton, manufactures of.....	6,576,252 50	9,976,417 95
Earthenware and china.....	1,111,154 77	2,331,154 44
Embroideries.....	1,019,701 55	1,090,569 90
Fancy articles.....	1,376,213 37	2,140,483 49
Flax, and manufactures of.....	5,442,750 86	7,496,761 63
Fruits, including nuts.....	3,004,750 08	3,401,413 96
Glass, and manufactures of.....	1,891,022 84	2,511,368 07
Hemp, jute, etc., and manu- factures of.....	1,708,337 20	2,164,043 39
Iron, and manufactures of.....	1,982,029 91	14,108,375 24
Steel, and manufactures of.....	1,699,063 74	5,077,249 54
Leather, and manufactures of	2,620,471 25	3,411,426 63
Silk, manufactures.....	14,016,209 85	18,556,398 07
Spices.....	972,241 32	1,166,287 85
Spirits and wines.....	5,195,593 20	5,998,623 92
Sugar, molasses, and confec- tionery.....	40,250,957 34	42,210,410 24
Tin, and manufactures of.....	8,088,343 65	4,094,883 07
Tobacco, and manufactures of	4,254,946 85	4,631,899 79
Wood, and manufactures of.....	983,443 52	1,836,951 83
Wool, and manufactures of.....	18,505,840 36	29,238,370 08

The internal revenue receipts, largely increased over those of the previous year, are derived principally from spirits, tobacco, fermented liquors, adhesive stamps, banks and bankers, as will be seen by the following table:

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	RECEIPTS FOR YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	
	1879.	1880.
Spirits.....	\$52,570,284 69	\$61,185,508 79
Tobacco.....	40,183,002 65	38,870,140 03
Fermented liquors.....	10,729,320 08	12,529,802 84
Banks and bankers.....	3,198,883 59	8,350,985 23
Adhesive stamps.....	6,706,384 06	7,668,394 22

It will be noticed that the net expenditures were less than the net receipts in the amount of \$65,883,653.20, and this surplus represents the actual reduction of the debt, taking into account the cash in the Treasury.

This surplus, together with \$8,084,434.21, drawn from the cash balance of the Treasury, was applied mainly to the purchase and retirement of interest-bearing obligations of the United States, which will reduce the future annual interest charge \$4,139,797.50. The Secretary of the Treasury, in his annual report to Congress, estimates that the receipts for the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1881, will amount to \$350,000,000, and the total expenditures to \$260,000,000, leaving an estimated surplus of \$90,000,000.

The receipts to December 31, 1880, one half of the fiscal year, have amounted to \$179,383,584.30, and the payments during the same period to \$139,618,839.87, leaving a surplus for the half-year of \$39,764,744.43. This indicates that the surplus of \$90,000,000, estimated for the year, will be obtained, should the relative increase of the receipts as compared with last year be maintained.

The expenditures as stated, however, do not

include any amounts to be applied to the purchase of the debt for the sinking fund as required by law. Section 5 of the act of February 25, 1862, provides as follows:

SECTION 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all duties on imported goods shall be paid in coin, or in notes payable on demand heretofore authorized to be issued and by law receivable in payment of public dues, and the coin so paid shall be set apart as a special fund, and shall be applied as follows:

1. To the payment in coin of the interest on the bonds and notes of the United States.

2. To the purchase or payment of one per centum of the entire debt of the United States, to be made within each fiscal year after the 1st day of July, 1862, which is to be set apart as a sinking fund, and the interest of which shall in like manner be applied to the purchase or payment of the public debt, as the Secretary of the Treasury shall from time to time direct.

3. The residue thereof to be paid into the Treasury of the United States.

While the war continued, and the expenditures exceeded the receipts (excluding loans), the second of the above requirements was not carried into effect, as it would have been absurd to purchase outstanding debt for a sinking fund, and at the same time to issue bonds to meet current expenses.

In August, 1865, the debt reached its maximum. Every year since that time there has been a surplus revenue, and a consequent reduction of debt, as follows:

Statement showing the net receipts, net expenditures, and surplus revenues of the Government for each fiscal year from 1866 to 1880, inclusive.

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	Net receipts.	Net payments.	Surplus.
1866....	\$558,082,620 06	\$520,509,416 99	\$37,223,203 07
1867....	490,634,010 27	357,542,675 16	138,091,335 11
1868....	405,638,083 82	377,840,254 86	28,297,798 46
1869....	370,943,747 21	322,565,277 80	48,078,469 41
1870....	411,265,477 63	309,653,560 75	101,601,916 88
1871....	333,323,944 89	292,171,188 25	91,146,756 64
1872....	374,106,567 56	277,517,962 67	96,588,904 89
1873....	338,738,204 67	290,345,245 33	48,392,959 84
1874....	289,478,755 47	257,133,873 17	2,344,882 80
1875....	288,000,051 10	274,623,362 84	13,376,688 26
1876....	287,482,039 16	258,450,797 33	29,022,241 83
1877....	269,000,586 62	238,660,008 98	30,340,577 69
1878....	237,768,573 70	236,964,326 80	20,799,551 90
1879....	273,827,134 46	266,947,583 53	6,879,300 98
1880....	333,526,610 98	267,642,957 78	65,883,653 20
Total.	\$5,326,752,062 10	\$4,578,683,552 19	\$748,068,209 91

The surplus arising from 1866 to 1869 was partly held in the Treasury, increasing the cash balance from \$88,218,055.13 to \$149,502,471.60; the remainder was applied to the purchase of various kinds of securities mainly issued during the war of the rebellion, some of which after purchase were held intact, the interest accruing thereon being reinvested in the purchase of the debt, as required by the sinking-fund act. By this means, the principal of the debt was reduced from \$2,844,649,626.56 to \$2,588,452,213.94.

The bonds purchased still appeared on the books and in the reports of the Treasury as outstanding, though in fact owned by the Government.

To obviate this confusion, Congress, in section 6 of the act of July 14, 1870, directed that bonds purchased under the sinking-fund act should be canceled and destroyed. It also directed that, in addition to the bonds purchased, an amount equal to the interest on previous purchases should be annually applied to the payment of the debt.

A vague idea exists as to the effect of these sinking-fund laws—that they provide in some mysterious way a method by which, without expense, the debt is to be extinguished. This is a delusion: there is no “new way to pay old debts.” Taxation to such an extent that the revenues shall exceed the expenditures is the only way in which the debt can ever be paid. These laws are a pledge that the Government will impose such taxes that its revenues after paying current expenses shall be sufficient to purchase each year one per cent. of the entire debt, and a certain additional amount equal to the interest which would have accrued on all the bonds purchased had they remained outstanding.

A statement setting forth the requirements of the sinking fund, from May, 1863, to June, 30, 1880, as interpreted by the Treasury, and showing the purchases made to meet such requirements, is published with the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury. From the statement in the last report, it seems that the purchases within the period mentioned were \$49,817,128.78 less than the amount required by law. Had the purchases been kept up as the sinking-fund law appears to direct, the current expenses of the Government could not have been met. From the same report it appears that for the year ending June 30, 1881, the law requires the purchase during the present year of \$39,801,884.48, which, added to the preëxisting deficit above stated, makes \$89,619,013.26 of purchases to be made during the present year to balance the sinking-fund account. As the surplus revenues for the year are estimated at \$90,000,000, this will probably be done. No calculation is set forth in the statement as to the amount required by law to be purchased for the sinking fund during the years 1862 to 1868, nor of the redemptions made, though they were of large amounts; and the statements for subsequent years show that in no year have the apparent terms of the acts been complied with.

The following is the Department's estimate of the requirements of the sinking fund for the next ten years:

1882.....	\$48,386,645 00
1883.....	45,122,110 80
1884.....	46,926,995 24
1885.....	48,804,075 04
1886.....	50,756,238 04
1887.....	52,786,487 56
1888.....	54,897,947 07
1889.....	57,093,864 95
1890.....	59,377,619 55
1891.....	61,752,724 33

Total.....\$520,904,707 58

This official statement may become important

as fixing the maximum limit to which, under existing law, surplus revenues may be appropriated hereafter to the extinguishment of the bonded debt. Should this interpretation be accepted, the debt can be purchased only to the amount of the sinking fund as stated above, and any additional surplus revenues must be held in the Treasury until further legislation. On the other hand, if the sinking fund is to be maintained to the amount stated, Congress must provide revenues by taxation sufficient to meet purchases to that amount.

The amount applied to the sinking fund must not, however, be accepted as the amount of the reduction of the debt. The amount of surplus revenue, for any period, represents the reduction of the debt for that period, whether it is applied to the purchase of outstanding liabilities, or remains in the Treasury as unappropriated assets, for such assets must be considered in any statement of the debt.

On the 1st of November, 1880, \$13,414,000 of six per cent. bonds of the act of February 8, 1861, remained outstanding, which, by the terms of their issue, were to become payable on the 31st of the following month. In view of this fact further purchases of all classes of bonds were discontinued until November 4th, when the Secretary offered to purchase any of those maturing, at the rate of 102 $\frac{1}{2}$, including accrued interest; and, although this rate was advanced on the 1st of December to 102 $\frac{3}{4}$, not many were offered.

During the calendar year ending December 31, 1880, the Government, without material reduction of the cash in the Treasury, purchased mainly upon bids received at the sub-Treasury in New York, or redeemed at par, outstanding bonds as follows:

TITLE OF LOAN.	Amount of principal.	Amount of premium.
Loan of February, 1861.....	\$12,223,000 00	\$125,439 53
Oregon war debt.....	110,750 00	4,737 04
Loan of July and August, 1861.....	88,185,450 00	1,570,751 66
Loan of 1863 (1881s).....	14,422,800 00	598,320 51
Funded loan of 1881.....	38,759,300 00	982,375 79
Consols of 1907.....	1,500,000 00	125,558 26
Total.....	\$105,231,300 00	\$3,407,191 69

The Secretary of the Treasury in his last annual report calls the attention of Congress to the advantages which would arise from refunding at lower rates the bonds which become redeemable in 1881, as follows:

TITLE OF LOAN.	Rate per cent.	Redeemable.	Amount.
Loan July and August, 1861.....	6	June 30, 1881.	\$145,786,500
Loan of 1863 (1881s)....	6	June 30, 1881.	57,757,250
Funded loan of 1881....	5	May 1, 1881.	469,651,053

and he recommends that authority be given for the issue of \$400,000,000 of Treasury notes bearing interest not exceeding 4 per cent., running from one to ten years, the amount maturing in

any one year not to exceed the amount required for the sinking fund for that year; and also \$40,000,000 of bonds of the character of the outstanding 4 per cents, but bearing a rate of interest not exceeding $3\frac{5}{10}\%$ per cent. per annum, redeemable at the pleasure of the United States after fifteen years. Under this plan the Secretary believed the outstanding bonds could be refunded, and the interest of the public debt thereby reduced \$12,000,000 per annum.

The proposition was at first favorably received in Congress, but owing to the continued advance in the market value of outstanding United States bonds, that of the 4 per cents having reached a point at which purchasers could realize only about 3-25 per cent., the belief soon became general that the interest could be reduced to 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ per cent.

The changes in the character of the public debt during 1880 will be seen by the following comparative table, compiled from the monthly debt statements:

CHARACTER OF DEBT.	AMOUNT DECEMBER 31.	
	1879.	1880.
<i>Interest-bearing debt:</i>		
Bonds at 6 per cent.	\$273,400,550 00	\$202,266,550 00
Bonds at 5 per cent.	508,440,350 00	469,651,050 00
Bonds at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	250,000,000 00	250,000,000 00
Bonds at 4 per cent.	738,490,550 00	738,420,400 00
Refunding certificates at 4 per cent.	2,855,400 00	927,400 00
Navy pension fund.	14,000,000 00	14,000,000 00
<i>Debt on which interest ceased at maturity.</i>	14,691,925 26	11,484,895 26
<i>Debt bearing no interest:</i>		
Demand and legal-tender notes.	846,742,866 00	846,741,761 00
Certificates of deposit.	10,245,000 00	7,005,000 00
Fractional currency.	18,674,303 78	7,147,580 12
Gold and silver certificates.	21,050,010 00	52,241,010 00
Interest.	24,691,953 75	21,596,379 02
Total.	\$2,219,782,408 79	\$2,121,481,475 40
Less cash in the Treasury.	207,988,908 92	222,209,739 41
Net debt.	\$2,011,798,504 87	\$1,899,181,735 99

The table below is also of interest in connection with the national finances as showing the principal items of assets held by the Treasury on January 1, 1879, the day of resumption of specie payments, and the first day of each year since.

The monetary transactions have been conducted through the Treasurer, nine assistant-

treasurers, one depositary, and one hundred and thirty national-bank depositaries. The gross receipts for the fiscal year amount to \$545,340,713.98, of which \$141,039,558.61 were received through the depositary banks. The deposits of public moneys in these banks are at all times amply secured by deposits of United States bonds with the Treasurer of the United States, and no loss has been suffered by the Government on account of such deposits of money since 1866. The moneys thus received by a depositary bank are paid out upon Treasury drafts, or transferred to the credit of United States disbursing officers, and by them disbursed to public creditors; or, if not needed for disbursement by these methods in the vicinity of the bank, they are without expense to the Government transferred to an assistant-treasurer in a locality where they are needed for such disbursement. At the close of the fiscal year there stood in the depositary banks and sub-Treasury offices to the credit of the United States Treasurer, subject to draft, the sum of \$204,683,836.34, and to the credit of United States disbursing officers \$28,581,290.93.

As agent for the redemption of national-bank notes the Treasurer of the United States redeemed during the year \$61,585,675.68, as against \$157,656,644.96 in 1879.

It is worthy of notice that the amount of gold coin held by the Government, as before stated, is the largest accumulation of such coin in the world. In addition thereto the banks held of coin on October 1st, \$108,000,000, of which about \$100,000,000 was gold. At the same time both gold and silver coin was circulating freely in the hands of the people throughout the entire country; and, thus far, since resumption, all the several kinds of currency have been kept at par with gold coin.

The monetary transactions of the country, other than those of the Government, have been conducted mainly through national banks, State banks, private bankers, and trust companies, supplemented by clearing-houses in several of the large cities. During the year ending November 1, 1880, fifty-seven national banks have been organized, with an aggregate capital of \$6,374,170; three, having a total capital of \$700,000, have failed; and ten, with a total capital of \$1,070,000, have voluntarily discontinued business, leaving in operation 2,095 banks, with a total capital paid in of \$466,365,085.

CHARACTER OF PRINCIPAL ASSETS.	AMOUNT HELD JANUARY 1.		
	1879.	1880.	1881.
Gold coin and gold bullion.	\$185,382,639 42	\$157,790,821 84	\$156,742,095 77
Standard silver dollars.	16,704,829 00	33,168,064 00	48,190,518 00
Fractional silver coin.	9,449,461 25	18,881,629 15	24,769,057 32
Silver bullion.	6,021,804 52	4,492,421 19	6,183,224 05
United States notes.	69,582,502 38	22,660,498 38	15,741,818 06
National-bank notes.	8,469,162 12	8,242,707 58	4,242,828 20
Fractional currency.	157,308 91	65,992 73	54,201 14
Deposits held by national-bank depositaries.	53,205,308 75*	11,732,314 23	12,901,607 22
Nickel and minor coin.	1,393,836 06	1,376,318 35	880,656 87

* Of this amount \$41,996,846.67 was on account of subscriptions to refunding bonds.

The following table exhibits the resources and liabilities of these banks on the first day of October, 1880:

RESOURCES.	
Loans and discounts.....	\$1,087,061,441
Overdrafts.....	8,915,826
Bonds for circulation.....	357,789,850
Bonds for deposits.....	14,827,000
United States bonds on hand.....	25,798,400
Other stocks and bonds.....	48,868,150
Due from reserve agents.....	184,562,779
Due from other national banks.....	68,023,797
Due from other banks and bankers.....	15,881,198
Real estate, furniture, and fixtures.....	48,045,883
Current expenses.....	6,356,182
Premiums.....	3,458,470
Checks and other cash items.....	12,729,002
Exchanges for clearing-house.....	121,095,250
Bills of other national banks.....	18,210,943
Fractional currency.....	367,172
Specie.....	109,346,509
Legal-tender notes.....	56,640,458
United States certificates of deposit.....	7,655,000
Five per cent. redemption fund.....	15,921,741
Due from United States Treasury.....	1,182,125
Total.....	\$2,105,756,626
LIABILITIES.	
Capital stock.....	\$457,553,985
Surplus fund.....	120,518,533
Undivided profits.....	46,139,690
National-bank notes outstanding.....	317,350,036
State-bank notes outstanding.....	271,045
Dividends unpaid.....	3,452,504
Individual deposits.....	873,537,687
United States deposits.....	7,548,539
Deposits of United States disbursing officers.....	8,844,387
Due to national banks.....	192,124,705
Due to other banks and bankers.....	75,735,677
Notes and bills rediscounted.....	8,178,238
Bills payable.....	5,081,605
Total.....	\$2,105,756,626

There are national banks in every State of the Union except Mississippi, and in every organized Territory except Arizona.

The following table shows their geographical division, together with their capital and circulation:

DIVISION.	No. of banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
New England States..	550	\$166,070,420	\$125,174,065
Middle States	651	171,507,665	121,053,704
Southern States	207	40,666,900	29,439,641
Western States.....	642	81,500,100	63,187,042
Pacific States and Territories.....	42	4,620,000	3,258,999
Total.....	2,095	\$466,865,085	\$343,834,107

The following table, compiled by the Comptroller of the Currency from returns made for purposes of taxation, shows the average capital and deposits of the State banks, trust companies, and private bankers, by geographical divisions:

DIVISION.	No. of banks.	Capital.	Deposits.
New England States..	536	\$12,015,518	\$388,969,861
Middle States	1,800	79,510,943	615,618,967
Southern States	495	31,847,370	53,504,493
Western States.....	1,883	45,743,007	169,633,732
Pacific States and Territories.....	239	25,019,987	91,368,073
Total.....	4,456	\$194,186,825	\$1,319,094,576

It will thus be seen that in the United States there were 6,551 monetary institutions, involving an aggregate capital of \$660,501,910, and holding of deposits \$2,203,525,139, an amount considerably greater than the entire public debt.

National banks before declaring dividends are required to set apart a certain percentage of their earnings in order to create a surplus fund with which to meet possible losses. This surplus fund can be loaned or invested like the capital or other moneys held by the banks, and can be paid out in dividends to a limited extent. On September 1, 1880, this fund amounted to \$120,145,649.

During the year ending September 1, 1880, the national banks paid in dividends \$36,411,473, or 8·02 per cent. on their capital. Their earnings, however, amounted in the same period to \$45,186,034. In the first dividend period 226 banks, with a total capital of \$30,407,200, and in the second dividend period 223 banks, with a total capital of \$26,334,150, passed their dividends, showing that about one fifteenth of the entire national-bank capital was unremunerative. The average number of banks passing dividends for the previous five years has been 279, with a capital of \$42,266,244, or about one tenth of the entire capital.

National banks are also required to keep in reserve a certain percentage of their deposits, being 25 per cent. in certain large cities named in the law, and 15 per cent. in all other localities. They must keep of this with the Treasurer of the United States, in lawful money, 5 per cent. of the amount of their circulating notes, to meet the redemption of such notes.

On October 1, 1880, these banks held \$968,000,000 deposits, on which there was a required reserve of \$201,000,000. The reserve actually held, however, amounted to about \$322,000,000, of which \$108,000,000 was in specie (an increase since 1879 of about \$66,000,000), and \$64,000,000 in United States notes (a decrease since 1879 of \$31,000,000). It is to be observed that the banks are doing business upon a specie basis, and that specie is being rapidly substituted for United States notes in the bank reserves, thereby increasing the currency to that extent. At the above date the banks also held with the United States Treasurer, to meet redemptions of their notes, about \$15,900,000 in lawful money.

The amount of circulating notes of the national banks, on January 1, 1880, was \$342,387,236, and on November 1, 1880, \$343,834,107. A national bank can issue of circulating notes only a certain percentage of its capital, viz.: On a capital of less than \$500,000, 90 per cent.; between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000, 80 per cent.; between \$1,000,000 and \$3,000,000, 75 per cent.; and above \$3,000,000, 60 per cent. For the United States bonds deposited to secure circulation, the bank gets 90 per cent. of the amount in circulating notes; and it can at any time withdraw the bonds by placing

with the United States Treasurer lawful money for the redemption of the notes for which the bonds are held as security—not, however, reducing the deposits of bonds below \$50,000.

The restriction in the issue of notes, as above stated, would seem to be needless, as the banks have not called for the maximum by about \$70,000,000 of the circulation to which, under existing laws, they are entitled, though probably in certain individual cases banks have been embarrassed by the restriction, and the country thereby deprived of a temporary increase of circulation when much needed. Experience shows, however, that the volume of circulating national-bank notes is not regulated so much by the necessities of business as by other causes, principally the market rate of interest and the market price of the bonds deposited to secure the notes. The lower either of these, the greater the profit on circulation will be, and the more inducement for banks to expand their issues, and conversely for a higher rate or price. The profits realized by a national bank, on its circulation, may be calculated thus: Take for illustration \$100 of capital to be thus invested, the market rate

of interest being 6 per cent. per annum, with 4 per cent. bonds at a premium of 12 per cent. The interest on the \$100 4 per cent. bond on which the circulation is issued would be \$4. The circulation received would be \$90, from which, however, must be deducted \$12 premium on bond, and \$4.50 for 5 per cent. reserve, leaving of loanable circulation \$73.50, the interest on which at 6 per cent. is \$4.41, making a total interest of \$8.41 on the original investment of \$100. From this, however, should be deducted 1 per cent. on \$90 for tax on the circulation, and nine cents approximate cost of redemption, and there remains \$7.42 or $7\frac{42}{100}$ per cent. net interest realized. Had the \$100 been loaned directly at 6 per cent., there would have been realized \$6, making a net profit by taking out circulation of $1\frac{42}{100}$ per cent. It will be readily seen that with a decreased premium on the bond the profit on circulation would have been correspondingly larger. The following table, prepared by the same method, shows that, with the price of the security bonds remaining constant, an increase in the market value of money lessens the profit of bank circulation:

CIRCULATION ISSUED ON	PROFIT WHEN MARKET VALUE OF MONEY IS						
	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.	9 per cent.	10 per cent.	11 per cent.
4 per cent. bonds at 12 per cent. premium...	1.69	1.42	1.16	.89	.63	.36	.10
$\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. bonds at par.....	1.79	1.64	1.49	1.35	1.21	1.06	.91
3 per cent. bonds at par.....	1.29	1.14	1.00	.85	.71	.56	.41

This demonstration is well confirmed by the existing distribution of the currency. In the New England States, containing about one twelfth of the population of the country, the market rate of interest as compared with that of other sections of the country is uniformly low, and that section consequently furnishes more than one third of the national-bank circulation of the entire country. In the Western States, where the rate of interest is usually high, capital has more generally sought private banking as more remunerative, there being in those States 1,883 private banks, with a capital of \$45,743,007, against 536, with a capital of only \$12,015,578, in New England; while of national-bank capital the New England States have \$166,070,420, against \$63,137,042 in the Western States. Of national-bank circulation the New England States have \$125,000,000, and the Western States \$63,000,000.

Assuming the market rate of interest to remain unchanged, or to have a tendency to increase, an increase of national-bank circulation would naturally occur only with a fall of the market price of the bonds; and this was well illustrated during the past autumn when the market value of bonds was increasing. At that time the pressure for an increase of paper circulation was so great, that the Government floated \$45,000,000 in silver certificates issued mainly upon deposits of gold—the banks meanwhile diminishing instead of increasing their

circulation, and not heeding the demand for more currency. It is very evident that no elasticity of the currency through free banking has been secured by the present banking laws. On the contrary, as currency becomes scarce and the market rates of interest advance, the tendency of the banks will be to withdraw, rather than to increase, their circulation, and the needed currency must be supplied from other sources, if supplied at all.

Whatever defects in this system of national banks may exist, it is generally conceded that no better system of banking has ever yet been devised. Many of the bank charters will soon expire, however, and the question of their renewal must be met.

The rapid reduction of the public debt, if continued at present rate, will in less than twenty years retire all the interest-bearing bonds of the United States, and the question of supplying a sound paper currency to the country in place of the present bank issues will soon be of serious importance.

The foreign trade for the calendar year 1880 has been greater than ever before in the history of the country, the exports of domestic produce alone being larger than the entire exports of any year previous to 1870.

The following tables show the rapid growth and colossal amounts of this trade. Whether these figures are to be kept up to their present proportions may admit of doubt; but while we

are being paid such enormous amounts for our products, the wisest financial legislation is demanded to properly guard the industries by which the country is being so rapidly enriched:

Statement showing the imports of merchandise into the United States, by months, for the three calendar years 1878, 1879, and 1880.

MONTHS.	1878.	1879.	1880.
January.....	\$35,699,260	\$38,515,640	\$55,208,488
February.....	32,908,153	35,373,419	55,647,471
March.....	37,637,871	41,856,611	70,886,561
April.....	36,208,947	42,136,101	74,366,455
May.....	35,228,057	35,376,046	64,876,680
June.....	35,506,288	38,890,451	60,514,563
July.....	37,061,429	41,287,507	57,304,982
August.....	36,954,081	43,082,769	56,265,063
September.....	37,412,632	44,224,878	53,228,330
October.....	37,429,897	47,739,142	54,023,788
November.....	38,254,687	50,467,271	47,108,694
December.....	31,516,331	59,602,961	47,374,897
Total.....	\$431,812,438	\$513,602,796	\$696,805,867
First quarter.....	\$106,245,284	\$110,745,670	\$181,742,520
Second ".....	106,987,692	116,402,598	199,757,698
Third ".....	111,428,742	123,595,154	166,798,375
Fourth ".....	107,200,765	157,859,374	148,507,274

Statement showing the value of the exports of domestic merchandise from the United States, by months, during the three calendar years 1878, 1879, and 1880.

MONTHS.	1878.	1879.	1880.
January.....	\$68,087,232	\$58,594,729	\$65,468,041
February.....	65,173,705	68,550,449	98,970,186
March.....	70,410,198	65,187,450	76,438,396
April.....	58,975,252	58,427,207	69,673,133
May.....	53,409,468	51,285,505	64,558,437
June.....	45,667,210	44,373,684	70,908,429
July.....	46,428,868	50,061,702	70,036,989
August.....	58,153,959	57,993,735	66,327,594
September.....	57,202,960	64,729,450	70,192,992
October.....	64,762,505	67,038,020	84,272,736
November.....	68,674,127	78,347,841	81,653,830
December.....	66,391,347	79,768,938	97,060,039
Total.....	\$728,286,821	\$754,656,755	\$875,560,802
First quarter.....	\$203,621,130	\$187,632,628	\$200,876,628
Second ".....	158,051,925	149,094,396	205,139,999
Third ".....	161,785,787	172,764,887	206,557,575
Fourth ".....	199,827,979	245,144,844	262,986,605

Statement showing the value of the imports of specie (coin and bullion) into the United States, by months, during the three calendar years 1878, 1879, and 1880.

MONTHS.	1878.	1879.	1880.
January.....	\$1,790,964	\$1,587,575	\$1,584,064
February.....	3,690,111	2,025,087	1,549,828
March.....	2,187,637	1,185,154	2,115,482
April.....	6,266,847	1,119,912	1,142,026
May.....	2,285,168	1,610,763	1,122,287
June.....	1,457,056	1,576,649	1,432,855
July.....	1,955,977	1,283,101	1,045,110
August.....	1,067,090	7,765,817	9,849,738
September.....	1,578,888	23,861,587	19,669,893
October.....	3,525,217	20,221,802	17,376,064
November.....	1,348,855	18,395,850	10,601,713
December.....	1,714,838	8,039,911	17,786,703
Total.....	\$28,867,743	\$93,192,958	\$85,275,723
First quarter.....	\$7,668,762	\$4,797,766	\$5,249,324
Second ".....	10,008,071	4,307,324	3,697,118
Third ".....	4,601,935	87,410,505	80,564,741
Fourth ".....	6,588,955	46,677,363	45,764,540

Statement showing the value of the total trade (merchandise and specie combined) of the United States for the three fiscal years ended June 30, 1878, 1879, and 1880.

FISCAL YEARS.	1877-'78.	1878-'79.	1879-'80.
Imports.....	\$466,872,846	\$468,078,775	\$760,959,056
Exports.....	728,605,891	735,436,882	582,781,577
Export excess.....	\$261,738,045	\$269,363,107	\$91,792,521
Total trade.....	1,195,478,737	1,201,515,657	1,613,770,633

The increase in the business of the country is also indicated by the following statement showing the value of the imports and exports of the United States carried in American vessels and foreign vessels from 1856 to 1880:

FISCAL YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
1856.....	\$249,972,512	\$64,667,430	\$292,295,762	\$94,669,146
1857.....	259,116,170	101,778,971	251,214,857	111,745,825
1858.....	263,700,016	78,913,184	243,491,288	81,158,138
1859.....	216,123,423	122,644,702	249,617,953	107,171,509
1860.....	223,164,855	134,001,399	279,082,902	121,039,394
1861.....	201,544,055	134,106,098	179,372,733	69,372,180
1862.....	82,274,100	113,497,623	135,421,318	104,517,697
1863.....	109,744,580	143,175,860	123,127,891	199,850,691
1864.....	51,212,977	248,359,816	102,840,409	237,442,730
1865.....	74,385,116	174,170,536	98,617,756	262,839,538
1866.....	112,040,895	322,471,763	218,671,466	251,754,928
1867.....	117,200,586	300,622,035	179,188,851	279,399,969
1868.....	122,965,225	248,659,583	175,016,348	301,886,491
1869.....	136,802,024	300,517,231	158,154,748	285,979,781
1870.....	153,287,077	309,140,510	199,732,324	329,756,978
1871.....	163,280,170	363,020,644	190,378,462	392,561,932
1872.....	177,286,302	445,416,738	168,044,799	393,929,579
1873.....	174,739,884	471,806,765	171,566,755	494,915,586
1874.....	176,027,778	405,320,135	174,424,216	538,585,971
1875.....	157,872,726	382,949,568	156,885,066	501,538,949
1876.....	143,389,704	321,139,500	167,686,467	492,215,487
1877.....	151,834,067	329,565,823	164,826,214	530,854,703
1878.....	146,499,282	307,497,565	166,551,624	569,558,564
1879.....	143,590,353	310,499,599	128,425,339	600,769,633
1880.....	164,087,606	579,894,159	115,917,891	730,072,437

From this table it will be seen that the total value of imports for 1880 was \$743,481,765, and of exports \$845,990,328—a total of exports and imports of \$1,589,472,093.

Gratifying as is this large increase of our foreign trade, and its great value for last year, it is worthy of note that, with all our resources and trade, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in 1879 had a total foreign trade of more than \$3,000,000,000, the exports of British products alone for that year amounting to more than \$1,000,000,000.

While the trade with foreign nations has been increasing at this remarkable rate, the internal commerce and industries of the country have probably increased in greater proportions, but no statistics pertaining thereto are at present available.

The results of the tenth census, which will soon be published, will present interesting information on this matter.

The following statement shows the number of failures throughout the United States by geographical divisions during the years 1879 and 1880, together with the amount of liabilities as shown by the report of the Mercantile Agency of New York:

DIVISION.	1879.		1880.	
	No.	Amount of Liabilities.	No.	Amount of Liabilities.
New England States.....	970	\$15,577,282	723	\$6,460,117
Middle States.....	2,290	85,534,191	1,472	88,958,292
Southern States.....	1,076	15,876,708	835	8,818,442
Western States.....	1,608	21,207,519	1,171	11,519,419
Pacific States and Territories.....	714	9,933,358	584	5,005,780
Total.....	6,658	\$98,149,053	4,785	\$65,752,000

It will be seen that in the number of failures, as well as in the amount of liabilities, there has been a great falling off during the last year, which indicates a corresponding increase of prosperity.

The following table shows the tonnage of the various nationalities entered at seaports of the United States from foreign countries during the years 1856 and 1880, respectively:

NATIONALITY OF TONNAGE.	YEAR ENDED JUNE 30,		Increase.
	1856.	1880.	
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British.....	935,180	7,903,059	6,967,879
German.....	166,837	1,089,740	922,903
Norwegian and Swedish...	20,622	1,294,720	1,314,098
Italian.....	15,677	612,584	596,907
French.....	23,935	232,347	208,412
Spanish.....	62,513	227,496	164,983
Austrian.....	1,477	206,349	204,872
Belgian.....	200	226,477	226,277
Russian.....	40	104,049	104,009
Dutch.....	16,892	27,151	10,259
Danish.....	5,838	69,350	63,512
Portuguese.....	4,727	24,449	19,722
All other foreign.....	14,819	154,389	139,570
Total foreign.....	1,269,057	12,112,160	10,843,103
Total American.....	3,194,275	3,128,874	*65,901
Aggregate.....	4,463,332	15,240,534	10,777,202

It will be seen that the annual aggregate of our exports has increased during the last twenty-four years from \$641,604,850 to \$1,589,472,093. In 1856 75·2 per cent. of this trade was carried in American vessels; in 1880 only 17 per cent. was thus carried. While the increase in the value of this trade is very gratifying, the decrease, meanwhile, in the amount of American tonnage engaged in the trade is viewed in some quarters with considerable alarm. It will be seen that since 1856 the tonnage of British vessels engaged in the American carrying-trade has increased from 935,180 to 7,903,059 tons. Meanwhile the tonnage of American vessels has decreased 65,901 tons. It will be remembered, however, that in 1856 the carrying-trade was mostly done in wooden vessels; and, owing to the abundance of ship-timber in this country, and the absence of duties upon articles used in ship-building, the United States was able to compete successfully in this branch of industry with any of the nations of Europe. About that time, however, the material for large vessels began to be changed from wood to iron, and the motive power from sail to steam, making the element of labor a far larger percentage of the cost of the vessel, and giving the British ship-builders,

with low wages, a great advantage over American ship-builders, with labor at the high prices which have been general in this country. To this disadvantage were added the destruction of our vessels by rebel privateers during the war, and also the imposition of duties upon iron and other articles entering into the construction of vessels. Through these means the United States have lost foreign carrying-trade worth perhaps \$100,000,000 per annum. But it is worthy of note that although Great Britain has taken the lion's share of this trade, the balance of our trade with that country during the last year was in favor of this country by the large amount of \$247,569,328.

There is, however, much hope that ere long the United States may recover a portion of the carrying-trade. The difference in the cost of ship-building material, and the price of labor as between this country and Europe, is less than formerly; and the fact that our artisans and mechanics have been enabled to cope successfully with those of other nations in the production and sale of many articles, largely through labor-saving inventions, leads us to hope that in a few years a successful competition in ship-building may also be realized.

While there has been a considerable decrease in the aggregate tonnage of the United States, the following table shows that there has been but a slight decrease in sail and steam tonnage, the large decrease since 1873 being principally in that of canal-boat and barge tonnage. The records previous to that date do not show these classes of tonnage separately.

Statement showing the amount of tonnage of the United States on the 30th day of June from 1868 to 1880, inclusive.

YEAR.	Sail.	Steam.	Canal-boat and barge.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1868...	2,475,067	1,199,415	643,827
1869...	2,399,972	1,103,568	641,100
1870...	2,363,056	1,075,095	808,326
1871...	2,256,156	1,057,637	908,814
1872...	2,325,375	1,111,552	1,000,819
1873...	2,333,501	1,156,448	1,155,782
1874...	2,473,716	1,185,610	1,141,326
1875...	2,554,910	1,168,668	1,100,154
1876...	2,608,691	1,172,372	498,895
1877...	2,580,889	1,171,196	491,014
1878...	2,521,319	1,167,678	528,767
1879...	2,422,813	1,176,172	570,615
1880...	2,366,258	1,211,558	490,213

The prosperity and credit of institutions is apparent from the market value of their stocks. During the year the values of stocks of all kinds, public and private, have as a rule

* Decrease.

largely increased, as will be seen by the following statement showing the closing prices of the principal bonds and stocks in New York City on the first business days of the years 1880 and 1881 :

CHARACTER OF INVESTMENT.	1881.	1880.
UNITED STATES BONDS.		
6's, 1880, registered.....	101½	102½
6's, 1880, coupon.....	101½	104½
6's, 1881, registered.....	101½	104½
6's, 1881, coupon.....	101½	104½
6's, 1881, registered.....	101½	104½
6's, 1881, coupon.....	101½	104½
4½'s, 1891, registered.....	111½	106½
4½'s, 1891, coupon.....	112	106½
4's, 1907, registered.....	112½	108½
4's, 1907, coupon.....	112½	108½
6's, currency, 1895, registered.....	130	120½
6's, " 1896, ".....	131	120½
6's, " 1897, ".....	132	121
6's, " 1898, ".....	133	122
6's, " 1899, ".....	134	122½
RAILROAD AND MISCELLANEOUS STOCKS.		
Central of New Jersey.....	86½	81½
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy.....	181	187½
Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul.....	114½	76½
Chicago and Northwestern.....	101½	101½
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific.....	125½	9½
Chicago, St. Paul and Minneapolis.....	140	106½
Delaware and Hudson Canal.....	185½	149½
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western.....	92½	75½
Hannibal and St. Joseph.....	110	84½
Illinois Central.....	48½	34½
Lake Shore.....	108½	64½
Michigan Central.....	127½	99½
Morris and Essex.....	184½	100½
New York Central and Hudson River.....	125	90½
Northern Pacific.....	121½	102
Ohio and Mississippi.....	155	130½
Pacific Mail.....	34½	33
Panama.....	67½	57½
Union Pacific.....	85½	29½
Western Union Telegraph.....	51	38½
	219½	170
	112½	85½
	86½	103

As a further indication of the great increase of business and monetary transactions, the following table is presented, showing the average daily exchanges in the New York Clearing-House from 1874 to 1880 :

YEAR.	Average daily exchanges.
1874.....	\$68,139,484
1875.....	75,801,568
1876.....	64,738,312
1877.....	68,447,724
1878.....	65,106,974
1879.....	79,977,589
1880.....	121,510,224

Since the resumption of specie payments the office of the United States Assistant Treasurer at New York has been connected with the Clearing-House Association in that city, the rules of the Association being modified for that purpose sufficiently to keep the operations of the Government within the requirements of law. For the year ending November 1, 1880, the transactions between this office and the Association were as follows :

Exchanges received from the Clearing-House...	\$342,622,365
Exchanges delivered to the Clearing-House...	73,193,323
Balances paid to the Clearing-House.....	266,387,853
Balances received from the Clearing-House....	958,319

The largest amount in balance in any one day was \$11,208,025.20, and of this amount \$3,300,000, weighing about fifteen and a half tons, was paid in gold coin.

There has also been, during the year, a large demand for gold coin, especially of the smaller denominations, and the transactions of the mint have been greater than those of any previous year.

The following statement shows the value of coinage, by denominations, at the mints of the United States, for the last three years :

CHARACTER OF COINAGE.	VALUE COINED, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30,		
	1878.	1879.	1880.
Gold :			
Double-eagles.....	\$51,406,340 00	\$37,234,340 00	\$21,515,360 00
Eagles.....	155,490 00	1,031,440 00	15,886,320 00
Half-eagles.....	688,680 00	1,442,130 00	15,790,860 00
Three-dollars.....	137,850 00	109,152 00	9,060 00
Quarter-eagles.....	408,900 00	1,166,800 00	3,075 00
Dollars.....	1,720 00	3,020 00	8,080 00
Silver :			
Trade-dollars.....	11,378,010 00		
Dollars.....	8,578,500 00	27,227,500 00	27,988,750 00
Half-dollars.....	3,875,255 00	225 00	3,275 00
Quarter-dollars.....	3,708,027 50	112 50	3,837 50
Twenty-cents.....	142 00		
Dimes.....	760,891 00	45 00	1,575 00
Minor coins :			
Five-cents.....	80 00	1,175 00	1,247 50
Three-cents.....	45 00	954 00	983 50
Cents.....	30,566 00	95,689 00	267,741 50
Total.....	\$51,120,499 50	\$68,312,502 50	\$34,870,144 00

The large increase in the monetary transactions, as already stated, is an index of the great revival of business in all its diversified forms throughout the United States. During the year labor has been employed at remunerative rates; mills and factories have been run over time to meet the demand for their products; railroads have had an abundance of carrying-trade; and

there seems to be no reason to anticipate any diminution of this prosperity, unprecedented in the history of the country. Of course, a failure in the agricultural products of the country for a few years would greatly disturb exchanges and draw upon the accumulated resources of the people to meet current expenditures; but the country is so large, embracing

so many different climates, and having such diversified products, that a failure of all the crops in any one year is a contingency too remote to be considered. There is, however, in monetary circles some apprehension of a disturbance before long in the currency of the country, the condition of which is not wholly satisfactory.

The gold coins of the United States are issued under the authority of section 3,511 of the Revised Statutes, taken from section 14 of the act of February 12, 1873, which provides as follows:

SECTION 3,511. The gold coins of the United States shall be a one-dollar piece, which, at the standard weight of twenty-five and eight tenths grains, shall be the unit of value; a quarter-eagle, or two-and-a-half-dollar piece; a three-dollar piece; a half-eagle, or five-dollar piece; an eagle, or ten-dollar piece; and a double-eagle, or twenty-dollar piece. And the standard weight of the gold dollar shall be twenty-five and eight tenths grains; of the quarter-eagle, or two-and-a-half-dollar piece, sixty-four and a half grains; of the three-dollar piece, seventy-seven and four tenths grains; of the half-eagle, or five-dollar piece, one hundred and twenty-nine grains; of the eagle, or ten-dollar piece, two hundred and fifty-eight grains; of the double-eagle, or twenty-dollar piece, five hundred and sixteen grains.

SEC. 3,505. Any gold coins of the United States, if reduced in weight by natural abrasion not more than one half of one per centum below the standard weight prescribed by law, after a circulation of twenty years, as shown by the date of coinage, and at a ratable proportion for any period less than twenty years, shall be received at their nominal value by the United States Treasury and its offices, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe for the protection of the Government against fraudulent abrasion or other practices.

SEC. 3,512. Any gold coins in the Treasury of the United States, when reduced in weight by natural abrasion more than one half of one per centum below the standard weight prescribed by law, shall be received.

SEC. 3,555. The gold coins of the United States shall be a legal tender in all payments at their nominal value when not below the standard weight and limit of tolerance provided by law for the single piece, and, when reduced in weight below such standard and tolerance, shall be a legal tender at valuation in proportion to their actual weight.

Section 3,525 of the Revised Statutes, taken from section 36 of the same act, provides as follows:

SEC. 3,535. In adjusting the weights of the gold coins, the following deviations shall not be exceeded in any single piece: In the double-eagle and the eagle, one half of a grain; in the half-eagle, the three-dollar piece, the quarter-eagle, and the one-dollar piece, one fourth of a grain. And in weighing a number of pieces together, when delivered by the coiner to the superintendent, and by the superintendent to the depositor, the deviation from the standard weight shall not exceed one hundredth of an ounce in five thousand dollars in double-eagles, eagles, half-eagles, or quarter-eagles, in one thousand three-dollar pieces, and in one thousand one-dollar pieces.

And section 3,519 also provides that any owner of gold bullion may deposit it at any mint, to be formed into coin or bars.

It will be seen that the law fixes the one-dollar gold-piece as the unit of value in the United States, and makes all gold coins of full

weight a legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private. As the gold coins are now coming into more general circulation, it should be noticed that when they are reduced by natural abrasion to a certain extent, as mentioned above, they cease to be a legal tender for their nominal value, and become a legal tender only for their value as bullion. To determine accurately whether such light-weight coins have been abraded below the limit of tolerance requires delicate weighing and an intricate calculation; but in making tender in disputed cases, the precise law on the subject may become of vital importance, and should be well understood.

The law having declared the gold dollar to be the unit of value in our currency, uniformity would require all other denominations of currency to bear to this unit certain natural and fixed relations; but, in the various acts authorizing the other currencies, no attention seems to have been paid to this important provision.

The silver dollar is made to contain 412½ grains, nine tenths of which are to be pure silver; and this coin is also made a legal tender in payment of all debts, public or private, equally with gold coin. As the market value of the silver in this dollar is about one tenth less than the market value of the gold in the gold dollar, the currency system provides two dollars having equal legal power in discharging debt, but bearing in market value a relation to each other of about 100 to 90. But under the law the coinage of the silver dollar is not free to depositors of silver bullion, as is that of gold to the depositors of gold bullion. For the coinage of silver dollars the Government is required to purchase the silver on the best terms obtainable, and to coin not less than \$2,000,000 or more than \$4,000,000 worth each month. By means of these restrictions in the coinage, the silver dollars have thus far been kept in circulation on a par with gold. To November 1st the difference between the market value of the silver bullion, as paid for by the Government, and the nominal value of the coins made therefrom, was \$8,520,871.45, and this amount may well be called fiat money, the material costing nothing, as it had been taken from the bullion purchased, and was necessary to make the silver coinage equal in intrinsic value to the gold coinage. It will thus be seen that the currency of the country is not based upon either a double or a single standard.

The Secretary of the Treasury in his annual report recommends the suspension of the coinage of the silver dollars, and negotiations with foreign powers for the adoption of an international ratio between the gold and silver coins; or, as an alternative, such an increase in the number of grains of silver in the dollar as to make it equal in market value to the gold dollar, its coinage to be left to depend upon the demand for it, as in the case of gold coinage.

The importance of early action in this matter can not be over-estimated. At the present compulsory rate of coinage of the silver dollar, it is only a question of time when the silver dollars will banish the gold coins from circulation, and reduce the whole currency of the country to a silver basis.

Indications already appear that gold is being hoarded by the banks and other parties with a view of taking advantage of this anticipated change in the standard; and it is possibly within the power of a Secretary of the Treasury, with no greater amount than the present reserve of silver, to bring about such a change at any time. Until legislation can be had which shall in some way cure these evils, the country can hardly be said to have a sound currency.

There is also a needless diversity of currencies. In addition to the silver dollar the law authorizes the coinage of half-dollars, quarters, and ten-cent pieces in silver of the same standard, but not of proportionate weight with the silver dollar. A dollar of these coins weighs but 385.8 grains, or nearly $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less than the standard silver dollar. At the present market rates of silver a dollar of these fractional coins is worth about eighty-two cents. They are a legal tender in payment of debts only to the extent of ten dollars, and are redeemable in lawful money at the Treasury of the United States. These coins were intended only as a convenience for making change, but their circulation has become so redundant that the Government has been obliged to treat them as a debt and redeem them; and on January 1, 1881, they had accumulated in the Treasury to the amount of \$24,769,057.32. Owing to their limited legal-tender quality, the Department is unable to pay them out; and, while the Treasury holds and owns them, they are as unavailable for all purposes of currency as if still remaining in ingots or bars.

In addition to these silver coins, there are also afloat to a greater or less extent the so-called trade-dollars issued under authority of the coinage act of 1873, under which any owner of silver bullion was authorized to deposit such bullion at any mint, to be formed into bars, or into dollars of the weight of 420 grains Troy, the expense of the conversion to be paid by the depositor. This trade-dollar was made a legal tender to the amount of five dollars; but this legal-tender quality has since been taken away. As its name indicates, it was intended for trade purposes only, and the Government had no interest in its production. It has none of the attributes of a circulating medium except, perhaps, its form; and it was not intended to circulate as money in this country. At the time of the passage of the act the silver required to make a trade-dollar could not be purchased for less than one dollar and four cents in gold; consequently, there was no object in having the silver coined into dollars of this kind for circulation here, and, for a time, they were exported as intended.

Owing to the depreciation in the price of silver in the fall of 1877, the amount of silver required for the manufacture of one of these coins could be purchased for less than a dollar in paper currency; and speculators, taking advantage of this condition of affairs, stopped the shipment of the coins abroad and turned about three millions of them into the channels of circulation. Their further coinage for any purpose was peremptorily stopped; but, though their circulation is a constant annoyance, the Government seems unable to furnish any further relief. Should authority be given to purchase them for coinage into the standard legal-tender dollar, dollar for dollar, the foreign holders of the \$30,000,000 of this coin would find it greatly to their profit to send them all back to this country for the recoinage proposed, providing, of course, that the standard silver dollar should circulate as it does now at a gold valuation. Should the silver dollar ever circulate upon its own valuation, the trade-dollar, containing more silver, would be worth more than the standard dollar and would of itself disappear, being more valuable for bullion than for circulation.

Besides the silver coins, there are the minor coins made of copper and nickel issued by the Government for lawful money, and redeemable therein. Only the inconsiderable amount necessary for making change remains outstanding.

In addition to the metallic currencies above enumerated, the country has also several kinds of paper currency, the most important of which are the United States notes issued under the act of February 25, 1862, and subsequent acts. They are by law made a legal tender in the payment of all debts, public and private, except duties on imports and interest on the public debt. By act of January 14, 1875, they have been redeemable in coin since January 1, 1879, at the sub-Treasury in New York, but up to November 1, 1880, there were presented for redemption only \$11,963,336. During the same period these notes were received in lieu of coin in payment of duties on imports, to the amount of \$142,323,601, and the notes thus received were paid out in lieu of coin for interest on the public debt and for other purposes.

The Government, however, reserves the right to exact coin in payment of duties, and will doubtless enforce it whenever holders of bonds object to receiving United States notes in payment of interest. The amount of these notes outstanding is fixed by law at \$346,681,016. As they are redeemable in "coin," they can be redeemed either in silver dollars or gold; and their value consequently depends upon which standard is maintained. A change from the gold to a silver standard, the price of silver remaining as at present, would at once reduce the purchasing power of the notes about 10 per cent.

The national banks also furnish a large portion of the circulating medium of the country. Their notes are redeemable in lawful money,

and are receivable at par in all parts of the United States in payment of taxes, excises, public lands, and all other dues to the United States, except for duties on imports; and also for all salaries and other debts and demands owing by the United States to individuals, corporations, and associations within the United States, except interest on the public debt, and in redemption of the national currency.

No limit is fixed to their issue, and, though they are not a legal tender in payment of debts between parties, they circulate as freely as legal-tender notes. At present their purchasing power is the same as that of gold, as they are redeemable in lawful money by the Treasurer of the United States at Washington, D. C., or by the respective banks of issue, and lawful money is now at par with gold. There was outstanding of this circulation on January 1, 1881, \$344,355,203.

There were also in circulation on January 1, 1881, \$6,658,880 of gold certificates, issued under the authority contained in section 5 of the act of March 3, 1863 (reproduced in section 254 of the Revised Statutes), as follows:

The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to receive deposits of gold coin and bullion with the Treasurer or any assistant-treasurer of the United States, in sums not less than twenty dollars, and to issue certificates therefor, in denominations of not less than twenty dollars each, corresponding with the denominations of the United States notes. The coin and bullion deposited for or representing the certificates of deposit shall be retained in the Treasury for the payment of the same on demand. And certificates representing coin in the Treasury may be issued in payment of interest on the public debt, which certificates, together with those issued for coin and bullion deposited, shall not at any time exceed twenty per centum beyond the amount of coin and bullion in the Treasury; and the certificates for coin and bullion in the Treasury shall be received at par in payment for duties on imports.

In no case has the amount of these certificates ever exceeded the amount of coin in the Treasury, although authority for the issue of an excess is specifically given. It will be noticed that for these certificates the Government receives only gold, and that gold must be held in the Treasury to meet their redemption. They are not a legal tender, except for payment of interest, and are receivable by the Government only in payment for duties on imports. Since the resumption of specie payments, none of these certificates have been issued, though much demand has existed for them as a circulating medium.

There were also in circulation at the same time silver certificates in the amount of \$45,582,130. These certificates are issued under authority of the third section of the act of February 28, 1878, which provides as follows:

That any holder of the coin authorized by this act may deposit the same with the Treasurer or any assistant-treasurer of the United States, in sums not less than ten dollars, and receive therefor certificates of not less than ten dollars each, corresponding with the denominations of the United States notes. The coin deposited for or representing the certificates shall be retained in the Treasury for the payment of the same on

demand. Said certificates shall be receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues, and, when so received, may be reissued.

These certificates can not be issued in excess of the amount of the standard silver dollars held for their redemption. During the fall of 1880, the demand for an increase of the paper circulation of the country was so great that holders of gold bullion deposited it with the mints for coinage, asking that they might be paid therefor in standard silver dollars, which dollars they immediately converted into certificates. In this way about \$30,000,000 of silver certificates were issued, as before referred to, leaving only about 3,000,000 silver dollars in the Treasury unrepresented by certificates outstanding. For the present they float at par with gold, and will continue to do so as long as the silver dollars into which they are converted float at their present current valuation.

There were also on the 1st of January, 1881, \$7,005,000 of certain certificates of deposit known as clearing-house certificates, issued under authority of the act approved June 8, 1872, reproduced in the Revised Statutes, as follows:

SECTION 5,193. The Secretary of the Treasury may receive United States notes on deposit, without interest, from any national banking associations, in sums of not less than ten thousand dollars, and issue certificates therefor in such form as he may prescribe, in denominations of not less than five thousand dollars, and payable on demand in United States notes at the place where the deposits were made. The notes so deposited shall not be counted as part of the lawful-money reserve of the association; but the certificates issued therefor may be counted as part of its lawful-money reserve, and may be accepted in the settlement of clearing-house balances at the places where the deposits therefor were made.

SEC. 5,194. The power conferred on the Secretary of the Treasury, by the preceding section, shall not be exercised so as to create any expansion or contraction of the currency. And United States notes for which certificates are issued under that section, or other United States notes of like amount, shall be held as special deposits in the Treasury, and used only for the redemption of such certificates.

It will be seen that no increase of circulation arises from the use of these certificates, and their circulation is not of much importance to the country.

In addition to these several forms of currency, there are also in circulation a small amount of old demand-notes, one and two years notes, compound-interest notes, and paper fractional currency, all of which are redeemable at sight on presentation at the Treasury, and the amount of which is continually growing less; also a small amount of State-bank circulation.

Leaving out all kinds of fractional currency, and the old and State-bank notes which are practically out of circulation, it will be seen that we have legal-tender notes, national-bank notes, gold certificates, silver certificates, and clearing-house certificates, all having different properties, but adding to the paper circulation

of the country. Though at present they float at par with gold, any derangement of the existing system of circulation would make each one of these several kinds of paper vary in its value according to the character of the money in which it is redeemable. As most of the actual money now afloat is used in small transactions among people of small means without much technical education, it would seem de-

sirable that some action should be taken to simplify this currency, giving in its place a few simple kinds bearing to each other some natural relation easily understood.

The following statement shows the amount and character of the principal outstanding paper and coin circulation at certain dates named, the amount of coin being estimated by the Director of the Mint:

FORM OF CURRENCY.	January 1, 1879.	January 1, 1880.	November 1, 1880.
Legal-tender United States notes.....	\$346,681,016	\$346,681,016	\$346,681,016
National-bank notes.....	823,791,674	842,877,386	843,894,107
Gold coin.....	273,271,707	826,874,082	875,823,881
Silver coin.....	95,516,712	127,797,094	152,277,544
Total.....	\$1,089,261,109	\$1,143,740,123	\$1,218,116,549

The following table shows the issues of government and bank paper, and metallic reserve:

COUNTRIES.	Government issue.	Bank issue.	Metallic reserve.
United States....	\$353,923,702	\$343,884,107	\$319,459,097
Great Britain.....	202,075,227	167,948,798	9,991,684
Canada.....	12,472,664	20,793,776	60,821,147
Australia.....	20,109,088	88,900,509	181,200,840
India.....	49,060,176	461,154,456	353,672,887
Germany.....	88,817,300	182,571,614	17,344,206
France.....	17,057,083	8,022,188
Belgium.....	12,890,000	4,500,000
Switzerland.....	184,368,724	38,000,000
Greece.....	180,821,632	80,000,000
Italy.....	181,420,000	21,657,372	7,150,947
Austria.....	123,860,965	8,299,343	3,749,373
Sweden.....	19,028,000	7,000,000
Norway.....	80,268,041	56,782,322
Denmark.....	778,514,300	115,000,000
Netherlands.....	41,394,449	44,080,957
Russia.....	5,023,360	9,508,169
Spain.....	21,871,289
Portugal.....	1,500,000
Turkey.....	21,871,289	1,895,343	200,000
Mexico.....	1,882,018
Colombia.....
Peru.....	18,093,820
Brazil.....	91,000,000
Venezuela.....	250,900
Central America.....	163,347
Argentine Repub.....	873,470,000
Chile.....	57,857,000	10,522,000
Cuba.....	180,127,596	15,894,489
Japan.....	17,161,053	8,873,000
Algers.....
Total.....	\$1,020,652,512	\$3,001,069,341	\$1,501,661,581

The metallic reserve, as above stated, includes, in addition to the reserve for circulation, such portion of the required reserve for deposits as may be in specie. The publicly announced policy of the Treasury of the United States, since the resumption of specie payments, January 1, 1879, has been to hold in specie 40 per cent. of the amount of outstanding United States notes, for the purpose of redeeming such notes upon their presentation. The amount of reserve held, however, has usually been in excess of 40 per cent. of the notes, and the Secretary of the Treasury has ample power at any time to increase this reserve to the full amount of the notes outstanding, by the sale of bonds of the description authorized by the Refunding Act of 1870, if necessary. The specie reserve of the Bank of England since 1820 has seldom been 40 per cent. of the demand liabilities of the bank, and at times has been as low as 17 per cent.

Great Britain, with a trade exceeding probably that of any other nation, has a paper currency of but little over \$200,000,000. This currency is mainly issued by the Bank of England, and is a legal tender only so long as that bank shall redeem the notes at par in coin.

The following statement shows the increase of paper circulation in France:

Table showing the specie and paper circulation in France from 1860 to 1878, compiled by the Director of the United States Mint.

YEAR.	Gold circulation.	Silver circulation.	Paper circulation.	Specie (gold and silver) circulation.	Total specie and paper circulation.
	France.	France.	France.	France.	France.
1860.....	5,060,347,000	1,875,409,000	747,200,000	6,935,750,000	7,682,950,900
1861.....	4,991,638,000	1,808,370,000	715,500,000	6,795,068,000	7,510,568,000
1862.....	5,107,349,000	1,702,110,000	781,600,000	6,889,459,000	7,591,059,000
1863.....	5,066,410,000	1,624,880,000	754,900,000	6,691,290,000	7,446,190,000
1864.....	5,141,274,000	1,574,297,000	722,800,000	6,715,571,000	7,437,871,000
1865.....	5,243,596,000	1,695,720,000	836,900,000	6,882,816,000	7,762,016,000
1866.....	5,600,670,000	1,675,266,000	936,900,000	7,385,936,000	8,272,836,000
1867.....	6,021,935,000	1,856,666,000	1,122,600,000	7,878,621,000	9,001,221,000
1868.....	6,187,686,000	1,959,651,000	1,382,500,000	8,147,837,000	9,580,137,000
1869.....	6,415,181,000	2,066,373,000	1,398,600,000	8,481,504,000	9,880,104,000
1870.....	6,500,000,000	2,100,000,000	8,600,000,000
1871.....	6,256,154,000	2,110,140,000	2,325,400,000	8,366,294,000	10,691,694,000
1872.....	6,154,950,000	2,200,902,000	2,656,300,000	8,353,852,000	11,012,152,000
1873.....	6,005,897,000	2,367,490,000	2,807,700,000	8,373,387,000	11,181,087,000
1874.....	6,392,895,000	2,732,329,000	2,644,500,000	9,116,224,000	11,761,024,000
1875.....	6,516,953,000	2,901,494,000	2,438,000,000	9,718,447,000	12,156,447,000
1876.....	7,276,060,000	3,025,414,000	2,562,700,000	10,861,174,000	12,864,174,000
1877.....	7,687,171,000	3,115,574,000	2,468,500,000	10,802,745,000	13,271,045,000
1878.....	7,569,490,000	3,218,158,000	2,207,300,000	11,087,648,000	13,294,948,000

The following table shows the total and per capita specie and paper circulation of several principal countries of the world.

[Estimated from official reports and other authorities. Where no reference is given, the statement is from official papers printed in Reports of the Director of the Mint.]

COUNTRIES.	POPULATION.		Date for which circulation is stated.	Paper.	SPECIE.			Total paper and specie.	PER CAPITA.		
	Year.	Latest census or estimate.			Gold.	Silver, full legal tender.	Silver, limited tender.		Paper.	Specie.	Circulation.
United States.....	1880	50,500,000	Nov. 1, 1880	\$697,757,809	\$375,823,851	\$72,547,750	\$79,429,794	\$1,225,350,234	\$13.82	\$10.44	\$24.26
Great Britain.....	1871	31,625,398	Sept. 28, 1880	2,020,075,227	806,019,721	92,546,331	688,566,952	6.89	21.77	28.16
Canada.....	1880	4,075,000	Mar. 31, 1880	\$3,266,440	6,291,285	4,000,000	590,641,179	8.16	2.62	10.63
Australia.....	1880	2,603,000	June 30, 1880	290,100,083	60,321,147	210,291,285	7.12	23.85	31.07
India.....	1871	190,693,623	Mar. 31, 1880	49,000,176	1,015,000,000	1,064,060,176	0.26	5.82	5.58
Germany.....	1875	32,721,500	Oct. 30, 1880	222,188,914	832,200,000	100,480,000	101,626,000	754,480,000	5.18	12.74	17.92
France.....	1875	35,721,500	Nov. 98, 1880	222,188,914	927,000,000	540,180,000	51,990,000	1,996,840,406	12.50	41.34	53.84
Spain.....	1875	18,294,185	Oct. 30, 1880	440,000,000	33,000,000	55,308,000	4,000,000	1,077,733,144	11.25	20.05	31.80
Sweden.....	1875	5,294,185	Oct. 30, 1880	417,057,083	2,000,000	10,000,000	8,000,000	91,800,000	6.20	12.60	18.80
Switzerland.....	1879	2,739,854	June 1, 1880	12,800,000	4,000,000	30,900,000	13,000,000	57,500,000	11.37	4.49	15.86
Greece.....	1880	1,679,775	Sept. 30, 1879	815,785,724	24,000,000	30,900,000	13,000,000	57,500,000	7.23	2.92	10.15
Italy.....	1880	27,769,475	Sept. 30, 1879	259,652,597	43,000,000	37,000,000	839,652,597	4.59	2.74	7.33
Austria.....	1869	35,904,435	Dec. 31, 1879	21,657,372	7,135,000	4,323,616	11,631,616	18,254,609	9.64	7.33
Norway.....	1875	1,806,900	Dec. 31, 1879	8,299,343	3,233,366	1,721,900	4,955,226	4.59	2.74	7.33
Denmark.....	1870	1,912,142	Dec. 31, 1879	19,025,000	9,216,000	4,862,000	18,254,609	9.64	7.33	17.33
Netherlands.....	1869	3,579,529	Nov. 6, 1880	280,268,041	20,000,000	57,000,000	158,245,041	22.42	21.75	44.20
Russia.....	1876	86,952,347	Sept. 1, 1880	773,514,300	898,514,300	8.97	1.82	10.20
Spain.....	1877	16,925,869	Aug. 31, 1880	741,394,449	130,000,000	40,000,000	30,000,000	241,394,449	2.45	12.03	14.51
Portugal.....	1875	4,441,087	Jan. 1, 1879	5,023,360	45,000,000	12,000,000	65,023,360	1.18	14.64	15.77
Turkey.....	1880	21,000,000	Mar. 1, 1880	21,571,259	10,000,000	40,000,000	4,000,000	37,461,117	1.00	0.71	1.71
Mexico.....	1871	9,276,079	Nov. 1, 1879	21,500,000	600,000	61,500,000	0.15	5.89	5.54
Central America.....	1871	2,951,311	Aug. 1, 1879	1,805,343	14,980,583	4.00	0.70	4.70
Panama.....	1876	12,108,967	Mar. 1, 1880	13,098,820	62,085	1,519,983	14,980,583	4.00	0.70	4.70
Brazil.....	1876	12,108,967	Mar. 1, 1880	91,250,000	91,000,000	9.00
Venezuela.....	1873	1,753,194	June 30, 1880	1,683,347	9,315,931	9,315,931	6.01	6.15
Central America.....	1880	2,600,000	Mar. 1, 1880	873,470,000	4,000,000	9,000,000	9,000,000	3.45	3.45
Cuba.....	1877	1,394,516	Apr. 80, 1880	57,857,000	43,023,000	1,000,000	379,470,000	156.70	3.00	159.70
Japan.....	1874	33,623,319	June 30, 1880	147,283,681	99,822,138	50,661,873	101,579,000	41.60	81.60	78.10
Algeria.....	1877	2,867,626	June 30, 1880	5,875,000	8,085,000	5,790,000	297,502,697	4.88	4.47	8.85
Haiti.....	1877	*572,000	June 30, 1880	28,353,000	8.97	5.05	9.02
				\$4,091,721,853	\$2,519,393,004	\$2,060,697,450	\$422,252,541	\$5,448,542,833	8.74

* Estimated.
 † Based on statement of director of the Calcutta Mint for 1879, p. 49; report of depreciation of silver with coinage for ten years, from 1869 to 1879, added.
 ‡ Report of the French Commission, p. 189.
 § Report of the French Commission, p. 89.
 a "Bankers' Magazine," London, November, 1880, p. 971.
 b Report for 1879.
 c "London Economist," November 6, 1880, p. 1299.
 d "London Economist," November 6, 1880, p. 1299.
 e "London Economist," November 6, 1880, p. 1299.
 f "London Economist," November 6, 1880, p. 1299.
 g Report of the French Commission, p. 189.
 h "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 i "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 j "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 k "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 l "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 m "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 n "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 o "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 p "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 q "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
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 u "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 v "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 w "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 x "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 y "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.
 z "London Economist," September 11, 1880, p. 1060.

J. K. UPTON, Assistant-Secretary of the Treasury.

FLORIDA. The receipts of the State Treasury from all sources for the year ending December 31, 1880, were as follows:

REVENUE FROM	Amount.
License-tax.....	\$33,237
State tax proper.....	117,296
General sinking fund tax.....	57,425
Special sinking-fund tax.....	23,716
Auction-tax.....	731
Criminal prosecutions and costs.....	533
Railway net returns tax.....	27
Jurors and witnesses refunded.....	7
Commission-tax.....	803
Fees, lunatic asylum fund.....	815
Maintenance lunatics refunded.....	272
Common-school fund, fines.....	3,541

Total for general revenue..... \$272,914

The current expenses of the State for 1880 were \$167,047; for 1879 they were \$215,047. The appropriations fell short of the expense for the two years, \$33,755.

The total disbursements during the year 1880 were as follows:

EXPENDITURES FOR	Amount.
Salaries, judicial department.....	\$33,568
Salaries, executive department.....	19,200
Jurors and witnesses.....	69,990
Revenue collection expenses.....	23,806
Maintenance of lunatics.....	19,467
Printing.....	5,494
Bureau of Immigration.....	2,610
Other expenditures.....	2,543
Interest on bonds of 1871.....	20,913
Interest on bonds of 1873.....	52,554

Total payments..... \$249,645

Of the payments, \$43,540 were for the year 1879, and \$23,059 for previous years.

There was a cash balance in the Treasury at the close of 1879 of \$10,353; and at the close of 1880 a balance remained on hand of the sum of \$29,683. There were warrants and certificates outstanding to the amount of \$31,286, besides about \$42,292 of juror and witness certificates, issued prior to 1877, a great part of which has been paid by counties; and which there is a balance of appropriations to meet, probably sufficient to cover all which may be presented. The estimate of the appropriations to be made for the ordinary expenses of government for the year 1881 is \$233,073, including \$65,000, estimated expenses of the Legislature; the estimate of deficiencies required to be made up for 1880 and previous years is \$33,755.

The funded debt of the State consists of the seven per cent. loan of 1871, \$350,000; six per cents. of 1873, \$925,000; eight per cent. Convention bonds, \$1,500; seven per cent. bonds of 1857, \$4,000, and interest on the same, \$4,760; making a total of \$1,285,260, from which are to be deducted \$50,700 of 1871 bonds and \$100,000 of the bonds of 1873, bought up by the sinking funds; making the bonded debt \$1,134,560, of which \$246,900 is in the school funds, \$35,000 in the seminary funds, and \$121,600 in the agricultural funds; leaving in the hands of the private holders \$681,060. There has been a reduction in the bonded debt of \$50,800 during the administration of Governor Drew. There are besides \$132,000 of the

1857 bonds held by the Indian Trust Fund of the United States Government, with accrued interest, making a debt of \$307,000. The State has a claim against the United States for an amount more than sufficient to cover this debt. This is an old demand based upon the costs incurred in suppressing Indian hostilities.

The retiring State government has made efforts to have this matter brought to a settlement, since the bonds held by the Indian Trust Fund bear seven per cent. interest, which is more than the United States would allow upon the counter-claim if it were granted; and also because the State is at a disadvantage from the fact that moneys due to the State from the United States from sales of public lands or any other sources can be stopped and applied to the State's indebtedness. An attempt was made in 1860 to obtain an adjustment of the State's claim; and a bill was introduced in Congress for the purpose, which was referred to a committee, but never reported upon. Colonel S. I. Wailes, of Washington, was appointed by Governor Drew, in 1879, with the request that he take as an associate Colonel W. K. Beard, of Tallahassee, to represent the State before the proper department; and these agents were commissioned to procure a settlement, their fee to be a contingent one of fifteen per cent. of the total amount collected.

In investigating the records to establish the case, important documents were found to have been displaced during the military occupation of the Capitol.

Having completed the examination as far as it was practicable, Colonel Beard went to Washington in September, 1879, to present, with Colonel Wailes, the claim at the proper department, where he expected to find documents and other evidence bearing upon the claim, and to put the claim in such definite form as to be reported to Congress for the necessary appropriation. On arriving in Washington, Colonel Beard, with Colonel Wailes, went to the Treasury Department, and there they were met with the objection that no State claim could be adjusted or examined without special authority from Congress. On the meeting of Congress these gentlemen prepared, and Senator Jones and Representative Davidson introduced in the Senate and House respectively, a resolution directing the Secretary of the Treasury to examine and adjust the claim of the State of Florida, and to pay her any balance that might be found due after providing for her bonds held by the Indian Trust Fund. The resolution was referred to appropriate committees and amended in committee, by making the reference of the claim to the Secretary of War instead of the Treasury, and requiring that department to examine the claim and report to Congress such amount as might be found due. The resolution, as amended, passed the Senate on the 28th of May, and was on the same day certified to the House, but failed to pass that body at that session. It

was brought up again in the House during the next session. Until this resolution passes, thus giving the agent of the State access to the files and records of the War and Treasury Departments, a definite statement of the claim of the State can not be made. As far as can now be ascertained, the amount of the principal of the State's claim is about \$280,000, of which there are about \$48,000 for which the vouchers and evidence are not complete, but for which additional evidence is expected to be found in the departments at Washington.

The value of the State bonds in the market has greatly improved in the last four years. At the commencement of this period the six per cent. bonds were selling at 80 cents, while at present they are scarce at par; and the seven per cent. bonds, then selling at 94 cents, can hardly be obtained for \$1.06. The late Governor recommends a law permitting the Treasurer to buy in bonds at market prices, instead of being restricted in the purchase of State or national bonds to their face value, as he is by the present law, which virtually excludes the State from the market.

A sliding-scale rate of taxation was recommended by the Governor in private interviews with members of the late Legislature, on the ground that if, as was expected, the assessment was largely increased, the rate could be diminished; but, if it failed to increase, a sufficiently higher rate of taxation could be fixed to raise enough money for the current expenses of the State and to meet the interest charge. The Legislature did not act upon this suggestion, but fixed the rate at seven mills, calculating upon an increase in the valuation, which they expected would run up to \$35,000,000 or \$40,000,000. Instead of this, it reached only \$30,382,209, making it necessary for the Governor and his Cabinet to borrow money on their own responsibility, for the purpose of maintaining the credit and keeping the Treasury on a cash basis, to meet the interest on the debt for January, 1880. A law is recommended, similar to those in operation in Georgia and other States, by which the Governor and Comptroller can fix the rate, after the assessment is made, high enough to yield money to pay interest and the appropriations. The Governor in his message to the last Legislature called for an amended revenue and assessment law by which the evils of undervaluation should be avoided and less opportunity afforded for escaping an equitable assessment. "Under the present system of assessment," he said, "a great deal of property is assessed at a greatly less valuation than the 'usual selling price' the annual crop would sell for in the market, and in some instances at less than half the value of the crop, and scarcely one tenth of what the owner would demand for the property were he to offer it for sale. This is a great injustice to those taxpayers who return their property to the assessors at a legal and just valuation." The new assessment act, which was approved March 7,

1879, has proved entirely ineffectual to establish equalization of assessments and uniformity of taxation. The valuation has not been increased, as was expected, and the less conscientious tax-payers take the same advantage over their more scrupulous fellow-citizens in returning their property to the assessors. This the Governor, in a final message addressed to the new Legislature, ascribes to the fact that no penalty was attached to the practice of making false returns of the value of property sufficient to carry out the intention of the law. In order to remedy this want of uniformity in assessments and this imposition upon the State the present law should be repealed, and in its stead an act passed "requiring the county commissioners of each county to appoint two appraisers, whose duty it shall be to accompany the assessor on his rounds, and with him to fix the valuation of all lands subject to taxation, and whose valuation shall be final, and shall stand for four years. In this way a spirit of improvement of all real estate will be developed, and property will be assessed at something like its cash value, and, though largely increasing the value of taxable property, it will give uniformity of assessment."

Governor Drew's message, summing up the achievements of his administration, explaining the policy which he had pursued, and recommending certain measures to be taken by the Legislature in furtherance of the objects which he had aimed to bring about in his official term, was an innovation upon precedent; it was an elaborate and lucid exposition of State affairs, and was left with the incoming Governor, who delivered it to the Legislature at the opening of the session. The Governor suggested also that the section of the revenue law which places the power of issuing the second warrant for the extension of the time for the collection of taxes in the hands of the county commissioners be changed, and this authority transferred to the Comptroller. According to the existing law, the commissioners may arbitrarily suspend the collection, as was done in one county last year.

Governor Drew recommends that an amendment to the Constitution should be made, exempting manufacturing establishments from taxation for five or ten years after the commencement of operations, in order to incite the influx of capital for manufacturing purposes, and to foster the development of industrial interests, in which he deems Florida is lagging behind other States, though keeping pace with them in many other respects. The present road laws are found to be ineffective, and in most of the counties the roads are badly neglected.

The total tax valuation of the State is \$31,157,846. The State tax assessment for 1880 amounted to \$112,579; the general sinking-fund tax assessment to \$62,406; the special sinking-fund assessment to \$31,217; and the school-fund assessment to \$31,217; making

the total gross assessment \$237,420. The total net tax assessment after deducting insolvencies, etc., was \$208,107; and the license-taxes amounted to \$62,237. The county tax proper amounted to \$128,084; the county school-tax to \$75,537; the special county tax to \$87,852; making the total taxes for county purposes, \$291,474. The amount of auction-tax collected was, as stated in the revenue exhibit, only \$731. In many counties no reports of auction-tax are made at all. The Comptroller suggests that the law be either repealed and the license of auctioneers be made uniform with those of other merchants, or that it be modified so as to be made effective. The tax on sales by land agents is also inoperative, no reports being made at all. The Comptroller considers that the right of assessment of lands held under the homestead laws of the United States ought to be more clearly defined. Assessors have usually been instructed that, when the occupant is entitled to a patent, his land is liable to assessment. Even though the homesteader is taxed as soon as the legal time has elapsed which is necessary to secure a patent, his land is often improved and rendered valuable in the interval, and he remains exempt from taxation, while his neighbors are assessed regularly, and under such circumstances are taxed unequally. A smaller amount of land was sold for taxes and bought in by the State in 1830 than in 1879, and a larger amount was redeemed, indicating that the collection of taxes is more efficient, and that the fraudulent or heedless mistakes in the descriptions of lands on the tax-books, which discourage bidders, have been better guarded against. Many of the collectors and assessors of the taxes for 1876 and previous years had not yet settled up their accounts with the State at the beginning of Governor Drew's term of office, owing to the fact that the appropriations for the payment of commissions for the collection of the revenue had been exhausted, and an accounting at the regular time was thereby prevented. The assessors could not be paid off until the collectors had made a final settlement; and these officers did not press for a settlement, having, as they did in most cases, in their possession funds of the State more than sufficient to balance their claims. In order to close up the accounts of these delinquent officers, warrants were issued in excess of the appropriations during the last and the preceding administrations, which in many cases were paid into the Treasury on account with balances due the State. These warrants run through four years, the largest number having been issued in 1877, and were \$15,709 in excess of the appropriations of those years for the collection of taxes. The Comptroller has been much embarrassed by the presentation of accounts from county officers, who have been denominated such by a decision of the Supreme Court, and therefore payable by the counties. This decision was cited by a letter from the Attor-

ney-General to the Comptroller in reference to these accounts. The last Legislature enacted that coroners, etc., should be paid by the State; but there was no appropriation made to meet such payments. They also enacted that the expenses of justices' trials, in cases of felony, should be paid by the State, but there was no specific appropriation made to pay them, and the appropriation for paying jurors and witnesses has been construed as only applicable to jurors and witnesses of the circuit courts. Under these circumstances the Comptroller has not felt authorized to issue warrants for such expenses.

The sales of public lands have continued to increase. In regard to the entries and sales of State land the retiring Governor, in his parting message addressed to the new Legislature, offered the following suggestions:

The law, as it now stands, requires the payment of the purchase-money in cash, upon the entry of any public land, and many of our citizens and some of the poorer immigrants are unable to do this, and so they settle upon these lands without entry. And there these squatters remain. They make only such improvements as are essentially necessary to health and life; frequently they live on in this way for years, exhausting whatever fertility there may be in the land, and when worn out they move off, leaving only worn-out land and dilapidated improvements, while, in the mean time, the State has received not one cent of tax or remuneration in any way for the use of the land. Then, again, it checks and kills the spirit of improvement among the class of people settling on these lands. If asked why they do not build more comfortable houses, plant fruit-trees and make other improvements, the reply invariably is: "This is State land; I am not able to buy, and I don't know how soon I may be entered out." And on this account many a poor man is prevented from becoming a landholder and a tax-payer. To obviate these difficulties in the way of their becoming tax-payers instead of squatters, and to increase the revenue from the public domain, I think every settler or intending settler upon State land should be allowed to pay for his homestead (say one hundred and sixty acres or less), in three installments—one third of the purchase-money in cash, upon entry, one third in two years, and the other in three years, after date of entry, in the mean time the land to be assessed and taxed as the property of the settler. In this way not only a considerable revenue will be brought into the Treasury from lands which, under the present system, are of little or no benefit to the State, but a door will be thrown open for the encouragement of settling and improvement among the poorer classes of our citizens and immigrants which will, in the course of years, prove of incalculable benefit to the State of Florida. A home will be placed within easy reach of the poorest, and a feeling of protection and security will be produced among the settlers on public lands that will develop the thrift and economy necessary to secure the means with which to buy the land.

Governor Drew was instrumental in procuring the conveyance to the State of a large quantity of land from the United States Government which was claimed under the acts of Congress relating to swamp and overflowed lands. Learning, upon entering upon the governorship, that a considerable area of swamp and overflowed lands existed in the State, for which the General Government had omitted or had refused to issue patents to the State, he vis-

ited Washington, and, upon convincing himself that the facts were as reported, he entered into an arrangement with Colonel S. I. Wailes, who agreed to examine into the claims of the State and to act as agent on behalf of the State government before the department at Washington. Upon receiving the report of Mr. Wailes, the board of trustees of the Internal Improvement Fund engaged him to obtain an adjustment of the claims, which he did, obtaining the patents and turning them over to the State for 1,761,880.87 acres. The trustees of the Internal Improvement Fund have determined to relinquish all claims to the swamp-lands lying within the former Palatka military reservation, and they and the Governor thus advise the Legislature. This tract has been in part entered by settlers under the homestead laws, who have complied with the requirements of the acts in good faith; other portions of it have been disposed of at private entry in the United States Land-Office, or located with military land-warrants. Regarding the internal improvement policy of the State government, and the public fund for promoting the extension of the facilities of communication, etc., known as the Internal Improvement Fund, Governor Drew says:

The board of trustees of this fund, recognizing the wisdom and soundness of that policy which would tend to encourage and foster such improvements as would promote the interest of the State and its citizens, have ever been willing and ready to countenance and aid any legitimate, *bona fide* scheme looking to this end. During the past two years several propositions and proposals for the internal improvement of the State have been presented to the board, which were not accepted, as it was believed the material interests of the State would not be advanced by them. Several railroads, canals, and other corporations have been incorporated under the general act, and are now pushing forward their work, notably among which are several railroads in the eastern part of the State, which are now nearly completed.

The affirmation by the Supreme Court of Judge Bradley's decree in the "Florida Railroad cases" promises to help greatly to bring about the much-desired disencumberment of the Internal Improvement Fund. This fund is pledged for the payment of interest on guaranteed railroad bonds. These interests have accumulated until they amount to between six and seven hundred thousand dollars. The interest, running since 1860, on some bonds of the Pensacola and Georgia and Tallahassee Railroad, forms an important part of these obligations, amounting to some \$440,000. By the final decision of the United States Supreme Court, this interest becomes a charge upon the property of the Jacksonville, Pensacola and Mobile Railroad. If the fund is relieved to the extent of this amount, the remaining liens upon the extensive area of land belonging to the fund, aggregating nearly 13,000,000 acres, will not exceed \$250,000.

The railroad decision of Justice Bradley, which has been affirmed by the Supreme Court in full bench, settled three points in the involved and much-litigated affairs of the Florida

railroads: that the North Carolina claimants, the Western North Carolina Railroad Company, have no rights as against the Dutch bondholders, who brought the suits, in either the Florida Central or the Jacksonville, Pensacola and Mobile Railroad; that the trustees of the Internal Improvement Fund have a first lien upon portions of the Jacksonville, Pensacola and Mobile Railroad for \$463,175, being the balance of the unpaid purchase-money principal, with interest at eight per cent. from March 20, 1869, amounting altogether to some \$900,000; and that the Dutch bondholders have a second lien on the same property, and a first lien on the Florida Central from Lake City to Jacksonville. The Dutch bondholders, through agents, sold out the roads by virtue of the decree, and bid them in on their own account in September, 1879; but the sale has not been confirmed. In case it should be, they would be bound to pay off the lien of the State within one year from the confirmation of the sale.

The number of convicts in the penitentiary on the 1st of January, 1879, was 163; the number pardoned during the year, eight; escaped, seven; died, eight. The number of convicts on hand on the 1st of January, 1880, was 151; pardoned, six; escaped, six; died, nine. The State convicts were let out for the years 1879 and 1880 to H. A. Wyse, of Live Oak, who contracted to keep and clothe them, provide medical attendance, etc., paying into the Treasury the nominal sum of \$100 per annum. This arrangement effected a net saving to the State of \$4,000 over the expenses of the penitentiary in 1878, and of more than \$21,000 over the expenses of 1876. A few days before the expiration of the contract, bids were received for the labor of the convicts for the next year. They were let out to the East Florida Railway Company, and a contract was entered into for two years, whereby the company agreed to take the convicts on hand, and all who should be convicted during the period of the contract, receiving them at the jail of the county in which they are convicted, paying all costs accruing after conviction, and furnishing their maintenance and all the requisites for their health and comfort, and to pay to the State a hire of \$15 a year for each convict. The act of the last Legislature appropriating a sum for the arrest of criminals and fugitives from justice has not yet proved effective in insuring the capture of fugitives, since several rewards have been offered for the arrest of persons accused of murder, but none of the criminals have been caught and delivered into custody. On extradition papers ten prisoners have been handed over by the constabulary of other States.

The number of patients in the Insane Asylum on the 1st of January, 1879, was 55. During the two years 93 have been admitted, 38 have been discharged, and 14 have died, leaving 96 in the asylum at the close of 1880.

The digest of the Statutes of Florida, made in accordance with the act passed in 1879, the

preparation of which was intrusted to Colonel J. F. McClellan, was completed by him in the early part of the summer of 1880. The task of revising this work was committed to P. W. White, John A. Henderson, and George P. Raney; but, as the members of the commission declared themselves unable, on account of other business, to perform the examination and revision of the digest, they, with the acquiescence of the Governor, placed the work in the hands of Colonel C. C. Yonge, who will have ended the labor of revision early in 1881.

General Gillmore, in his report concerning the deepening of St. John's and Fernandina bars, estimates the cost of excavating St. John's bar to give fifteen feet of water at mean low tide at \$1,306,409, and considers that an additional sum of \$120,000 will be needed for deepening the shoal places in the St. John's River between the bar and Jacksonville. He states, however, that a practicable high-water depth of twelve and one half feet, equivalent to or exceeding the draught of the largest craft which can ordinarily be carried between the bar and Jacksonville at high tide, could be secured on the bar in three years, at a cost of about \$800,000, by carrying a single jetty out to the fifteen-foot curve, or a little beyond. At the mouth of the St. John's and south of that point, northeasterly storms strike the coast nearly at right angles, and have a tendency to heap up drift-material at the mouth of the inlets. This causes the depth on the bar to vary greatly, and these variations would be more excessive in an improved channel than where the flow of the tide takes place over a broad expanse. The temporary filling up of the channel resulting from a storm would last some weeks before the channel is cleared again to its normal depth by scour.

For the Fernandina bar he proposes a single jetty, carried out along the north shoal to the fifteen-foot curve, and a spur-jetty projecting from the north end of Amelia Island. By these works, which could be completed in three or four years, at a cost of \$1,000,000, a low-water depth of sixteen or seventeen feet on the bar can probably be secured, and an excellent harbor of refuge as well as a good entrance-channel be established.

The River and Harbor Bill, passed by Congress, contained the following appropriations for Florida: Improving harbor at Cedar Keys, \$15,000; improving harbor at Pensacola, \$40,000; improving Apalachicola River, \$2,000; improving Apalachicola Bay, \$10,000; improving Choctawhatchee River, \$7,000; improving inside passage between Fernandina and St. John's, \$7,000; improving Escambia River, \$8,000; improving Suwanee River, \$5,000; improving Tampa Bay, \$10,000; improving Volusia bar, \$5,000; improving St. John's bar, \$125,000. The bill also directs the Secretary of War to cause examinations, or surveys, or both, and estimates of cost of improvements proper, to be made at Finnholloway River,

Aucilla and Wacissa, Chipola River, Holmes Creek and East Bay, and Blackwater River.

The Republican State Convention met at Gainesville, May 12th. Ex-Senator Simon Bolivar Conover received the nomination for Governor, and W. M. Ledwith that for Lieutenant-Governor.

A resolution was adopted instructing the delegates to Chicago to vote as a unit for Grant for President, as long as his name was before the Convention, and to vote for Thomas Settle, of Florida, for Vice-President.

The Conservative - Democratic Convention met at Gainesville, June 10th. William D. Bloxham was nominated for Governor, the principal opposing candidate being Governor Drew; L. W. Bethel, at the time Secretary of State, received the nomination for Lieutenant-Governor. Robert H. M. Davidson and Jesse J. Finley were the candidates for delegates to Congress. The delegates to the Cincinnati National Convention were not instructed as to their course, save to vote for the continuance of the two-thirds rule. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That the Conservative-Democratic party of Florida congratulate the people of the State on the favorable auspices under which they have assembled. For more than three years they have been blessed with a government which has faithfully fulfilled all the promises made to them in 1876. The onerous tax under which the people suffered has given place to a moderate rate of assessment, absolutely necessary to an economical administration of government; the laws have been rigidly and energetically enforced; equal protection has been extended to all persons within the limits of the State, without regard to race or color; and this beneficent, prudent, and economical management has insured to the welfare and prosperity of the entire people.

Resolved, That we appeal to the sober judgment of every honest and unbiased citizen of Florida, of whatever political affinities, in the contrast presented by the past three years of Democratic rule with the previous eight years of Republican rule. We appeal with confidence to every man in our midst who values the blessings of a just, faithful, and prudent government, to sustain us in this campaign, and with us, by the complete and overwhelming success of our candidates, to put an end for ever to the dangers which menace from a restoration of the Republicans to power.

Resolved, That the preservation of good order, honest expenditure of public funds, reduction of taxation, and the continued progress of material prosperity, present issues paramount to all mere questions of party; therefore, discarding the dead issues and party dissensions of the past, we appeal to the intelligent and honest voters of all parties and races to join hands with us in support of self-preservation.

Resolved, That the greatly increased influx of intelligent and industrious citizens under the present State administration is a source of great gratification. To the thousands already here, and the thousands soon to follow, we extend a cordial welcome regardless of party, and pledge the State administration, if continued under Conservative control, to renewed efforts to increase the tide of immigration.

Resolved, That the Conservative-Democratic party of Florida reaffirm their acceptance of the legitimate issues of the war. To all men in our midst, white and black, we pledge the fullest possible protection in the exercise of their civil and political rights; recognizing fully and sustaining that fundamental law of the State which gives to any citizen the right to vote as he

pleases, and to utter and publish his sentiments undisturbed by menace of violence and threats of disfranchisement, and so recognizing and sustaining this right, we denounce and arraign the Republican party for its systematic appeals to mob violence over the colored people of this State, and for the systematic terrorism over them which has been a regular appliance of its political machinery. We pledge ourselves to protect every citizen in the exercise of his rights against all lawlessness, to the fullest possible extent.

Resolved, That the Conservative-Democratic party of Florida condemn and denounce in unqualified language the frauds in elections which have been so frequent of late years. We arraign the Republican leaders, and charge them with being the authors and instigators of these crimes against the purity of the ballot-box; but whether perpetrated by Republicans, or men calling themselves Democrats, we condemn these acts as dangerous to our political institutions and subversive of our system of government.

Resolved, That we favor a liberal public-school system, exempt from all sectarian influences.

Resolved, That we favor the disencumberment of the Internal Improvement Fund of the State at the earliest practicable moment, and the appropriation of the public lands, as far as may be necessary, to the construction of a railroad through south Florida, and the completion of the road from the Appalachicola River to Pensacola in west Florida.

Resolved, That we deem it of the utmost importance to the commerce of the whole country that a ship-canal be constructed across the peninsula of Florida, and we request our Senators and Representatives in the Congress of the United States to use such means as will most effectually accomplish the construction of that very important public enterprise.

Before the election a spirited controversy took place between the rival parties upon the import of the clauses of the State Constitution and the laws upon the statute-books, which deprive persons who have been convicted of crimes of the right of suffrage. In the Constitution of 1868 one section declares that no person convicted of felony shall be qualified to vote unless restored to civil rights; and another section requires the Legislature to pass laws excluding from public office and from the right of suffrage all persons convicted of bribery, perjury, larceny, or of infamous crime, as well as any person convicted of betting upon the result of elections, or of being party to a duel, which provision was duly carried out in an election act defining the classes of persons who are not entitled to vote. The clause in the statute relating to the disqualification of criminals defined this class of non-voters as follows: "Persons hereafter convicted of felony, bribery, perjury, larceny, or other infamous crime." The Republicans contended that the law did not include petit larceny or any grade of larceny below a felony, and that conviction by a justice's court did not take away the right of suffrage. The Attorney-General, George P. Raney, in answer to a question put to him by Governor Drew, expressed the opinion that no person is entitled to vote who has been convicted of the crime of larceny since the date of the approval of the general election law, August 6, 1868, unless subsequently pardoned or restored to civil rights, whether the larceny be a felony or a misdemeanor. The reasons for this interpretation he stated at length, at the

request of the Governor, in an opinion delivered on the 2d of October. The clause of the Constitution disqualifying persons convicted of felony needed no act of legislation to give it the force of a law. The subsequent section of the same article, empowering and commanding the Legislature to pass an election law, depriving persons who should be tried and convicted of certain specified crimes of the elective franchise, must have contemplated other crimes than felonies. Neither the Constitution nor the statute limits the disqualifying power to any particular grade of larceny. The statute follows closely the wording of the Constitution in declaring the disqualifications for the franchise, using the same words, or terms of exactly equivalent meaning, excepting that, instead of saying "persons convicted of bribery, perjury, larceny, or of infamous crime" shall be disqualified, it has "bribery, perjury, larceny, or other infamous crime." This phrase is capable of two different constructions: it either infers that larceny of all grades is to be rated among infamous crimes; or it might be construed to signify that the degree of larceny which disfranchises is only that which amounts to an infamous crime. If this less obvious construction is put upon it, the question arises as to what constitutes an infamous crime. Legal authorities define a crime to be infamous which subjects a person to infamous punishment or incapacitates him from being a witness, and a person to be infamous who may be challenged for a *juror propter delictum*. According to the statute-law of Florida, the offenses which exclude a person from giving evidence in court are murder, perjury, piracy, forgery, larceny, robbery, arson, etc. This declaration is contained in an enactment which was passed in the year 1845, and which remains still in force. It is a general statute, and includes all grades of larceny, whether felonies or misdemeanors. In the Bill of Rights is a provision that no one shall be tried for a capital or otherwise infamous crime unless on an indictment by the grand jury, excepting in cases of impeachment, in cases of the militia, or in cases of petit larceny, thus indicating that the framers of the Constitution regarded petit larceny as an infamous crime.

The conclusion, then, is, even if the Legislature meant that no conviction of larceny should prevent a person from voting, unless the larceny was an infamous crime, that all larcenies are infamous crimes, and therefore the conviction, by any competent court, of a person of any larceny, prevents the person convicted from voting, unless he shall have been pardoned or restored to civil rights. "A conviction of a person of larceny by a justice of the peace's court, acting within its jurisdiction under the provisions of the act to regulate criminal proceedings before justices of the peace, approved March 2, 1877, is as effectual to produce the disability as a conviction by a circuit court acting within its jurisdiction."

A considerable excitement was aroused by the publication, by the Democratic National Committee, of copies of telegrams signed by the chairman of the Republican National Committee, one of which, dated at New York, October 12th, and addressed to the collector at Key West, contained the words "City of Dallas took 150, City of Texas 100, Colorado 100 for Key West," which were presumed by the Democrats to signify that fraudulent negro voters were being imported into the State, but which were explained by the Republicans to be a warning against men suspected of being Democratic repeaters.

In counting the vote, "tissue-ballots" and ballots in small form, known as "little-jokers," were discovered to have found their way into the boxes in several precincts, though not in numbers sufficient to have changed the issue. In some instances the inspectors defeated the fraud by the device of tightly compressing and slightly twisting with their fingers every ballot before dropping it in the box; so that the multiple ballots were found inclosed in the larger one which concealed them when the vote was canvassed, in which cases no vote was counted. A number of Democratic ballots were found enwrapped in Republican ones, and both were cast out in the canvass; these were supposed to have been deposited by negro voters who had promised and intended to vote for the Democratic ticket, but were closely watched by their own people, of whom the vast majority are intolerant partisans, who resent with anger any defection from the Republican party among the people of their own race, and were therefore afraid to vote as they desired, but secretly inclosed the Democratic voting slips within Republican tickets. Great complaints were made on the part of the Democrats of the terrorism and petty persecutions to which colored citizens were subjected by their own race for abandoning the Republican party. After the election a large number of arrests were made by United States marshals for illegal voting. At Madison a number of prisoners, in charge of a deputy-marshal, were forcibly released while entering a railroad train, apparently against their own will, by a band of masked and armed men. The arrested parties protested against the interference, and took the next train for Jacksonville, and there delivered themselves up to the United States authorities, publishing a statement in the newspapers denouncing the act of their self-constituted protectors as hurtful to the State at large, and unkind to themselves.

In the election for Governor, Bloxham received 28,378 votes, and Conover 23,297, giving Bloxham a majority of 5,081. In the first Congressional district Davidson was elected Representative by 14,971 votes, against 11,082 cast for Witherspoon; in the second, Finley received 13,105 votes, and was elected, Bisbee polling 11,953. At the same election the ballot was taken on the question of calling a con-

vention for the revision of the Constitution, in accordance with the terms of a joint resolution by the Legislature, approved March 4, 1879. The vote of the people on the Constitutional Convention was adverse, 14,713 votes being cast in favor of holding one, and 23,281 against.

The total population of the State of Florida, according to the schedules returned to the census-office by the enumerators, is 266,566. Of this number 134,951 are males, 131,615 females, 256,871 native, and 9,695 foreign born; 141,219 white and 125,317 colored. This shows a white preponderance over colored of 16,032. The increase over the population of 1870 is 78,818, or about 42 per cent. The population of the city of St. Augustine is given in the preliminary returns as 20,350, against 11,750 in 1870.

FOG AND CLOUDS, GENESIS OF. A theory of the formation of clouds and mists has been propounded by John Aitken, a Scotch physicist, who offers strong experimental evidence to support it. He considers the condensation of watery vapor into the minute drops which make up clouds and fogs to be due to the presence of dust-motes in the atmosphere, and that without dust there would be no mists or clouds, and probably no rain. That particles of water-vapor do not combine to form a cloud-particle unless they find a nucleus of solid matter upon which to condense was proved by experiments. Steam was admitted into two receivers, one filled with common air, and the other with air from which all dusty impurities had been removed by filtering through cotton-wool. In the first the well-known cloudy form of condensation took place, while in the other there was no condensation and no mist, the air becoming supersaturated and remaining perfectly transparent. Vapor in pure air consequently does not condense, but the air becomes supersaturated; and, if there were no floating dust in the atmosphere, condensation could only take place on the surface of solid bodies on the earth. Every object would then become a condenser which would be constantly covered with the water deposited by the supersaturated air. When there is much dust in the atmosphere but a small quantity of water condenses on each, and they float easily in the air; but when the air is very free from dust each particle receives a greater quantity of moisture, and becomes heavier and more quickly acted upon by gravitation. The dusty state of the atmosphere is revealed by the mist formed by the breath in frosty weather, and by the cloudy appearance of steam when escaping into the air. The particles necessary for the accumulation of vapor may be finer than those visible in a sunbeam, as air in which the visible motes had been destroyed by burning was still found to be capable of giving a mist. The blue color of the sky is supposed to be due to these excessively fine particles. The sources of this cloud-generating dust are probably many. Anything capable

of breaking up matter very minutely can contribute a share. The spray from the ocean is probably an important source. Meteoric matter, it is likely, furnishes a considerable proportion. The process of combustion produces copious quantities of very finely divided matter. If there is an excessive quantity of these particles in the air, they remain floating with a film of water condensed upon each of them, giving rise to the dense but light form of condensation called fog. This explains the prevalence of fogs in large cities and in factory districts. The experiments made by Aitken showed that simply heating a substance, for example glass, iron, or brass, gives rise to a cloud of dust of this nature. By collecting the air in which bodies had thus been heated into a receiver, he obtained a very dense mist by the injection of steam. A particle of iron weighing only $\frac{1}{100}$ grain when heated in pure air gave off enough dust to cause a distinct mistiness. An experiment was tried with combustible gas and air, both thoroughly filtered. Their combustion in the receiver gave rise to an atmosphere in which an exceedingly thick mist was formed by the admission of steam. When purified air and ordinary air were compressed successively by an air-pump with a little water to produce saturation, upon removing the pressure a foggy appearance was presented by the common air, but no change was visible in the filtered air. When air containing a small quantity of dust was placed in the receivers the cloud-particles were heavy and fell to the bottom like fine rain; but when there was much dust a permanent white mist formed. Experiments with different substances with the view of finding out their capacity for emitting dust showed common salt when burned in a fire, or in the flame of a spirit-lamp, to be one of the most active fog-generators. The air of the laboratory in which gas was burning gave a much denser fog than the air outside, and no difference could be detected in the density of the fog produced by burning gas with a bright or a smoky flame. The products of a perfect combustion and of a smoky combustion of fuel in a fire were also compared, without any difference in their fog-producing qualities being noticeable, while both were much more active than other air. Sulphur when burned gave rise to the most dense fog given by any substance, it being impossible to see through a thickness of five centimetres of the atmosphere thus produced. The vapors of other substances, such as sulphuric acid, alcohol, benzole, and paraffine, acted in the same manner as watery vapor, condensing in a dust-laden atmosphere but remaining perfectly clear in filtered air. The fogs of London and other large cities would not be averted by more perfect combustion of fuel, but would only be rendered whiter and purer. The quantity of sulphur burned in the coal in London is estimated to amount to 200 tons a day in winter. This would account for the density of the London

fogs. The sulphur may serve a good purpose as a disinfectant and deodorizer, as the air during a fog is perfectly stagnant, and is probably full of the germs of disease, which would more frequently cause infection were it not for the antiseptic action of the sulphur, and also of the smoke-particles with which the fogs of London and such cities are filled, and which make them so much more disagreeable. Smoke descends during a fog because the particles of soot are good radiators which soon cool, and then form nuclei on which the water-vapor condenses more readily than on the other dust-particles, by which they become heavier and fall. This is the reason why the phenomenon of falling smoke, caused by a saturated condition of the atmosphere, often indicates the approach of rain. Experiments with rain-drops have been made by Professor Lister, who found that they produced great numbers of living organisms in sensitive solutions. It is therefore probable that the germs of disease and putrefaction form a part of the fog-generating dust.

FOOTE, HENRY S., was born in Fauquier County, Virginia, in September, 1800. Having graduated at Washington College, Lexington, he removed first to Tusculum, Alabama, where he practiced law and edited a Democratic newspaper, and then to Jackson, Mississippi. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1847. In 1848 he was chairman of the Committee of Foreign Relations. In 1850 he advocated the compromise measures. In 1851 he became the Union candidate for Governor of Mississippi. General J. A. Quitman was his opponent, but a short time before the election his defeat became evident, so that he withdrew, and Jefferson Davis was substituted for General Quitman. Foote was elected. At the close of his governorship he moved to California. In 1858 he returned and resided at Vicksburg. He was a member of the Knoxville Convention, strongly opposed to disunion, yet he took the Southern side at the outbreak of the war. He was a member of the Confederate Congress, and was a thorn in the side of his compatriots. Finally, he left Richmond and went to Washington. Mr. Foote was irascible in temperament. He had a personal encounter on the floor of the United States Senate-Chamber with Thomas H. Benton, when they were both Senators. He was involved in several duels, one with Winston, of Alabama, another with Sargent S. Prentiss, and a third with Claiborne, of Mississippi. He was a firm believer in the "code of honor," but a wretched shot, so that his various affairs were bloodless. Mr. Foote filled the post of Superintendent of the United States Mint in New Orleans in later years. His health induced him to return to his home in the neighborhood of Nashville, Tennessee, where he died May 20th, in the eightieth year of his age.

FORSTER, WILLIAM EDWARD, the Chief Secretary for Ireland in the new English Cabinet of

Mr. Gladstone, was born at Bradpole, Dorsetshire, July 11, 1818. His father, William Forster, was a minister of the Society of Friends, who made extensive travels in the cause of religion and philanthropy all over Europe and the United States; his mother, Anna Buxton, was the eldest daughter of Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton. He was brought up to business, and was a worsted-manufacturer at Bradford, in Yorkshire, some years before the death of his father, who resided latterly at Norwich, and died during an antislavery mission to Tennessee, in 1853. In December, 1846, during the Irish famine, he accompanied his father to that country, to administer relief from a fund raised by their religious society. In 1850, having quitted the formal connection with the Society of Friends, he married Jane Martha, eldest daughter of Dr. Arnold, of Rugby. In 1859 he was a candidate, but without success, for the representation of Leeds in the House of Commons. In February, 1861, he was elected for Bradford, which constituency he still represents. His first speech was a very short one upon the American civil war, but that subject frequently drew from him questions and suggestions addressed to the English Government in favor of a just neutrality, and especially of prohibiting the equipment of privateers for the Southern Confederacy in British ports. In 1862 he came forward as the Parliamentary champion of a thoroughly efficient and widely extended system of national education. From November, 1865, to July, 1866, he was Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies in Lord Russell's Administration. On the accession of Mr. Gladstone to power, in 1868, he received the appointment of Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, in which position he rendered his party signal service by conducting the Elementary Education Act through the House of Commons. In 1871 he introduced the bill to establish vote by ballot at Parliamentary elections. The bill was thrown out by the Lords, but in the session of 1872 it became law. He was also made Fourth Charity Commissioner. When Mr. Gladstone resigned the Liberal leadership, Mr. Forster was named by a section of the party as his successor, but declined to attempt the task, on the ground that he did not expect to obtain that general support without which the arduous duties of the position ought not to be undertaken.

FOSTER, LAFAYETTE SABINE, LL. D., ex-Senator, was born at Franklin, Connecticut, November 22d, 1806. His father was Captain Daniel Foster, who fought bravely at Saratoga in 1777. His grandmother was Hannah Standish, a descendant of the Puritan soldier Miles Standish. Mr. Foster graduated with the highest honor at Brown University in 1830, and embraced the profession of the law, studying under Calvin Goddard. For a year he taught school at Centreville, Maryland. In 1833 he settled at Hampton, Connecticut. In 1835 he

removed to Norwich. In 1839 he was elected to the State Legislature, and was reelected in 1845, '48, and '54. During the last three years he was Speaker of the Assembly. He was Mayor of Norwich during 1851 and 1852. He was defeated for the gubernatorial office in two elections. In 1854 he was elected to the United States Senate by the Whigs. In 1856 he joined the newly-formed Republican party. In 1860 he was again sent to the Senate. He was on various important committees, on the Public Domains, the Finances, etc. In 1865 he was chosen President of the Senate, *pro tempore*. After the assassination of Lincoln and the elevation of Andrew Johnson to the Presidency, April 14, 1867, Mr. Foster became, according to the Constitution, acting Vice-President of the United States. His senatorial term of office expired March, 1867, and, not having been reelected, he was replaced by Mr. Wade in the second office of the Government. In 1869 he was chosen Professor of Law at Yale College. Defeated in 1874 as candidate for Congress, he resumed his practice. He died in Norwich, Connecticut, September 19th, in the seventy-fourth year of his age.

FRANCE, a republic in Europe. President, François Paul Jules Grévy, elected January 30, 1879. The French Cabinet was at the close of 1880 composed as follows: M. Jules Ferry, President of the Council and Minister of Public Instruction and Fine Arts; M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire, Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Constans, Minister of the Interior and of Worship; M. Cazot, Minister of Justice; M. Magnin, Minister of Finance; General Farre, Minister of War; Vice-Admiral Cloué, Minister of Marine; M. Sadi Carnot, Minister of Public Works; M. Tirard, Minister of Commerce; M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs.

The President of the Republic is elected by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, united in National Assembly. The term of his office is seven years, and he is eligible for reelection. The Senate is composed of 800 members, of whom 75 hold their seats for life, the vacancies being filled by the votes of the Senators. The remaining 225 seats are divided by lot into three classes of 75 each, one class going out at successive periods of three years.

The Chamber of Deputies is elected by universal suffrage under the *scrutin d'arrondissement* adopted by the National Assembly, November 11, 1875. The law orders every arrondissement to elect one deputy, and, if its population is in excess of 100,000, an additional deputy for each 100,000, or portion thereof.

The area of France, according to the latest official calculations, is 204,092 square miles, or 528,572 square kilometres. The population, according to the census of 1876, was 36,905,788. The movement of population from 1869 to 1878 was as follows:

YEARS.	Births. Exclusive of still-born children.	Deaths.	Surplus of births (B.) or deaths (D.).
1869.....	948,526	864,820	B. 84,206
1870.....	944,115	1,046,909	D. 108,394
1871.....	826,121	1,271,010	D. 444,815
1872.....	966,000	798,064	B. 172,936
1873.....	946,364	844,588	B. 101,776
1874.....	954,652	781,709	B. 172,943
1875.....	950,975	845,062	B. 105,913
1876.....	966,682	834,074	B. 132,608
1877.....	944,576	801,956	B. 142,620
1878.....	937,210	889,086	B. 98,175

The relation of marriages to the total population from 1871 to 1877 was as follows:

YEARS.	Total population.	Marriages.	Number of marriages to the 100 inhabitants.
1871.....	36,544,067	262,476	0.72
1872.....	36,102,921	352,754	0.98
1873.....	36,260,928	321,238	0.89
1874.....	36,389,481	308,113	0.83
1875.....	36,542,910	300,427	0.82
1876.....	36,905,788	291,336	0.79
1877.....	36,977,098	275,094	0.75

The receipts and expenditures in the general budget for 1880 were estimated as follows (value expressed in francs):

REVENUE.	
Direct taxes.....	377,421,500
Special taxes assimilated to direct taxes.....	29,787,700
Stamps and registration duties.....	643,666,700
Produce of forests.....	88,102,600
Duties.....	311,499,000
Indirect taxes.....	1,050,853,000
Posts.....	108,763,000
Produce of telegraphs.....	21,177,000
Three per cent. income-tax from personal property.....	34,274,000
Produce of universities.....	4,620,365
Produce of prisoners' work.....	9,165,180
Revenue of Algeria.....	27,937,700
Tax upon civil pensions.....	19,438,000
Miscellaneous receipts.....	52,011,055
Total.....	2,749,716,800
EXPENDITURE:	
Public debt and dotations.....	1,197,725,498
Ministry of Justice.....	34,448,942
“ of Foreign Affairs.....	14,036,800
“ of the Interior and Worship.....	188,986,218
“ of Finance.....	20,143,020
“ of Posts and Telegraphs.....	1,440,560
“ of War.....	575,129,017
“ of the Navy and Colonies.....	104,990,358
“ of Public Instruction and Fine Arts.....	58,490,254
“ of Agriculture and Commerce.....	36,505,826
“ of Public Works.....	164,025,659
Cost of collecting the revenue.....	275,910,972
Drawbacks and reimbursements.....	19,620,438
Total.....	2,792,293,679

The interest on the public debt, according to the budget of 1880, was as follows:

Consolidated debt.....	745,957,546
Capital that may be called in.....	319,320,338
Debite viagère.....	132,447,619
Total.....	1,197,725,498

On January 1, 1873, the new army law of July 27, 1872, went into operation. Its first article enacts universal liability to military service. Every Frenchman capable of bearing arms must serve for twenty years, namely, five

years in the standing army, four years in the reserve of the standing army, five years in the territorial army (Landwehr), and six years in the reserve of the territorial army (Landsturm). By a law of July 24, 1873, on the reorganization of the army, France is divided into eighteen districts, each of which is occupied by an army corps. One army corps is also organized in Algeria. Each of the eighteen army corps consists of two divisions of infantry, one brigade of cavalry, one brigade of artillery, one battalion of engineers, one squadron of the train, a general staff and the subordinate staffs. By a law of March 16, 1880, the former general staff, which was a closed corps consisting of 513 officers, has been dissolved, and has been replaced by a new staff which is accessible to all officers who, after completing the course of studies in the *École militaire de Guerre*, have obtained the *brevet d'état major* on the ground of their final examination. In this examination, all captains may take part even if they have not visited the *École*. Moreover, officers of the staff may receive the *brevet* under special conditions fixed upon by the Minister of War. The Minister of War selects among the brevetted officers those who are to enter into the service of the general staff. In time of peace they remain in this service for four years, after which they return to their former position. They can not be recalled to the general staff until two years later. While serving in the general staff, their names remain on the lists of their own branch of the army, but they are kept there “*hors cadre*.” The brevetted officers who are not called into the service of the general staff form a reserve. The new general staff consists of 300 officers and 150 archivists. Outside of this *cadre* a land-surveying commission has been established in connection with the war depot, consisting of twelve officers. The French army, on a peace footing, was in 1880 composed as follows:

ARMS.	Men.	Horses.
Infantry (156 regiments, 641 battalions, 2,575 companies).....	281,601	2,649
Cavalry.....	65,617	59,028
Artillery.....	66,831	32,690
Engineers.....	10,960	738
Train.....	9,392	7,680
Staff.....	38,849	8,684
Gendarmes.....	27,014	13,667
Total.....	502,764	120,126

According to an estimate of the “*Journal des Sciences Militaires*” for January, 1879, the strength of the French army on a war footing would be as follows:

Infantry:	
817 battalions of the active army.....	817,500
449 battalions of the territorial army.....	449,000
Total infantry.....	1,266,500
Cavalry:	
392 squadrons of the active army.....	58,800
79 squadrons of the territorial army.....	11,850
Total cavalry.....	70,650

Artillery :

312 field batteries of the active army. }	124,000
57 mounted batteries " " }	56,000
83 field batteries of the territorial army.....	180,000
407 batteries with 2,442 cannon.....	26,000
Engineers :	19,000
Active army.....	45,000
Territorial army.....	5,000
Total engineers.....	
Pontonniers, active army.....	

This gives a total of 1,031,300 men for the active army, and 535,850 for the territorial army; in all, 1,567,150 men. For the train, the administration, and the sanitary troops, there would still be necessary 155,000 men for the active and 58,150 for the territorial army; which would give the following result: Active army, 1,186,300; Territorial army, 594,000; total, 1,780,300. Notwithstanding the loss of Alsace-Lorraine, resulting in a decrease of pop-

ulation of more than a million and a half, the expenditure for the army has largely increased since the war with Germany. The rise is mainly due to the increase in the numbers of the army under the new organization.

The navy on January 1, 1879, comprised 258 vessels. Of these 66 were ironclads, 156 steamers (44 cruisers, 29 transport-vessels, 40 dispatch-boats, 36 gunboats, 7 torpedo-boats), and 36 sailing-vessels.

The foreign trade of France is officially divided into "commerce général," which comprises the entire imports and exports, including goods in transit, and "commerce spécial," which embraces the imports consumed and the exports produced within the country. The following table exhibits the movements of French commerce from 1859 to 1879 (value expressed in francs):

YEARS.	GENERAL COMMERCE.		SPECIAL COMMERCE.		GOLD AND PRECIOUS METALS.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
1879.....	5,008,900,000	4,111,700,000	4,594,800,000	3,168,100,000	889,200,000	424,500,000
1878.....	4,570,000,000	4,371,000,000	4,461,000,000	3,869,800,000	546,000,000	189,600,000
1877.....	4,908,800,000	4,547,500,000	3,663,800,000	3,436,300,000	653,100,000	141,200,000
1876.....	4,461,800,000	4,807,000,000	3,988,400,000	3,575,600,000	804,000,000	234,000,000
1875.....	4,422,500,000	4,702,100,000	3,586,600,000	3,872,600,000	228,000,000	219,000,000
1874.....	4,576,400,000	4,822,300,000	3,507,700,000	3,701,100,000	952,000,000	150,000,000
1873.....	4,107,000,000	4,061,300,000	3,554,800,000	3,787,300,000	565,000,000	492,000,000
1869-1873.....	8,513,800,000	3,988,800,000	3,342,500,000	3,259,700,000	462,000,000	371,000,000
1859-1868.....	2,846,600,000	3,088,200,000	2,358,700,000	2,961,800,000	799,000,000	451,000,000
1859-1868.....			2,121,100,000	2,271,000,000	607,000,000	513,000,000

The countries chiefly interested in the trade with France during the year 1878 are exhibited in the following table (value expressed in francs):

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain.....	580,300,000	915,400,000
Belgium.....	411,000,000	409,700,000
Italy.....	348,500,000	169,700,000
Germany.....	418,500,000	843,700,000
Switzerland.....	110,400,000	229,400,000
Spain.....	148,900,000	137,600,000
Russia.....	549,600,000	80,000,000
Turkey.....	127,300,000	57,200,000
United States.....	487,500,000	207,400,000
British India.....	136,700,000	8,200,000
China.....	93,400,000	2,800,000
French colonies.....	220,700,000	181,400,000

The principal articles of import and export in 1879 were as follows (in francs):

CLASSES.	Imports.	Exports.
Articles of food.....	1,966,970,000	800,775,000
Raw materials.....	1,689,753,000	478,944,000
Manufactured goods.....	483,488,000	1,578,820,000
Other merchandise.....	499,619,000	304,551,000
Total merchandise.....	4,594,887,000	3,168,090,000
Coins and precious metals....	889,170,000	424,543,000
Total.....	4,934,007,000	3,587,633,000

The railroads of France are either main lines, which serve the general interest, or local lines. The former partly belong to the state Government, and partly to private companies. The latter will be assumed by the Government at the expiration of their charters. The number

of kilometres in operation on January 1, 1880, was as follows:

Main lines.....	22,761
Local lines.....	2,158
Total.....	24,919

The number of kilometres in the course of construction, on the same date, was 5,153, of which 2,178 were built by companies, and 2,975 by the Government.

The statistics of telegraphs are as follows:

Length of lines in 1879, kilometres....	59,500
Length of wires in 1879.....	471,500
Stations in 1879.....	4,965
Total dispatches in 1878.....	14,414,457
Revenue.....	21,172,230 francs.
Expenditure.....	20,890,400 "

An official inquiry into the production and consumption of sugar was instituted by the Government with a view of modifying the high duties upon sugar. The following table gives the particulars of the production and consumption in kilogrammes during the last ten years:

YEARS.	Production.	Consumption.
1869-'70.....	290,000,000	279,000,000
1870-'71.....	283,000,000	294,000,000
1871-'72.....	285,000,000	284,000,000
1872-'73.....	408,000,000	185,000,000
1873-'74.....	396,000,000	252,000,000
1874-'75.....	450,000,000	231,000,000
1875-'76.....	462,000,000	284,000,000
1876-'77.....	243,000,000	285,000,000
1877-'78.....	398,000,000	259,000,000
1878-'79.....	420,000,000	266,000,000

The consumption has by no means kept pace with the increase of production—a fact which

is partly to be accounted for by the heavy and constantly increasing duties. These were in 1860-'61, per 100 kilogrammes, 33f.; 1862-'63, 45f.; 1864-'70, 47f.; 1871-'72, 61f.; 1873, 70f. 50c.; 1874-'78, 73f. 32c. Great Britain, on the other hand, with her constantly diminishing duties, which disappeared finally in 1874, has a consumption which increased from 450,000,000 kilogrammes in 1860 to 918,000,000 in 1878.

On December 31, 1877, there were 538 authorized savings-banks with 777 branches. The number of books out on December 31, 1877, was 2,863,283, and there was due to depositors 862,834,155 francs. According to a report of the Minister of Commerce on the savings-banks in France the number of depositors in 1870, before the war, was 2,130,000; in 1872, 2,016,000; in 1875, 2,642,000; in 1877, 2,863,000; and in 1878, over 3,000,000. The deposits in this interval rose correspondingly from 711,000,000f. in 1870 to 1,010,000,000f. in 1878. From 1851 to 1870 (eighteen years) the whole progress made was 1,500,000 in the case of the number of depositors, and 553,000,000f. as regards the deposits.

The French colonies and dependencies had, according to the latest official reports, the following areas in square kilometres (1 square kilometre = 0.386 square mile) and popula-

From a comparison of the above table with that given in the "Annual Cyclopaedia" for 1879, it will appear that Tahiti, in Oceania, no longer belongs to the dependencies of France, but to its colonies. It was on June 29, 1880, formally annexed to France. (See article AUSTRALIA, in the present volume.)

Special attention is given by the French Government to the extension of its rule and influence in Central Africa. The Minister of Public Works, in 1880, sent out a mission to study the line of the proposed trans-Saharan Railway, and the plan of a railway connecting the colony of Senegal with the Niger is under consideration at the Ministry of the Marine. In 1879 the French built the fort of Baoulabé, and thus brought their frontier considerably nearer the Niger. In 1880 they began to build a fort at Kita, which will advance their frontier 250 kilometres and bring them within 250 kilometres of the river. At the beginning of the year a mission, under the guidance of Captain Gallieni, was sent out to secure the friendship of the tribes through whose territory the railway is to pass. The expedition left St. Louis on January 30th, and arrived at Kita on April 27th, without accident. Captain Gallieni obtained all the concessions necessary for the construction of a fort, and made treaties of friendship with the neighboring chiefs. The caravan was then formed, and the mission proceeded eastward until May 11th, when they were attacked by the Bambaras and lost half their number. The rest escaped, and succeeded in passing the Niger on May 15th.

On September 16th the "Journal Officiel" published two decrees touching the question of bringing Central Africa into communication with the civilized world. There are in Central Africa two vast and fertile regions which are placed in a state of complete isolation by their distance from the sea and the difficulty of communications. One of these regions in the southern hemisphere will, perhaps, be some day connected with the Mediterranean by the Nile, with the Indian Ocean by a railway, and with the Atlantic by the Congo. The other region, in the northern hemisphere, may be connected with the Mediterranean by the proposed Sahara Railway, and with the Atlantic by several proposed lines of railway, one of which would pass through the French colony of Senegal, and put it into communication with the upper basin of the Niger, which is inhabited by independent tribes. This railway from the Atlantic to the upper basin of the Niger was proved to be possible by the explorations of Lieutenant Mage. The decrees mentioned above were intended to organize expeditions for studying the details of the line, first of all between the upper basin of the Senegal River and the upper basin of the Niger.

The first change in the Ministry of M. de Freycinet took place on May 16th, when the Minister of the Interior, M. Lepère, resigned. The reason for this resignation was found in a

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.	Area sq. kil.	Population.
Algeria (1877).....	318,834	2,867,626
I. COLONIES.		
<i>Asia.</i>		
1. India: Pondichéry, Chandernagor, Karikal, Mahé, Yanaon (1877).....	509	250,881
2. French Cochín-China (1875).....	50,458	1,592,262
<i>Oceania.</i>		
1. New Caledonia (1876).....	17,080	41,694
2. Loyalty Islands (1876).....	2,743	13,174
3. Marquesas Islands (1876).....	1,274	5,754
4. Tahiti, Moorea, Tetuaroa, and Karitaea (1876).....	1,179	21,986
5. Clipperton Island.....	5.5	not inhabit'd
<i>Africa.</i>		
1. Senegal and dependencies (1877).....	(doubtful)	188,182
2. Gaboon (1877).....	(doubtful)	(doubtful)
3. Réunion (1877).....	1,979.52	182,180
4. Mayotte (1877).....	366	9,617
5. Nossi-Bé and dependencies (1877).....	293	7,360
6. St.-Marie de Madagascar (1877).....		7,012
<i>America.</i>		
St. Bartholomew (1875).....	21.14	2,374
St.-Pierre and Miquelon (1877).....	235	5,838
Martinique (1877).....	987.8	161,782
Guadeloupe and dependencies (1877).....	1,848.51	180,879
French Guiana (1877).....	121,413	26,960
Total colonies.....	209,892.5	2,676,775
II. DEPENDENCIES.		
<i>Asia.</i>		
Cambodia (1874).....	83,861	890,000
<i>Oceania.</i>		
Tubai, Varitu, Oparo (1876).....	209	793
Tuamotu Archipelago, with Gambier Islands (1876).....	1,000	5,469
Total dependencies.....	85,070	896,262
Total possessions outside of Europe.....	612,796	6,440,660

reluctance of the Minister to carry through the decrees against the religious communities with that degree of energy which his colleagues and the majority of the Republican party demanded. He was succeeded by M. Constans, the under-secretary in the Department of the Interior. On September 23d the Premier, M. de Freycinet himself, with Admiral Jauréguiberry, Minister of the Navy, and M. Varroy, Minister of Public Works, resigned, and were succeeded by M. Jules Ferry, heretofore Minister of Public Instruction, who was appointed Premier; M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire, who in place of M. de Freycinet became Minister of Foreign Affairs; Vice-Admiral Cloué, as Minister of the Navy; and M. Sidi Carnot, as Minister of Public Works. The new Ministers are all in favor of a more radical policy against the religious orders, and against the influence of the Church upon the national system of education, than their predecessors, and all are among the intimate friends and supporters of M. Gambetta. The new Prime Minister, M. Jules Ferry, declared at once, in a circular to the diplomatic agents of France, that there would be no change in the foreign policy of France. (For biographical notes on M. Jules Ferry, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 387, and, for a biographical sketch of M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire, "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1875, p. 316.)

M. Jean Antoine Ernest Constans, the new Minister of the Interior and of Public Worship, was born in 1833, and was formerly Professor of Roman Law in Toulouse. M. Sidi Carnot is a member of the well-known family which has given to France a number of distinguished advocates of republican sentiments. He was heretofore under-secretary in the same Ministry of which he has now become the chief. Vice-Admiral Cloué has heretofore not taken an active part in political life, and was, at the time of his appointment, President of the Hydrographic Committee.

The National Assembly resumed its sittings on January 13th. Both in the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies the oldest member present acted as temporary president. In the Senate the presidency devolved upon M. Gaulthier de Rumilly, who was eighty-seven years of age, and in the Chamber of Deputies upon M. Desseaux, who was ninety-one years of age. Both belong to the Republican party, and expressed a wish that the coming session might contribute to the strengthening of the republic. The Chamber of Deputies reelected on January 13th, M. Gambetta, and the Senate, on January 14th, M. Martel as president. In the Chamber of Deputies, of the 533 members, only 308 deposited voting papers, the Right, as usual, abstaining, and of these 308, 49 resorted to blank papers, or inserted names at random, so that M. Gambetta, though reelected, received only 259 votes, or slightly less than half the House, whereas a year ago he received 314. The Left comprises about 380 members, so that about 70 Republicans held aloof, while 50 vir-

tually voted against him. The Extreme Left, with the aid of the Bonapartists, elected M. Madier de Montjau, a questor, to the exclusion of M. Gailly, of the Left Center, and they also gained one of the secretaryships at the expense of the Left Center. M. Martel received 168 out of 208 votes. On January 16th the statement of the new Ministry respecting their intended policy was read in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. The Ministers say that the recent change in the Cabinet indicates no change in the prudent and measured policy which is best suited both at home and abroad to the condition of the country, but merely signifies that France may henceforth advance with decision in the path of necessary reforms and successive improvements. The Ministry propose to ask the Senate to go on with the Public Instruction Bills which have already been adopted by the Chamber; to proceed with the reorganization of the magistracy, and the reform of the *personnel* of the administration; to adopt the bill of their predecessors respecting the right of meeting; and to prepare a bill on the subject of the press. Nothing was said about an amnesty. The Easter vacation of the Chambers began on March 21st, and lasted until April 20th.

On May 25th M. Léon Say was elected President of the Senate, in place of M. Martel, who resigned on account of ill health. He presided for the first time on June 14th. His inaugural address, which reviewed the constitution and growth of republican principles in France, was received with applause.

On November 9th, at the first meeting of the Senate and the Chamber after the recess, M. Jules Ferry, the President of the new Cabinet which had been formed in September, read the declaration of the Government, in the course of which he stated that the Cabinet did not intend to apply the decrees to the congregations of women. Among the first laws which the House would have to consider, M. Ferry mentioned those relative to education, the reform of the magistrature, and the laws on the press and the right of public meeting. The declaration of the Government was received with applause from the Left, and laughter from the Right, when M. Ferry pronounced the name of liberty.

The discussion of the Ferry Bill on the Supreme Educational Council, which had been introduced on March 15, 1879, and had created so great an excitement in that year,* was begun in the Senate on January 23d. On the next day the Duke de Broglie spoke against the bill, which would exclude the religious element from the Superior Council, and would be a first step in the path of revolutionary fanaticism. On January 26th M. Jules Ferry defended the measure, and read a secret memorandum drawn up by the framers of the bill of 1860, and which had been submitted to the

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 390.

Pope, showing that the scheme was intended to swamp the university by a number of members not belonging to it, in order to increase the influence of the clergy in education. Several members of the Right objected to the reading of this document; and, after it had been read, a Senator asked who were its authors, to which M. Jules Ferry said, "I have no doubt M. de Falloux and Monsignore Dupanloup." On January 27th a powerful speech was made against the bill by M. Laboulaye, who said that he was opposed to constant state interference in matters of education, and that the present measure did not suppress liberty, but virtually strangled it. He thought that by such bills the Republicans were paving the way for a dictatorship. M. Jules Ferry spoke again in favor of his bill on January 30th. He said that the bishops were excluded from the proposed Council because they had all joined the Ultramontane party. Mr. Jules Simon opposed the bill, and contended that the principle of free instruction should be fairly represented in the Council. An amendment, moved by M. Delsol, in favor of giving the bishops and others seats in the Council, was rejected by 147 to 122 votes. On February 14th the Senate, by 162 votes to 126, gave a second and final reading to the bill. On February 19th the bill was returned to the Chamber of Deputies, which on February 21st agreed to the senatorial amendments. On February 28th the bill was promulgated in the official journal.

The discussion of the second of the two educational bills of M. Jules Ferry, concerning the liberty of education, was begun in the Senate on February 23d. M. Chesnelong spoke against the bill from the Catholic point of view, maintaining that there is only one genuine kind of education, which is imparted by the Church, and most effectually by the religious orders. M. Pelletan, a member of the Left, made a vehement attack upon the Jesuits, and argued that the question at issue was not one of legality but of freedom. M. Dufournel, in speaking against the bill, was threatened with a call to order for a reference to M. Ferry's civil marriage, but he disclaimed any offensive intention. M. Jules Simon spoke against the bill, and maintained that clause seven, which excludes members of religious bodies not recognized by the state from the right of teaching in the schools, infringed the freedom of education. The general debate was then closed, and the discussion of the clauses began. On February 28th, M. Eymard Duvernay, of the Republican Left, proposed a counter-project. He objected to higher education in any but state schools, but proposed a similar system to the German *privatdozenten*. He also demanded that Article VII should be struck out of the bill. The scheme was, after some discussion, withdrawn. On March 1st, Article I, which suppresses the mixed juries, with whom the conferring of degrees formerly rested, and restores that right to the state, was adopted after

the amendment of M. Brun maintaining the old system had been rejected by 172 votes to 103. The Chamber then passed Articles II and III, the latter of which abolishes the fees paid by students on entering state colleges, and concluded by approving Articles IV, V, and VI. According to Article IV, the law recognizes two classes of schools of superior education: 1. Schools or groups of schools which are founded or supported by communities or the state, and which are called universities, faculties, or public schools; 2. Schools which are founded or supported by individuals or by societies, and which are not allowed to bear any other name than that of free schools. Article V provides that the titles of professor, doctor, licentiate, and baccalaureus, can only be bestowed upon those who have acquired them by passing the prescribed examination before the state faculties. According to Article VI, the opening of special courses of instruction is exclusively regulated by the law of July 12, 1875. The most controverted article was Article VII, which has already been referred to. M. Bertauld, on March 5th, spoke strongly in favor of the measure, contending that the Jesuits had no legal right of existence, and ought to be excluded from the rights and privileges of French citizens. M. de Gavardie, after shaking his fist at M. Bertauld, and being called to order, continued to speak in very violent terms, and the President for some time was unable to restore order. M. Jules Ferry subsequently spoke in support of the measure, which he maintained was based on principles of public policy. He said that the Jesuits were in permanent conspiracy against the state, and that their position in France had always been illegal. He condemned the education given by the Jesuits, and gave quotations from several books, the teaching of which he regarded as dangerous and hostile to the established institutions of the country.

M. Jules Simon followed on the other side. He said that from the outset he had intended to oppose Article VII of the bill, but now it had become a question of defending the principle of liberty. The time had come for the country to know whether freedom was to continue to prevail in France or not. The law proposed by the Government was both useless and impolitic, and he reminded the House of the answer given by Henry IV to the university professors who complained of the success of the Jesuits—namely, "Make your schools better than theirs, and the pupils will come back to you." M. Simon concluded by saying it was by means of liberty that the Catholic Church must be combated. The Minister-President, M. de Freycinet, defended clause seven against M. Jules Simon, and maintained that it in no way violated liberty. A deep impression was made by the aged Dufaure, who is at the same time one of the honored champions of a republican form of government and a devoted member of the Catholic Church. He declared that

the measure was an arm raised against religion, and had been brought forward without any serious reason. Following the leadership of Simon and Dufaure, a number of members of the Left Center and the Left voted with the Right against clause seven, which accordingly was rejected on March 9th by 148 against 129 votes. Great excitement followed the announcement of this vote. In the principal towns of France, meetings were held and petitions signed in favor of expelling the Jesuits in accordance with the existing law, which the present Government, like its predecessors, had ignored up to the present time. The reading on the second bill began on March 15th. M. Pelletan moved that clause seven should be restored, and the motion was rejected by 149 to 132. M. de Freycinet stated, with regard to M. Dufaure's suggestion of a compromise, that, despite the desire of the Cabinet for conciliation, and their deference for the illustrious orator who addressed to them that appeal, they could not submit a fresh clause, the clause itself being in their eyes a compromise. The clause being rejected, it only remained for them to enforce the laws. The bill, as amended, was agreed to by 187 to 103. On March 16th, the bill again came before the Chamber of Deputies, and was declared urgent. The Prime Minister, M. de Freycinet, again declared that the Government intended to apply, on its responsibility, the existing laws, and asked the Chamber for a declaration of confidence. An order of the day in this sense was then put and carried by a majority of 338 against 147. The bill, as modified by the Senate, was afterward adopted by 276 against 88. On March 30th, the "Journal Officiel" published the decrees of the Government respecting the religious congregations. The first article dissolves the Jesuits' Association, and orders the closing of the schools and novitiates within three months. On April 26th, M. Baragnon, a member of the Right, moved that urgency should be accorded to his proposal that all diplomas granted by the Minister of Public Instruction should be placed upon an equal footing in all examinations for prizes. This was granted, by 153 votes to 104. M. Baragnon's motion was directed against a recent circular of the Minister of Justice, which determined that, for the examinations for the posts of auditors of the Council of State, only those candidates could compete who had obtained their diploma from the state faculties.

Nearly all the archbishops and bishops of France issued a protest against the resuscitation of the laws against the Jesuits; and the Pope, in an address made to a company of French pilgrims, declared himself in the same sense. In the Chamber of Deputies, M. Lamy, who is both a supporter of the Government and a zealous Catholic, brought forward an interpellation questioning the validity of the laws cited by the Government in support of the decrees against the Jesuits. M. Cazot, the Minister of Justice, replied that the laws under which the

Government had acted were good and binding, and the Ministry would enforce them according to their right and duty. After a long discussion, the order of the day pure and simple was voted by 362 to 137. Prince Napoleon issued a manifesto, in which he took the ground that the recent decrees do not amount to persecution, and that they are but a return to constitutional law. The Bourbons recognize that theocracy must give way to the state. The Prince declares it to be time that the fiction of a conservative union should be ended, as there is nothing in common between the Legitimists and the Bonapartists. He concludes by saying that the most fatal policy of the Bonapartists would be to adopt a retrograde policy.

After the reassembling of the Chambers in November, the Senate adopted M. Camille Sée's bill for the creation of high schools for girls, under the surveillance and responsibility of the state. Like the educational bills of M. Jules Ferry, this bill intends to weaken the influence of the Church upon national education, and to increase that of the state. The bill had previously been adopted in the Chamber of Deputies by a large majority.

Another measure directed against the influence of the Church was the proposed repeal of the army chaplains law of 1871. The Minister of War, General Farre, was much applauded by the Left when he stated that he should have himself proposed the repeal had nobody else done so, and that a chaplain's presence with a regiment was undesirable from a military point of view, for, whatever influence he acquired would be at the expense of the officers. The repeal was adopted by 342 to 111.

No less than three Public Meeting Bills engaged the attention of the Chamber of Deputies soon after it met in January—one introduced by the Government, a second by the committee, and the third by M. Louis Blanc—this last proposing the repeal, pure and simple, of all laws fettering the right of meeting and forming associations, whereas the others insist on notice being given to the authorities and on police regulations. On January 26th the Chamber rejected M. Louis Blanc's motion by 322 votes against 162. On January 27th M. Lepère, the Minister of the Interior, spoke in favor of the bill proposed by the Government. He maintained the necessity of the object of a public meeting being declared beforehand by its promoters. Despite the Minister's argument, the Chamber adopted the fourth clause of the bill, as proposed by the committee, by 310 votes against 167. A long discussion ensued upon clause seven, which aims at preventing political meetings. It was on January 29th adopted by 266 votes to 199. The other clauses having been agreed to, the bill was read a first time, when the subject came up again for discussion in May. M. Cazot, the Minister of Justice, moved as a compromise that the Commissary of Police should have the right to at-

tend meetings and to issue warnings to those present, without, however, being entitled to dissolve such meetings. This was agreed to, and the whole bill was then adopted.

As the Government, in the statement of its principles, which was submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on January 16th, said nothing about an amnesty, M. Louis Blanc, on January 22d, introduced in the Chamber of Deputies a bill for a general amnesty. The report of the committee on the proposal, which was read on February 5th by M. Perier, advocated its rejection, pure and simple. In the name of the Government, M. de Freycinet declared on February 12th that the Government considered it their duty to refuse the request for a plenary amnesty. The country was not in favor of the measure, and would not be until it ceased to be an instrument of political agitation. M. de Freycinet, therefore, urged the partisans of an amnesty to unite with the Government in establishing calmness throughout the country, and in giving effect to the reforms required. The Government would then, perhaps, be strong enough to propose an amnesty. After a debate the Chamber rejected M. Louis Blanc's proposal by 313 to 115. On June 19th the Government after long and careful deliberation thought the moment opportune for presenting to the Chambers a bill for granting a plenary amnesty to all persons who have been convicted of political offenses. The bill ran as follows: "An amnesty is accorded to all who have been condemned for crimes and offenses connected with the insurrection of 1870 and 1871, as well as to all who have been condemned for political crimes and offenses, or for press crimes and offenses committed down to June 19, 1880." Only two days later, the committee reported in favor of the acceptance of the Government's bill without modification. M. Gambetta left the President's chair, and when the moment came he rose from his seat and delivered an oration, which carried the House in favor of the bill. The amnesty was voted by 333 against 140, out of 473 voters. This was the first time that M. Gambetta appeared in the tribune of the Palais-Bourbon since September 4, 1870.

In the Senate, M. Jules Simon, on July 3d, made a brilliant speech against the Government bill, and the Senate, by 143 votes against 138, adopted a limited amnesty proposed by M. Bozérian which excepts assassins and incendiaries. The committee appointed by the Chamber to report upon the Senate's amendment to the Amnesty Bill, after hearing the views of the Ministers and of delegates from the different groups of the Left, adopted M. Labiche's amendment, proposing to grant an amnesty to whomsoever the Government shall pardon within the next three months. The committee, however, appended a proviso that all those who previous to the Commune had undergone sentences for common-law crimes shall continue to be deprived of their political rights.

The committee subsequently held a second sitting, when its former decision was, after a long discussion, partially reversed, and it was resolved to adopt M. Labiche's amendment in its original form, but limiting the period assigned for the granting of pardons by the Government to the interval between the present date and July 14th, instead of fixing it at three months. Finally, the Senate and the Chamber agreed upon the following wording:

All the individuals condemned for having taken part in the insurrectional events of 1870 and 1871, and in the posterior insurrectional movements, who have been or shall have been, before July 14, 1880, the object of a decree of pardon, with the exception of individuals condemned by judgment to the penalty of death or to penal servitude for life for the crime of arson or assassination, shall be considered as amnestied. This exception shall not be applicable to the above-mentioned condemned persons who shall have been up to the date of July 9th the object of a commutation of their sentence, etc.

On July 11th the "Journal Officiel" contained two decrees, dated July 6th and July 10th, rendering the amnesty practically plenary, and granting pardons and commutations of sentence to all the Communists who at that time were still in exile or in New Caledonia. The number excluded from the amnesty was seventeen. These seventeen were pardoned, and none of them were political personages.

The views of France are greatly divided on the subject of free trade and protection. The south, on the whole, favors free trade, the north protection. On January 31st the debate on the Customs Tariff Bill began in the Chamber of Deputies. M. Tirard, the Minister of Commerce, referred to the customs tariff established in 1860, and said that that tariff had not borne all the fruit which was anticipated from it, because it was not previously made the subject of an exhaustive discussion in the legislative body; but, at the same time, the reform then instituted had led to a considerable growth of trade. He replied to various objections that had been made to the Anglo-French commercial treaty, and asserted that France sent twice as much of her products to England as she received thence. He asked the Chamber to adhere to the present tariff as the basis of negotiations entered into with foreign countries for the renewal of the treaties of commerce. On February 15th, M. Allain Targe traced an intimate connection between the question of customs duties and that of transport. The speaker objected to the system of *octroi* duties at the entrance of cities, saying that it is no use abolishing customs duties if these are to be maintained.

One of the most important speeches was that by M. Rouher, on February 21st and 23d. He defended the empire against the charge of having concluded the treaties of commerce of 1860 by surprise, criticised successively the tariffs proposed by the committee, which he declared to be too high, and expressed his belief that the dangers of foreign competition

had been exaggerated. He called attention to the increase of the national wealth of France and England since the conclusion of the treaties of commerce, and remarked upon the solidity of the French economical *régime*, which had maintained the credit of the country during the crisis of 1870, and had enabled it to pay an enormous war indemnity. He concluded by saying, "We have had many sufferings, but, if other countries have grown in breadth, we may grow in stature." The speech was much applauded. In the course of the discussion the protectionists made many efforts to impose higher duties than those recommended by the committee, but they were generally unsuccessful.

The administration of Algeria was the subject of a warm debate in the Chamber of Deputies on April 21st. M. Godelle, one of the leaders of the Bonapartist party, who represents one of the *arrondissements* of Paris, brought forward an interpellation respecting the allegations contained in a letter written by M. Journault, the Secretary-General of Algeria, who had resigned his appointment in consequence of a disagreement between him and M. Albert Grévy, the Governor. M. Godelle charged M. Grévy with ruling in a most despotic manner, and moved for a parliamentary inquiry on the subject. M. Janvier de la Motte, another Bonapartist, followed, and accused the Governor-General of corruption with respect to a railway contract. M. Albert Grévy, who, being a Senator, attended to make his defense by virtue of a special decree by the President, having replied, M. Godelle rejoined by pressing for a parliamentary investigation on the ground that "suspicion still rested on the brother of the President of the Republic." This provoked great uproar, and on the motion of M. Gambetta, who said that the President had been insulted, the Chamber passed a vote for M. Godelle's temporary exclusion. Censure was also passed on two Bonapartists, M. Cunéo d'Ornano and M. Baudry d'Asson, for their comments on M. Gambetta's severity. The Right then threatened to leave in a body, whereupon M. Gambetta declared that such a demonstration would bring on them a like punishment, and the threat was not carried out. A resolution proposed by M. Spuller, expressing satisfaction with the Governor's explanations, was supported by 367 deputies. The Right voted against it, and a few radicals did not vote at all.

On July 14th France celebrated, for the first time, the annual festival which the Government has introduced in commemoration of the removal of the Bastille (July 14, 1789). The Chambers had appropriated half a million francs for the festival. The participation of the masses of the people in Paris and the large provincial cities was general and enthusiastic. President Grévy distributed flags to 436 deputations of the army, which was followed by a grand parade of 25,000 troops, with 96 pieces of artillery and 5,000 horses. The Government took occasion to

distribute a few crosses of the Legion of Honor. Among those promoted was M. Ernest Renan, who was now made an officer of the Legion of Honor, after having waited twenty years.

The relations between France and England were throughout close and cordial. M. Léon Say's appointment as ambassador at the English court was generally thought to promise an arrangement for the renewal of the commercial treaty which had been provisionally continued pending the French general tariff legislations. Mr. Gladstone was willing to make an effort to compass this object, and his supplementary budget included a provision for the reduction of the wine duties demanded by the French. M. Léon Say, however, soon abandoned the London embassy, preferring the presidency of the Senate. He was succeeded as ambassador by M. Challemeil-Lacour. The negotiations with respect to the treaty did not progress rapidly in France, and finally were postponed till 1881. The new ambassador in London is an ardent republican and an intimate friend of Gambetta. He is a pupil of the *Ecole Normale*. The first position he occupied was the chair of French Literature at Zurich. Then he returned to France, and became a journalist. In 1868 he joined Gambetta, Brisson, and Allain-Targé in forming the "*Revue Politique*." In 1870 he entered political life and was elected Senator in 1876. He joined Gambetta again in founding the "*République Française*," in which he was one of the principal writers until he was appointed minister plenipotentiary at Berne. The alliance of Austria and Germany tended to bring France and Russia together, and this mutual approach alleviated the bitterness felt when the French Government refused the extradition of Hartmann, the Russian nihilist, who was arrested in February by the French police on suspicion of having been concerned in the attempt of December 2d to blow up the train by which the Emperor of Russia was traveling. The new Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. Barthélemy St. Hilaire, is outspoken in favor of preserving friendly relations with all the European powers. In April he wrote, as Vice-President of the Senate, a letter to the editor of a paper in Berlin, in which he expressed his recognition of Prince Bismarck's policy as one "decidedly useful for the preservation of European peace." M. de Freycinet, while Prime Minister, ordered the foreign envoys of France henceforth to style themselves, not ambassadors or ministers of France, but of the French Republic.

In consequence of the Amnesty Bill adopted by the Chambers, the exiles returned to France. Rochefort and his family arrived in Paris on July 12th, and were escorted from the station by a crowd of 50,000 persons singing the "*Marseillaise*," and crying "*Vive Rochefort!*" "*Vive la république!*" Rochefort, soon after his return, established a new radical organ, "*l'Intransigeant*." In Octo-

ber, Félix Pyat, the director of "La Commune," was condemned to two years' imprisonment and 1,000 francs' fine, for having written in his paper a rhetorical panegyric of regi-

cide, and originated the idea of a public subscription of five centimes to buy a pistol of honor for Berezowski, who shot at the Emperor of Russia while he was at Paris in 1867.

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GARFIELD, JAMES ABRAM, President-elect of the United States, was born in Cuyahoga County, Ohio, November 19, 1831. His paternal ancestors came from England and settled at Watertown, Massachusetts, in 1635. His father, Abram Garfield, was born in New York; his mother, Eliza Ballou, in New Hampshire.

In 1830 they moved to Ohio, and settled in the Orange Woods, then a dense forest, broken only by occasional clearings of settlers. Here, in 1833, Abram Garfield died, leaving a family of four children, of whom James was the youngest, dependent upon the exertions of a widowed mother. His boyhood was spent in laboring on the farm and wood-chopping during the summer, to assist in the support of the family, and in attending the pioneer district school about three months each winter. When fourteen years of age he learned the carpenter's trade. His seventeenth summer was passed as a driver and helmsman on the Ohio Canal.

His early ambition was to become a sailor, but a three months' attack of fever and ague, contracted on the canal, changed the current of his life into literary channels.

In March, 1849, he entered Geauga Seminary at Chester, Ohio, and at the close of the fall term was competent to teach a district school. He rented a room with two other young men and boarded himself. Except seventeen dollars, which was all the aid his mother could render him, he paid his own expenses, working at his trade in Chester, mornings, evenings, Saturdays, and the summer vacation. After the first term he received no pecuniary assistance during his entire school and collegiate course. From 1851, three years of his life were passed in the Eclectic Institute at Hiram, performing at first the double duties of student and janitor, afterward of student and teacher. His earnings, which by the closest economy he had saved at Hiram, did not cover his expenses at Williams College, and he left college with a debt of five hundred dollars, which he afterward faithfully discharged. Before leaving college he identified himself with the Republican party. On his return to Ohio he accepted the professorship of Ancient Languages and Literature in Hiram College. The next year, at the age of twenty-six, he was made its president, which office he held till he entered the army in 1861. During this term he made frequent public addresses, both from the platform and pulpit, but it never was his purpose to enter the ministry. In the religious body of which he is a member, called "Disciples of

Christ," but generally known as "Campbellites," any member is privileged to preach.

In 1858 he married Miss Lucretia Rudolph, a teacher, whose thorough culture in the classics, modern languages, and literature, has enabled her to keep even pace with her husband in his literary career.

In 1859 he was elected to the Ohio Senate. His well-known characteristics as a legislator, his effectiveness as a debater, and his thoroughness as a committee-man, were manifested in his career in the State Senate in 1860 and 1861. He studied law while President of Hiram College, and was admitted to the bar by the Supreme Court at Columbus during his second winter in the Ohio Senate. In 1866 he was admitted to practice in the Supreme Court of the United States.

General Garfield's military services cover a period of two years and three months. After the first battle of Bull Run, Governor Denison offered him a lieutenant-colonel's commission. He was mustered into the service August 16, 1861, and reported to General Hill at Camp Chase for instruction in camp duty and discipline. He was soon after detailed to recruit the Forty-second Regiment of Ohio Volunteers, and was commissioned its colonel September 5th. In December, 1861, he was ordered with his regiment to eastern Kentucky and placed in command of the Eighteenth Ohio Brigade, where he conducted a winter's campaign against the Confederate forces under General Humphrey Marshall. In recognition of his services President Lincoln promoted him to the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers, dating his commission from January 10, 1862. His regiment, the Forty-second Ohio, was never again under his command. He was ordered to report to General Buell, who was hastening to effect a junction with General Grant at Pittsburg Landing, and was assigned to the command of the Twentieth Brigade, which reached Shiloh on the afternoon of the second day of the battle, April 7, 1862. The next day he moved with General Sherman to the front, and shared in a sharp engagement with the rear-guard of the retreating army. He participated in the subsequent operations around Corinth, Decatur, and Huntsville, Alabama. November 25th he was detailed as a member of the general court-martial for the trial of General Fitz John Porter. An official order, dated January 14, 1863, sent him to the Army of the Cumberland, then under the command of General Rosecrans; he was made his chief of staff, and participated in

all the engagements of that army in Middle and Southern Tennessee. With the battle of Chickamauga General Garfield's military career closed. His ability and bravery were recognized by the War Department in an order promoting him to the rank of major-general of volunteers "for gallant and meritorious services at the battle of Chickamauga."

He resigned his commission in the army on taking his seat in the Thirty-eighth Congress, December 5, 1863, having been elected, while absent in the field the year before, a Representative from the Nineteenth Congressional District of Ohio. He was reelected to the Thirty-ninth, Fortieth, Forty-first, Forty-second, Forty-third, Forty-fourth, Forty-fifth, and Forty-sixth Congresses. He served on the Committee of Military Affairs during his first term, a committee which ranked all others in importance at that time. He opposed the giving of bounties to any but veteran soldiers who might reenlist, and was one of the two who voted against the Bounty Bill passed January 6, 1864. He made one of his strongest and most effective speeches in favor of granting to Mr. Lincoln the power which he asked for drafting men to fill up the ranks, and it was largely due to the influence of this speech that a resolution to that effect was carried through the House. In the Thirty-ninth Congress he was assigned to the Committee of Ways and Means, and at once entered upon those financial studies that have made him an authority on American finance. He was chairman of the Military Committee in the Fortieth Congress, and of Banking and Currency in the Forty-first. On the 15th of May, 1868, he made a speech on "The Currency," which has been termed a sound money manual and a cyclopædia of financial facts. It procured for him the distinction of being elected an honorary member of the Cobden Club of London. His financial record in the House is that of an opponent of inflation and repudiation, an advocate of the payment of the national debt, and return to specie payments. Besides his regular committee-work he has done much extra service upon special committees, making at one time a thorough examination of the affairs of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing of the Treasury Department; at another, presiding at the sittings of a special committee to inquire into the causes of the gold panic in 1870. While chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, during the Forty-second and Forty-third Congresses, he carried on the work of reform, begun by Mr. Dawes, in the method of making appropriations. Prior to the act approved July 12, 1870, there had been two kinds of appropriations—annual and permanent. Nearly one half of the expenses of the Government had been provided for by these permanent appropriations, Congress having no direct control over them. Unexpended balances of appropriations had been accumulating in the bureaus from the beginning of the Government. If any part of the money appropri-

ated for a specific purpose remained unexpended at the end of the fiscal year, this balance stood on the books of the Treasury to the credit of the bureau, and could be used at any time for the purpose named. When these balances were covered into the Treasury in 1872, they amounted to \$174,000,000. That law, made still more stringent by the act of June 24, 1874, requires that any surplus of appropriations remaining at the end of each fiscal year, except so much as shall be needed to execute contracts already made, shall go into the general fund of the Treasury.

A sudden reaction in politics gave the control of the House of Representatives of the Forty-fourth Congress to the Democrats, December, 1875. In the three succeeding Congresses, the Republicans being in the minority, General Garfield was assigned a place on the Committee of Ways and Means. After Mr. Blaine's transfer to the Senate in June, 1876, he became and continued to remain, till the end of his Congressional career, the acknowledged leader of the Republicans in the House.

His speech in June, 1876, in reply to Mr. Hill, of Georgia, on the General Amnesty Bill, and his reply to the Hon. L. Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi, August 4th, added greatly to his reputation as one of the ablest and most forcible speakers in the halls of Congress. He was one of the Republican statesmen invited by President Grant to go to Louisiana to witness the counting of the vote for Presidential electors by the State Returning Board, November, 1876. While the Electoral Bill was pending in the House, he made a speech in opposition to its passage, holding that neither Congress nor the Commission could go behind the action of a State; yet, after the Commission was created, he was unanimously designated by the Republicans of the House, and was elected a member of the Electoral Commission. In the Forty-fifth Congress his most effective speeches were made on questions relating to finance, trade, and industry. His speeches during the extra session and the first regular session of the Forty-sixth Congress embrace these titles: "Revolution in Congress"; "Close of Debate on First Army Bill"; "Legislative Appropriation Bill"; "Second Army Appropriation Bill"; "Judicial Appropriation Bill"; "Nullification"; "Defense of Union Soldiers of Seceded States"; "Resumption and the Currency"; "The New Silver Bill"; "The Mississippi River an Object of National Care"; "The Revived Doctrine of State Sovereignty"; "Ancient and Modern Panics"; "Obedience to the Law the Foremost Duty of Congress"; "Pulp and Paper"; and "How News and Public Opinion are manufactured." At all times a forcible and elegant speaker, he is especially noted for making the most felicitous and appropriate speeches on commemorative and ceremonial occasions.

The year 1880 witnessed General Garfield's preferment to two of the highest official positions in the gift of the American people. In

January he was elected by the Ohio Legislature Senator for the term beginning March 4, 1881, to succeed Allen G. Thurman. On the 8th of June, in the Chicago Convention, he was nominated, and on the 4th of November was elected to the Presidency of the United States. He resigned his seat in Congress November 8, 1880.

The life of James A. Garfield is the fullest exemplification of the possibilities of American citizenship on record. He began life in the Ohio forest, poor as the poorest, and by his own exertions, abilities, and character, he has made his way upward to the highest place. His road has led him by the log-house district school, chopping fallow, tow-path, academy, and college, to the Ohio Senate, the Army, the House of Representatives, a senatorial election, and to the Chief Magistracy of the nation.

GEOGRAPHICAL PROGRESS AND DISCOVERY. The most attractive fields for investigation are still the polar regions and equatorial Africa. The very completely equipped Arctic steam cruiser Jeannette, which sailed to the Arctic Sea in the summer of 1879, under Captain De Long, and which was spoken off Franz Joseph Land late in the season, has not been heard from, and doubts are felt as to the safety of the expedition, as they may have been tempted to enter one of the temporary fiords which form in the ice-pack, and closed in and carried off by the pack, which drifts steadily to the northeastward. The *Corwin*, which was ordered by the United States Government to search for her, returned without tidings; but in the exploration of the Alaskan coast this expedition accomplished very satisfactory results. Lieutenant Schwatka has gone over the region where the Franklin Expedition met its fate, and so thoroughly, that the search for the records of the *Erebus* and *Terror* will probably not be again resumed. In Africa, the dangerous region between the Sahara and the Congo is every year the grave of some hardy explorer. The Italian Expedition under Chiarini and Cecchi was stopped on its way to Shoa by one of the barbarous Mohammedan potentates, and the former died in duance. Rohlfs endeavored to penetrate to the Soodan from the Mediterranean coast across the desert, but was obliged to put back on account of the ferocity of the inhabitants. The withdrawal of the Egyptian garrisons in Soodan and the remission of Gessi Pasha's vigorous and successful efforts for the suppression of the slave trade, are discouraging for the exploration of the Soodan and the region of the Welle, as well as for the development of legitimate trade and the spread of civilization in this part of the continent. The misfortunes of the Belgian expedition have not yet ceased. Captain Carter, who was engaged to introduce the Indian elephant for the Belgian Society into African transportation, and his associate Cadenhead, have both been assassinated by the natives. In Asia the Russians

have reached and already passed the boundaries of Thibet and China in their explorations. The British Indian officers and their invaluable coadjutors, or rather pioneers, the *pundits*, have penetrated into Thibet from the south, and are every year including large tracts of new country in their very thorough reconnaissances.

HYDROGRAPHY.—The United States Coast Survey has extended its operations lately to the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, and commenced a new investigation of the Gulf Stream. Commander John H. Bartlett, on the steamer *Blake*, has discovered a remarkable depression in the Caribbean, the eastern end of which is opposite Santiago de Cuba. It extends in a westerly direction from between Cuba and Jamaica to the Bay of Honduras. Its length is about seven hundred miles, and its average width eighty miles. This submarine valley, which is estimated to have a total area of 85,000 square miles, shows nowhere a depth of less than 2,000 fathoms, except over the summits of submerged mountains in two or three places. The greatest depth sounded was 3,428 fathoms. It was first struck at its eastern end, where, only twenty-five miles off the coast of Cuba, the line suddenly sank to 3,000 fathoms. From the temperatures obtained, Commander Bartlett was led to the conclusion that the Gulf Stream enters the Gulf of Mexico through the Caribbean, and that it derives its temperature, which is higher than that of the equatorial current, by passing over shoals in the Caribbean, making perhaps the entire circuit of that sea. The equatorial current, striking against South America, is deflected north, and when it reaches the island of Tobago all that can flow between this island and the mainland and south of Granada does so. This current is said to be felt along the Spanish Main. The greater part of the equatorial current, however, is deflected north between Barbadoes and the Grenadines, finding its way to the westward whenever it meets a passage. It would naturally be driven toward the Spanish Main by the trade-winds. The temperature down to 400 fathoms was found to be suddenly increased as Guadalupe was passed. The difference was so great that the most probable explanation seems to be, assuming the equatorial current to be the source of the Gulf Stream, that the current remains for some time in the Caribbean, traveling around the borders of the sea, and being warmed by passing over shoals and banks. The current said to flow along the Spanish Main would be deflected by the Isthmus and keep on flowing inside or to the eastward of the banks connecting Jamaica with the mainland, and so on south of St. Domingo, part passing north through the Mono Passage, and the remainder south of Porto Rico to the Annegada Passage to join the current flowing north of Porto Rico and St. Domingo, which is helped through the Windward Passage by northeast trade-winds.

Another expedition for hydrographic explo-

ration conducted by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey in the Arctic seas which wash the coasts of Alaska, has resulted in the discovery of evidences that the Kuro-Siwo, or Pacific Gulf Stream, does not pass through Behring Strait, or even enter Behring Sea. This conclusion, reached by W. H. Dall, may have been too hastily formed, since it is opposed by the counter-evidence of climatic conditions observed in the polar seas by former explorers, which indicate that a warm current does pass through the strait, and contradicts the theoretical conclusions of hydrographers based upon the laws of physics, which seem to show in advance that the recurvature of the current occurs mainly south of the Aleutes Isles, but partly in Behring Sea, and that a portion of the waters must force their way into the Arctic basin through Behring Strait. The expedition reached Plover Bay on the 15th of August, in the schooner Yukon.

On the 20th of August they touched Cape Lisborne, where daisies, forget-me-nots, monk's-hood, and other flowers covered the shore. Proceeding nearly to Point Barrow, they observed on the land everywhere a profuse vegetation. Under the soil of the beach, about two feet below the surface, is a stratum of solid ice of unknown thickness, which extends all along the shore of the Arctic Sea. They observed in Kotzebue Sound, at Elephant Point, cliffs which seemed to be composed of ice with a layer of earth on top, a formation which was observed by Kotzebue and other explorers. The formation does not move, and has nothing of the character of a glacier. It rises to the height of several hundred feet above the sea in places, and must be very ancient, as it contains bones of the mammoth, the fossil horse, and the fossil buffalo. The temperature of the sea varied from 48° to 36° Fahr., and was considerably higher on the American than on the Asiatic side of Behring Strait. The temperature at the surface and at the bottom was uniform, proving that there exists no lower drift carrying cold water out of the Arctic through Behring Strait. The northerly current through the strait depends chiefly on the tide. Its temperature is higher than the water south of St. Lawrence Islands, which is due to the warming of the shallow waters of Norton Sound and the Yukon and vicinity.

ASIA.—Two expeditions started out in 1879, with the object of penetrating Tibet from the north, and both were compelled to desist from their original purpose after a vigorous and courageous attempt. The expedition of Count Szechenyi skirted the eastern border of the Thibetan plateau, traveling fifteen months through the inhospitable deserts of Mongolia and the fruitful mountain-vales of the Thibetan frontier, discovering in the bounding range of the plateau summits 25,000 feet in height, and emerging at last in Burmah at the end of February, 1880. The other expedition was undertaken by the accomplished and tireless Russian ex-

plorer, Prejevalsky, who, since he first sighted the mountain-wall of Thibet fronting the desert of Gobi near Lob Nor, has made Lhasa his goal. Prejevalsky left Zaisan in April, 1879, and ascending the Urungu and Bulgan Rivers, arrived at Hami at the end of May. The party were treated with much respect by the Chinese authorities, who gave them a guard of an officer and seven soldiers. The march across the Mushun section of the Gobi Desert was terrible. The temperature rose every day to 38° Centigrade, the sand was heated to 68°, and the air was without a trace of moisture. It took two weeks to make two hundred and thirty miles. The only oases were patches of thinly growing grass fifty miles or more apart. At length they reached the oasis of Suchow, a beautiful spot, next to Kulja the most fruitful district in Central Asia. The Altyn Tag of Lob Nor joins here with the Nan Shan range of Koko Nor. There are no forests in these mountains, and the flora and fauna are very meager. Here commenced difficulties about guides, which it required all of Prejevalsky's experience and resources to successfully overcome. After looking a whole month for guides, there came along some Mongol hunters from Syrtyn Nor, which lies in the southwest, who guided him to Koorlyk, on the way to Koko Nor, from where with much difficulty he reached Dozoon Zassak at the foot of the Burkhan-Buda range, 1,370 miles from Zaisan, and on the highway from China to Thibet. The whole country traversed was a desert with occasional oases, almost destitute of animal life and flowering plants. Only once, in the Thian Shan Mountains, were forests met with. He obtained a guide who agreed to conduct him on the road to Lhasa; but he led him astray to the upper waters of the Blue River. He dismissed the false guide, and found his way to the road alone, crossing the Blue River and a high plateau, along which runs the Taila, a snowy range 16,800 feet high, which was crossed in the middle of October. They were attacked by nomad robbers, and repulsed them with their firearms. On the southern declivity of the Taila they were met by Thibetan soldiery who forbade them to advance. A messenger was dispatched to Lhasa, who brought back a written communication stating that the entrance to Thibet was prohibited to Russians. The expedition was not one hundred and seventy-five miles from Lhasa. The return over lofty mountains, 14,000 to 16,000 feet high, in the depth of winter, was exceedingly trying. They proceeded to Sining in the province of Kansu, to the east of Koko Nor. Prejevalsky next sought permission to explore the sources of the Yellow River, and obtained it from the Chinese authorities with much trouble. He struck the Hoangho at Gomi, fifty miles south of his camp, at Tonkir. The river here makes a sharp bend from northeast to east. The valley of Gomi, inhabited by Tangut agriculturists, is the last cultivated district on the

river, which is 420 to 490 feet wide here, and has a very swift current. Its elevation is 8,000 feet above the sea-level. Above here the river runs through many deep ravines, most difficult to pass. The natives, called the Sifau, which is Chinese for Western barbarians, were unfriendly. The travelers traversed some large forests with a rich fauna. The blue pheasant was encountered at the altitude of 9,500 feet. The medicinal rhubarb is indigenous here, and the roots sometimes weigh twenty-six pounds. The Churmysh is a tributary which flows into the Yellow River, eighty-seven miles above Gomi. An enormous mountain-chain barred the passage above, the Burkhan-Buda, which is entirely destitute of vegetation. The chasms through which the river finds its passage became more and more arduous. Finding no passage over the mountains, and not even being able to cross the Churmysh, which is 300 to 350 feet wide, they returned to Gomi. He obtained leave to cross to the right bank of the Yellow River and explored in Houidé. After examining the rich flora of the mountains, he proceeded northward to Cheibsen, and afterward explored the country about Koko Nor. He came out at Ugri, passing over the Ala Shan and the middle Gobi, reaching there in October, 1880, having traveled altogether 4,800 miles.

AFRICA.—There is a renewed interest manifested at present in the regions drained by the Niger, and in the exploration of the upper Niger, otherwise called the Joliba, and its sources, and more particularly of the Benue branch of the Niger. The French people and their Government, and to some extent the Germans, as well as the ubiquitous English traders, are devoting much attention to the commercial exploitation of this productive region and of the still more important basin drained by Lake Tchad, of which the Niger-Benue is the key; and a growing trade, already large, is carried on at the mouth of the Niger. In 1822 Major Laing saw the place where the upper Niger, or Joliba, rises from the summit of a sugar-loaf peak twenty-five miles distant. The spot in the side of a lofty mountain, which was pointed out to him as the head of the river, appeared to have an altitude of about 1,600 feet above the sea. The Scotch explorer was not able to visit the fountain-head of the Niger on account of the superstitious fears of the inhabitants lest he should throw a spell over the spring and pollute the pure crystal waters of the river with sorceries. The river at its head bears the name of the Tembi. This stream, which by its length and its volume deserves to be considered the principal source of the Niger, has been lately visited by MM. Zweifel and Moustier, two commercial agents of a house in Marseilles. Rising near the highest peak of the Loma range, in about 11° north latitude, not far from the source of the Senegal, but on the opposite slope, the Niger flows first northward, crossing the kingdom of

Segou and passing near the city of Timbuctoo, turns to the eastward, and then takes a southeasterly course to the confluence with the Benue. This beautiful river is navigable throughout its course, except at the rapids of Boussa, which could be easily passed by a lateral canal. These rapids are situated a short distance above the confluence.

Zweifel and Moustier started from Port Loko, on the northern branch of the Rokelle, or Sierra Leone River, on July 11, 1879. They intended to proceed direct to Mount Loma, but found it necessary to go by way of Falaba. A party of Koranko warriors from Mount Loma arrived while they were there for the purpose of striking a peace with the King of Falaba, and the travelers were allowed to accompany these emissaries upon their return. They crossed several affluents of the Niger, and at last came to the Tembi, the principal head-stream, but were prevented from following it down to the Joliba by a war which was going on below. The Tembi rises in the neighborhood of the village Kulakoya, on the borders of Koranko, Kissi, and Kono. This is the main branch of the Joliba, and is reverently regarded by the natives as the source of the great river. They could only follow it up to the point where it issues from the granite wall of the mountain, being forbidden to enter by a man who seems to officiate as the guardian high priest of the fountain, and who lives on a small island formed by the stream a few miles farther down. The travelers left Port Loko July 11, 1879, and reached Falaba on the 16th of August. The forests which Reade encountered on this route ten years ago have given place to rice and grain fields. On the route from Falaba they first crossed three branches of the Joliba, the Tentaraba, the Tamicone, and the Falico, before reaching the Tembi. They passed the source of the Seli River, which is the upper course of the Rokelle. The natives opposed their progress when near the goal of their journey in every possible manner. The Kurankos above were intelligent and hospitable, but those of Kissi and Kono are a wild, degraded race, who have no intercourse with the neighboring peoples, except to trade for the powder they want. The Tembi is a mere brooklet at Kulakoya. The source is in 8° 45' north latitude and 10° 25' west longitude.

J. H. Ashcroft, in a small steamer built for the purpose of extending the work of the Church Missionary Society, which has a station at Lokoja, opposite the confluence of the Benue and the Niger, has ascended the Benue one hundred and forty-five miles beyond the point attained by Blaikie in 1854. The steamer Henry Venn is one hundred and twenty feet long, has fifteen feet of beam, and a capacity of sixty tons, with a draught of three and a half feet. Eduard Robert Flegel, a German trader who has long resided on the coast, accompanied the expedition and sketched a map of the route, and took barometrical observa-

tions which indicate that the entire fall of the river between Djen and Ribago, the highest point reached, was not over six hundred and twenty-four feet, and that the descent from the *embouchure* of the Mayo Kebbi to the confluence of the Benue with the Niger does not exceed fifteen inches a mile. The discovery of the Benue by Barth in 1851, who crossed it at the mouth of the Faro, led to the fitting out of an expedition under Dr. Blaikie in 1854. He ascended the river in the steamer *Pleiade* as far as Djen. Beyond that point the river had never been explored until the travelers on the Henry Venn ascended beyond the town of Ribago to 9° 20' north latitude and 18° 36' east longitude. The town of Djen, which lies in 11° 25' east longitude, numbers about 2,000 inhabitants. It is governed by a head-chief and an under-chief. Fan-palms grow thickly at the foot of the mountains, and groves of them here stud the plain around the village. The village consists of six groups of houses, from seventy-five to one hundred in each, which are shaded by fine trees and surrounded by fences of plaited grass. Huts surrounded by cultivated patches form a semicircle around the place. Well-shaped water-jugs covered with painted ornaments are made by the women. The men wear a clout of calico or a strip of skin about the loins, and are armed with spears and daggers, carrying these in a sheath strapped to their forearm. They are frequently seen with whips having two or three lashes of the skin of the *aju* (*Manatus Vogelii*). Their ornaments are iron, or more rarely ivory, hairpins and armlets, leopard-claws, tips of antelope-horns, pockets containing texts from the Koran, or little bags of musk, suspended from their necks by leathern cords. The women go naked, wearing for ornament a braid of colored straw around their arm or their waist. They do not follow the barbaric practices of defacing their persons for the purposes of ornament, except to bore holes in their ears for the insertion of bright objects. The expedition, composed of Ashcroft, Kirk, another agent of the mission, and Flegel, sailed from Lokoja on July 8, 1879, and reached Djen August 20th. The unexplored countries beyond this place are among the most populous in this part of Africa. The voyage led through the territories of the Bassamas and Bulas, tribes still able to repel the Fulahs, who are gradually absorbing the whole of the Benue Valley, and then into lands occupied by the eastern branch of the Fulah invaders or under their dominion. They first passed through the kingdom of the Bassamas. They are a warlike race, strong and healthy. The plain here and in the Bula kingdom above was much of it under water. The floods spread to the very foot of some of the mountains, which, as elsewhere in equatorial Africa, raise their round, solitary forms directly from the plain, the process of erosion, that has been going on probably longer here than anywhere else on the globe, having eaten

away all but these remnants of the central masses. The Bassamas are a great deal upon the water. The river was thick with their canoes, which are made to hold three or four men, who manage them standing, as is the manner of all the tribes on the Benue. Their paddles are made by binding with thongs a spoon-shaped blade two to three feet long and seven or eight inches broad to an elastic staff about six feet in length. The paddles and the boats are covered with branded and carved ornaments. The men wear a breech-clout of skin or stuff, and have an elaborate and peculiar fashion of arranging their hair. The women wear an apron five or six inches square. The large village of Habe was seen from the river lying at the foot of the mountains. The chief town of the country, which is called Bassama, is said to be a very large place. The son of the king came to exchange courtesies with the travelers. He affected the Mohammedan costume partly, but the horsemen who accompanied him wore the national head-dress, weapons, etc. They carry a curious short sword with a broad end, hung at their hip in a scabbard adorned with leathern openwork or tassels, on which were often suspended finger-rings of copper or iron, and invariably a pair of tweezers used for extracting thorns. The Bassamas brought lion and leopard skins and ivory to sell the next day, but upon the refusal of the missionary agents to trade these because it was Sunday, and because they did not pay a visit to the king, the savages became hostile and threatening in their manner. Sailing farther, the explorers passed large villages and fields of luxuriant grain. Umburu and Numun, on opposite banks of the river, contained, the first some five hundred, and the latter from three hundred and fifty to four hundred huts. Messengers from the King of Demsa, a large town in the south, brought presents, though it is not customary for African chiefs to take the initiative in giving presents. Their town is said to be a large place south of Numun. The messengers, dressed in scarlet clothes, remained on shore, as they are forbidden by the law of their land to cross the river. They were admirable horsemen and rode fine horses. Entering the territory of the Bula people between Numun and Umburu, the margins of the river were more marshy, and still more thickly populated. The people were exceedingly shy as they ascended the river, but on their return they were saucy and importunate. Wherever there was a dry spot and a grove of trees they planted their villages, and every fertile space was cultivated. Within a dozen miles five towns with five hundred to six hundred huts each were passed. The river swarmed with their canoes. This Bula people and their Bassama neighbors seem to be the last original occupants of these regions who have not yet passed under the yoke of the Fulahs. The Bulas are a fine-looking, robust, warlike people, possessing an abundance of horses, sheep, and cattle. They are always on the

alert for enemies, and go fully armed with spears and shields, or with bows and poisoned arrows. They live even more upon the water than the Bassamas. Farther on they entered the kingdom of Yola, a magnificent country inhabited by Fulahs. The banks were beautifully wooded, resembling an English park. The population was numerous, but their dwellings were surrounded by gardens or stood in the midst of green corn-fields, and were not crowded together like those of the tribes below. The people showed more of the negro type than the Fulahs of Sierra Leone, but they possessed the surest mark of a developed race—a wide remove between the sexes in form and height. In dress and behavior also there was a marked difference between the sexes. Other evidences of a stage of culture beyond the common condition of Africans were the ample drapery of their light-colored garments and the skillful arrangements of their commodious houses. As might be expected, they are a peaceful people of pastoral habits. The travelers did not visit the town of Yola, as the king failed to make them return-gifts. These Adamawa Fulahs show much taste in making clay mugs and pipes. Passing through a mountain-region between the Bagele and Alantica Mountains, where the current was exceedingly swift, they reached the confluence of the Faro. They could only observe that the Faro is a shallow stream. The Benue above the confluence is not more than one fourth as broad as below, but is much deeper, winding tranquilly through a thickly wooded country, its level banks rising only a couple of feet above the water. The natives say that the water never overflows these banks, even when the plains below the mountains are entirely flooded, but that in the dry season the bed at Gurua is quite bare, except in the pools. After passing the rapids they came upon Batta villages. These people are tolerably well clad in blue calico, and go unarmed. Their canoes are shaped from a single piece of wood, not sewed together or fastened with iron staples, as in the lower river. Some of the places were independent, and others subject to Yola. On September 4th they anchored at Gurua, and explored above as far as Ribago, the first Bornu settlement. At Gurua they were informed that the Mayo Kebbi enters the Benue from the north at a distance of four days' march, and that the Benue, which is but a small stream above the confluence, rises in the mountains ten days' march toward the southwest. This tributary seems to carry the principal supply of water into the Benue. The Mayo Kebbi comes from the direction of the Tubori marshes, and it seems probable that an annual overflow from the Shary into the Benue takes place, since the second rise in the Benue which occurs in September corresponds in time with the period of highest level in Lake Tchad. The Mayo Kebbi flows through an alluvial plain from a marshy district containing a sheet of water which according to Barth feeds the west-

ern branch of the Shary. Barth prophesied that within half a century there would be a navigable communication established between the Niger and Lake Tchad. An annual navigable passage seems easy to establish, if one does not already exist; and if the Welle is identical with the Shary, the Benue-Niger must be one of the principal portals of inner Africa. That the Welle is the upper course of the Shary, and not an affluent of the Congo as Stanley conjectured, can hardly be doubted when the extent of Lake Tchad is taken into consideration, and the evaporation in the lake and the river, not to speak of the absorption of water by the sands of the desert, which must be very great.

There is another physical reason on which the identity of the Welle and the Shary is based, besides the vast probable drainage needed to feed Lake Tchad. The rise of the Shary in March proves that its head-waters are situated near the equator, as it is only within a narrow equatorial belt that there occurs any considerable rainfall as soon as the latter part of February. The accounts of the people encountered on the Welle of men dressed in white and bowing toward the sun on the river far away to the westward are, therefore, not the strongest evidence that the Shary is the continuation of this river. An adventurous Greek traveler, Dr. Potagos, brings a report of an enormous river which he saw in this region called the Bere, which is unquestionably the same as Schweinfurth's Welle and the Babura of the brothers Poncet. He followed it west as far as 23° east longitude, proving that it can not be identical with Stanley's Aruwimi, which enters the Lualaba in 23° 40' east longitude, and 0° 55' north latitude. Schweinfurth at the capital of Munsu, the Monbuttu king, was informed that the course of the Welle was due west from that place, which lies in 3° 35' north latitude. Potagos reports that for about one hundred and fifty miles west of Munsu's capital it keeps on that parallel, but that on this side of Bakangoi, which village was visited by Miani in 1872, it turns southward, and then westward again in about 3° north latitude and 25° 40' east longitude, near the village of Ingami, from which point its direction is westerly as far as he followed it. Potagos passed several northern affluents of the Welle, or Bere, the most important of which were the Bomo, the Beti, the Ura, and the Tzigo.

Soleillet, who departed from St. Louis, the capital of French Senegal, in 1878, with the intention of reaching Algeria by way of Timbuctoo, was not allowed by the Sultan to visit that pagan metropolis, and, for want of means, was unable to pursue his journey beyond Segou, the capital of the Bambara kingdom. He ascended the Senegal River to the factory of Podor, and journeyed overland thence to Bakrel, Medine, and Konniakary, which latter place is situated on an affluent which enters the Senegal on its right. From here he struck across the mountains and passed through the

forests of Kaarta, gaining the Niger at Gamina, about 2,500 kilometres from its mouth. From this place he journeyed to Segou in a boat, and there turned about and retraced his course to St. Louis. This traveler reports, as products of the country explored, rice, millet, indigo, tobacco, and cotton. The *Karité Bannia Parkii*, the tree which yields the vegetable butter of Africa, abounds in the forests. The inhabitants crush the fruit and boil it to obtain the fat. This has been employed in Europe in the manufacture of soaps and candles. Coffee grows wild in the Fouta Diallon Mountains. The caoutchouc-tree (*Ficus elastica*) is also found. Iron is an abundant mineral, and gold is also present. Soleillet started out a second time to reach Timbuctoo, in connection with the exploration of the route for a Saharan railway.

Dr. Oscar Lenz has succeeded in reaching Timbuctoo from Morocco, being the first traveler who ever penetrated to that place from the north. He was kept from proceeding for a long time by the Moorish authorities, who gave him a guard across the Atlas to Terodant, but declined to protect him farther, or to authorize his advance, on the ground that the Sultan exercised but a slight authority over the fierce and fanatical Shloh tribes in the southern part of his dominions. After attempting in vain to join a caravan of merchants, being prevented by the fanatical prejudice of the people, he intrusted his safety in the hands of some Howara-Kabyle robbers, who conducted him without harm through the territory of their people. He did not feel perfectly secure until he entered Iler, in the territory of Sidi Hedjam. The country was everywhere well cultivated and thickly populated. From Iler he passed over a plateau and through a river valley, to the foot of a range of mountains 4,000 feet in average height, with summits rising to 5,000 feet, which stretches from southwest to northeast. This he crossed, and followed the valley, which expands into a broad plain covered with palm forests, amid which lies the town of Temenet. The people here, as well as at Iler, are chiefly of Berber race. A few miles farther south, the mountains open and disclose the Sahara. He passed through other towns and arrived at Fum el Hassan, the residence of Sheik Ali of the Maribda-Kabyles. The sheik received the traveler hospitably.

Four several routes are marked out for examination with reference to the projected Sahara railway: 1. Through the province of Constantine, into the desert by way of Wargla; 2. From Algiers, by way of El Agbuat and El Golea; 3. By way of Oran, Wad Sossana, and Wad Messaura; 4. By way of Tiaret, El Maia, and El Golea. Colonel G. Flatters explored the Wargla route, leaving that place March 5th, at the head of a strong party. He marched, by way of Ain El Taiba, El Beyyodh, Timassanin, and the Igharghar Valley, as far as the lake El Menkhugh Tedjudelt in the Wady

Tedjudelt. On his return he came upon the ancient caravan route from Wargla to the Soodan, at In Lalen, and followed this through Tin Essedj to El Beyyodh. Here the expedition divided into two parties, the one returning to Wargla by the road already traveled, the other proceeding eastward and taking down the course of the Igharghar, passing through Ain El Mokganza. The expedition examined a part of the El Erg. It established the practicability of a railroad with a firm bed from Wargla as far as In Lalen. Flatters intended, on his next expedition, to examine the Ahaggar country, visiting Sebcha Amadghor, where the celebrated fairs once took place, in which the wares of Europe and Barbary were exchanged for the products of the Soodan. A well-known engineer, Choisy, conducted an expedition for the more thorough exploration of the two routes to El Golea from Biskra and El Agbuat. Another engineer, Pouyanne, conducted a reconnoitering expedition from Oran to Wad Sossana, on the Morocco frontier, which met with extraordinary obstacles, yet gathered valuable data concerning the country visited.

The exploits of Major Serpa Pinto, of the Portuguese Central African Expedition, who crossed the continent diagonally, from Loanda to the Transvaal, through the basin of the Zambesi, were published to the world upon his return in the beginning of 1879 (see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879). His associates, Brito Capello and Robert Ivens, separated from him when they reached the edge of the great central African plateau at Bihé, and struck out to the north, through a region as little known as that explored by Serpa Pinto. Between the marshy, malarial coast-region of Loanda and Benguela and the great plateau, whose elevation is 1,500 metres, lies a strip of hilly and wooded country, of an average elevation of 900 metres, which, on account of its soil, a very rich humus, and of the regularity of the rainfall, is the most fruitful region on this part of the continent, producing a superabundance of manioc, millet, yams, and sweet-potatoes, coffee, tobacco, and different legumina, and bamboos, sycamores, Adansonia, and baobabs of prodigious growth. The central plateau is less productive, by reason of its thinner soil, and, on account of its altitude, is less rich in species. Coffee, the baobab, and other tropical plants do not grow, but leguminous plants thrive well. The climate is temperate and quite healthy. During the dry season a refreshing southeast breeze blows every morning early. The mean temperature during this season is 77° Fahr., with wide variations. The rainy season lasts from September to March. The heavy rains of October and November relax in December and January, and then reappear with the same violence in February and March. Bihé, once the slave metropolis, has so diminished in importance that the explorers would have had difficulty in finding men enough to carry their stores and apparatus, even if the

neighboring chiefs had not done all they could to hinder their departure, as they did. They finally set out with a small number of porters, taking only articles of absolute necessity, toward the end of May, for the Coanza River, whose head is a small lake. Just below its source it is sixty metres broad and three deep. To the eastward extends the broad dominion of the Ganguellas, tall, muscular people, who exchange iron and other minerals which abound in their country for calico, glass beads, and rum, at Bihé. In the absence of this beverage they prepare a mead by fermenting honey in water. The Loando, one of the chief affluents of the Coanza, was reached June 24th, after a troublesome march through an inundated country. It rises in the Quico table-land, and flows in a north-northwesterly direction into the Coanza above Quibinda. Its average width is sixty or seventy metres. This river divides the Luimbe, Quimbanda, and Ganguella countries on the south from the territories of the Songos and Quicos. It flows through an exceedingly fruitful region, and supports with its fish a numerous population. The travelers visited the mountains in which the Coango, Chikapa, and Cassai rise. They were hospitably aided in their researches into the hydrography of this region by N'dumba Attembo, the large-minded Soba of Quico. The mountain-plain in which the three rivers have their sources close together, and which forms the parting between the Congo and Zambesi basins, has an absolute elevation of 1,700 metres. The Coango, after receiving a number of affluents, descends by many rapids and waterfalls, some of these sixty metres high, into the Cassange plains. The Cassai, in its upper course an insignificant stream, flows eastward, and then northward into the Catende country. The source of the Chikapa lies northeast of the head-waters of the Coango, and empties into the Cassai in 8° south latitude. The Quicos are a tribe of hunters whose wanderings extend as far as Imbarri, the residence of the Arab chief Tipo-Tipo. The other dwellers in the Cassai Valley are successively the Macocos, Matabas, Cauris, Peindes, and Malacas, to the northward, and on the east the Sambos, Calundas, and Moluas, Cawandas, Casselanges, and Zuala Mavums, the two latter tribes cannibals. The Quicos and the allied Sambos and Bangelas are a branch of the Central African family.

The travelers separated to more thoroughly examine the Coango basin, Capello going east, while Ivens followed the west bank of the Coango through the dominion of Muene Coje or Mozul. Having only sixty or seventy carriers between them, they were compelled to abandon their provisions and a large portion of their equipments. The march along the river-side to determine the exact course was attended with great difficulties. The way led now through a narrow chasm with precarious footing, now through a dense thicket of bamboos and thorny grasses; sometimes they were turned aside by

a sharp abyss, and sometimes they had to find a crooked path over a flooded district. The food-supplies had to be brought from places twenty or thirty miles away from the route. The obstructions and extortions of the chiefs through whose country they passed were a serious annoyance. Particularly insolent and exacting was the drunkard N'dumba Chiquilla, into whose power Capello fell. Ivens, on the other hand, obtained much assistance from a female chief, named Moa Chandalla Dicuata, who placed at his service a company of female carriers. The Coango is a rapid river, sixty or seventy metres broad, with steep banks. The variation of the water-level is 2-6 metres. The vegetation along its banks is very abundant and luxuriant. Before coming to the Luale, the first large tributary of the Coango from the left, above which the country is very much broken, Ivens found himself deserted by the greater part of his carriers, and the Soba Muene-Lhinica exacted a portion of his effects as toll before permitting him to engage carriers and pass over his territory. He reached the confluence of the Coango and Luale near the end of August, traveling a northeasterly course, through the country of the old chief Chanfana, and then northward along the river-banks. At the end of a long gorge, called the Tala-Mogongo, is the cataract of Caparanga, where the river, with a breadth of thirty-five or forty metres, plunges over an abyss fifty metres high. From an eminence the traveler could see the sinuous course of the river for sixty miles, through the plain in which is the village of Cassange in the Bangela country. This plain is 450 metres below the level of the country through which the river has been passing. On the way through the Quimbo and Manungo territories to Cassange, Ivens heard that Capello was unable to advance for lack of carriers. He pushed through to Cassange, along the swampy margin of the Coango, crossing many tributaries, and visiting the lake Quibonda, which furnishes salt for the inhabitants of these regions. When there, he raised a force of carriers and dispatched them to his comrade. While waiting for the latter, he attempted, though the wet season had set in, to explore the country northeast of Cassange, but was obliged by attacks of marsh-fever and neuralgia to return. After a month's illness he recovered sufficiently to conduct scientific researches, but did not venture on extended excursions. Toward the end of October Capello arrived. He also collected a store of valuable geographical data.

Notwithstanding the rains, which had transformed the plain of Cassange into a vast morass, the explorers started eastward to reach the Coango again. The Soba Banza-e-Lunda opposed with arms their passage in this direction, and they were obliged to take a northwesterly route, striking the river about twenty-five miles farther down. In 9° 20' south latitude, they discovered the N'zamba cataract, and a little below that of Joaza. Stopped by

a paludal morass formed by the floods of the Coango, which submerged the savanna on the left of the river as far as the eye could see, and admonished by the signs of approaching sickness, they returned to Cassange, to seek another route to the north along the Tala-Mogongo mountains, through the territory of Tembo Aluma or that of Munene. They crossed the valley of the Lui, which was likewise inundated, by a westerly route, and then turned northward, and reached the Coango at the village of Tembo Aluma near the last cataract, the Sucoia-Muquita. They were forced to turn back again. From Malange they made another attempt to advance to the north. The eastern slope of the Tala-Mogongo drains into the Hamba, one of the most important of the Coango's tributaries. Through the districts of Pacassa Aquiboadá, Dongo, and Danje, they came to the domain of the chief Mafachilla, in the Hungo country, who received them hospitably at first, but afterward drove them to flight by threatening to rob them of all they had. They were unable to advance farther to the north than the point where the lake Aquilonda or Chilande is located on the newer maps. No such lake exists in this region. In its place is an extensive marshy plain, studded with several lakes, large and small. In this journey the explorers discovered a large number of rivers flowing into the Coango which were before unknown. The most important of these are the Hamba and its affluent, the Cuilla, and the Cugho with its affluent, the Caoali. The country farther north is entirely uninhabited, destitute of water during the hot season, and covered with an impervious forest, which they several times vainly essayed to penetrate. They then crossed to the Atlantic watershed, making for Duque de Braganza in a south-southwesterly direction, determining on the way the water-parting between the Coango and the Coanza systems, and discovering the sources of the Sussa and the Caoali-Luemba. Their route passed through an exceedingly fertile region, with as salubrious a climate as any in Western Africa. The margins of the rivers are covered with an exuberant vegetation. Much of the land is covered with large and profitable plantations of sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, manioc, rice, etc. The country is also exceedingly rich in game. In Duque de Braganza they lost a part of their note-books and journals, through a fire kindled to destroy an army of ants. They then made their way to Ambaca and the interesting mountain-mass of Pungo Adongo, from which they took another excursion to Malange, for the astronomical location of Quibanda, where the Coanza makes a great S-curve. Returning to Pungo Adongo, they descended to Dondo and took the steamer for Saint Paul de Loanda, where they arrived October 5, 1879. In the six hundred days which their expedition consumed, the Portuguese explorers traveled over 2,620 miles of mostly unexplored territory. Among the more important places whose geo-

graphical position and elevation were determined were the crossing of the Coanza in $10^{\circ} 52' 30''$ south latitude, $17^{\circ} 38'$ east longitude, where the elevation is 1,258.4 metres; the village of N'dumba Attembo, $11^{\circ} 20' 51''$ south latitude, $18^{\circ} 50'$ east longitude, elevation 1,326.4 metres; Cassange, $9^{\circ} 35' 6''$ south latitude, $17^{\circ} 57' 37''$ east longitude, elevation 990 metres; pass of the Tala-Mogongo, $9^{\circ} 14'$ south latitude, $17^{\circ} 8' 30''$ east longitude, elevation 720 metres; Malange, $9^{\circ} 30' 30''$ south latitude, $16^{\circ} 25' 30''$ east longitude, elevation 1080.2 metres.

The reawakened zest which is displayed in recent African exploration is due as much to the munificent initiative of King Leopold of Belgium in founding the International Association for the Exploration of Africa, which was started in 1876, as to any other cause. The many national and other expeditions which have entered the dark continent from every side, and which have kept cartographers busy in filling out and rectifying the maps, and the interest in geographical studies manifested by missionaries, and even by traders, in the interior of Africa, date from the establishment of the International Association. Yet the efforts of that society, though admirably planned, intrusted in competent hands, and supported by abundant means, have met with nothing but disaster. Captain Crespel, the leader, and Dr. Maes, the naturalist, of the first expedition died in Zanzibar in 1878; and Cambier and Marno, who, after the successful experiment of the missionary Price, attempted to transport their goods as far as Mpwapwa in ox-carts, were obliged to return. In June, the reorganized expedition, composed of Cambier, Wautier, and Dr. Dutrieux, started out. On the Mwomero the porters deserted and robbed them of the best part of their baggage. Cambier pushed forward, while the others remained to look after the transport of the remaining effects. To escape Mirambo, who had been playing a treacherous part, having been accessory to the murder of the missionary Penrose, Cambier changed his destination to Karema, instead of Ujiji. Wautier died, and Dutrieux returned sick to Europe. Continued difficulties and delays prevented Cambier from reaching Lake Tanganyika before August, 1879; and when he had brought up all his baggage, September 15th, he set to work to build the first station of the Association at Karema. Owing to the untrustworthiness of the porters, Cambier had been over a year in reaching Karema from Bagamayo. Oxen and asses had both failed, and as some different method of transportation from the worthless porter-system was demanded, King Leopold determined to employ trained Indian elephants, a means of transportation which had been recommended by Dr. Petermann for the Loango expedition, and which had already been successfully tried by Colonel Gordon on the Nile, between Lado and Dufilé. It was proved by his experiment that they can feed and keep in good condition on the indige-

nous plants, and that they do not require Hindoo *mahouts* to manage them. Leopold had the Englishman Carter bring four elephants with thirteen *mahouts* to Zanzibar, where they landed safely in May, 1879. While the elephants, which carried a load of five hundred kilos, were making their way through difficult jungles and morasses to Mpwapwa, in company with a train of ninety porters and a guard of soldiers, Captain Popelin, Lieutenant Dutalis, and Dr. Van den Heuvel set out from Zanzibar to join the caravan. Dutalis sickened and returned, and, from the first caravan, Rankin, Carter's lieutenant, and several of the *mahouts* turned back. On September 3d they all set out from Mpwapwa. The caravan reached Karema, having made the quickest journey between the coast and the lake ever accomplished; but on the way three of the elephants had died. Whether any one of the deaths was owing to climatic causes or to the hardships of the route is not known. In order to avoid the possible objections to the use of Indian elephants, a station was established at Simba for the purpose of training African elephants for the service. As it takes many years for an elephant to grow large enough to bear a burden, the experiment will be a long one. King Leopold bears the expenses, and has ordered trained elephants from India to serve as decoys. The elephants were not poisoned by the *tsetse*-fly, and, although they winced at first, they soon became indifferent to its bite. At Tabora, Popelin purchased land for a station, and Dr. Van den Heuvel remained to erect the buildings. The loss of so many of their emissaries impelled the Association to fit out a third expedition, composed of the Belgians Burdo and Roger, and the Englishman Cadenhead, the latter to assist Carter in the direction of the elephants. They left Zanzibar in January, 1880. Burdo succeeded in bringing several asses safely to Mpwapwa, although this animal was supposed from former experiments to be too tender to bear the fatigues and unable to survive the *tsetse*-bite. In April they reached the station at Tabora. Cadenhead went forward to join Carter. Burdo and Roger, leaving Tabora in May, were deserted by their carriers, and waited for relief from Karema. Carter and Cadenhead, on their march from Tanganyika to the coast, were set upon and killed by bands of Simba and Mirambo. Another expedition was sent out by the Association in June, under Captain Ramaecker, who is accompanied by Lieutenants Belen and Becker, Demesne, a photographer, and three mechanics who are to put together and navigate a steamboat which the expedition takes with it.

The expedition organized by the British Geographical Society, which started from Zanzibar in May, 1879, under the direction of Keith Johnston, with Joseph Thomson as companion, and one hundred and fifty picked carriers, lost its leader, who succumbed to the malarial climate at the very start. Thomson continued

the work of the expedition and accomplished more than was expected of it. Lake Nyassa was reached by an unexplored route through the lands of the treacherous Wakhutu and the hostile Mahenge, and over deserts and lofty mountains. After a brief rest the explorer crossed an elevated plateau of rolling land from the north end of Nyassa to the south shore of Tanganyika. With a few attendants, Thomson visited the Lukuga, to determine the question whether it was an outlet or not. He explored this river in its downward course for several miles. After narrowly escaping death at the hands of the savage Warua, he rejoined the body of his followers, and sailing down the lake returned to Zanzibar by the caravan route, having occupied about a year in the expedition. The Lukuga flows out of the lake in a general west-northwest course as far as Mekeleto, and there turns to the westward, entering the Congo at its great westerly bend. Mr. Thomson is a trained geologist, and gave especial attention to the geological features of the regions which he visited. The low country of the east coast of Africa is formed of two, or perhaps three, raised beaches, which have been lifted above the sea-level in recent times. The soil is red sand and clays overlying coral rock. The sand is derived, by erosion, from the coast-ranges of mountains, which are composed of hornblende and ferruginous rocks. In the sands of the coast-region is found the valuable gum-copal. The tree which yields it is now almost extinct. Behind the coast country, of recent formation, is a strip of carboniferous formation, extending from Mozambique to the equator. This belt, extending along the foot of the mountains, is of variable width, rising here and there into hills and small ranges, and has a horizontal stratification. There are dark-red sandstones, interbedded with lava, limestones, and shale, and, on the Rovuma, coal-beds. The coast-ranges of mountains are formed of schists, gneiss, and the highly metamorphosed rocks. The granitic formation, which extends through the great interior plateau of Africa, commences on the other side of this coast-range, which extends from Abyssinia to the Cape of Good Hope, and rises in this region to the height of 7,000 feet. The plateau between these and the mountains of the lake-region has an elevation of from 4,000 to 6,000 feet. This tract is marked by undulating hills and valleys and level stretches, where the Kafir-like Wabena, Warori, Wahehi, Wagogo, and Masai tribes hunt and herd their cattle. These races are constantly quarreling and warring among themselves. A higher plateau, 7,000 to 9,000 feet high, consisting of clay slates in horizontal beds, commences with what appears to be a great fault, revealed by intrusive rocks. In the upper plateau are smooth, round mountains formed by denudation. In the vicinity of Lake Nyassa the marks of gigantic disturbances, and even of recent volcanic action, are apparent. At ten miles' distance from the

lake was observed an ancient volcano; five miles farther commenced a series of volcanic rocks, porphyry, tufa, and agglomerates, forming mountains several thousand feet high, which skirt the northern end of the lake. At the northwest corner of the lake, in the plain through which the river Jumbaka passes, were seen a number of perfectly formed recent cones rising to the height of 300 feet. Between Nyassa and Tanganyika are first mountains 8,000 feet in height, then a level country, 4,000 to 6,000 feet in elevation, of clay slates and schists, with intrusive masses of granite. Near Lake Tanganyika are red and variegated sandstones, considerably disturbed. On the opposite side of the lake, near the southern end, is a sudden wall, which lowers the level from 5,000 to less than 3,000 feet. This is probably the continuation of the fault noticed above. Feldspar is the predominating rock from this point northward, huge masses of feldspathic rock forming mountains on the east and west sides of the lake. Beyond the Chansa range of metamorphic rocks with a feldspathic foundation, the sandstones are again found in the Uguha country. They spread over a wide area, extending down the Lukuga and the Congo Valley as far as Lake Moero. They probably mark the bed of an immense inland lake. When rounding the south end of Tanganyika, Thomson took occasion to explore the disputed lake Hikwa, or Likwa, as he calls it, from Kapufi, latitude 8° south, longitude 32° 25' east. This lake is sixty to seventy miles long, and fifteen to twenty wide. It lies two days east of Makapuli, in a deep depression in the Lambalamfipi Mountains. A large river, called the Mkafa, which rises in Kawendi, and drains Mpimbwe and most of Khonongo and Fipa, empties into it. Thomson is sure that it has no outlet. The debated question of the Lukuga outlet of Lake Tanganyika seems to have been finally settled by the exploration of Mr. Hore, an English missionary at Ujiji. This mysterious stream, which Cameron saw flowing out of Lake Tanganyika, with a distinct current in the direction of the Congo, but which presented itself to Stanley's view as a shallow water-course, half marsh, extending but a short distance from the lake, carrying an insignificant volume of water brought down by small creeks, with a feeble current, into the lake, was found by Hore to be a swift river proceeding out of the lake. The stream as it issued from the lake had a depth of from three to five fathoms. It narrowed soon, and the current became dangerously rapid. At the point where Stanley ceased his explorations, the stream-bed becoming smaller and overgrown with reeds, the current was too swift for the canoe. Half a mile farther the rapids end, and the river widens. Ascending an eminence, Hore saw the river flowing far away into Urna. It is a frequent phenomenon in Africa for the rivers to become choked with vegetation. After accumulating for a number of years in such thick

masses as to sometimes stop the current, the aquatic plants will decay, and at the next rise of the water will be carried down, leaving a clear channel. When Cameron visited the Lukuga, there was a bed of aquatic plants covering the river, but a current flowing between and underneath them; when Stanley saw it they had probably settled to the bottom, and as the lake was presumably at its lowest stage, there may have been little or no outflow. This mass must have since decayed, and been swept out in succeeding rainy seasons, forming a channel for the swift-flowing river seen by Hore. The growth of water-plants for twenty months unchecked, in the White Nile, formed an obstruction to navigation which it has recently taken the Austrian Marno five months of unremitting toil to remove, so as to reopen the river to navigation and trade. Thomson, the commissioner of the Royal Geographical Society, was carried across the lake by Hore upon his vessel. Thomson, on his homeward journey, came to the Lukuga, and endeavored to follow it down to the Lualaba. He succeeded in descending considerably beyond the point where Hore was obliged to leave the river, but was unable to accomplish his purpose, by reason of the hostile actions of the natives.

AMERICA.—One of the most interesting facts in physical geography which has been established by the geographical exploration of the Territories, conducted by Clarence King, is that the operations of nature which caused the great prehistoric sea, called by geologists Lake Bonnevill, to dwindle down to the dimensions of Great Salt Lake, are now reversed, and that the filling up process has commenced. Great Salt Lake now loses by evaporation less water than flows into it, and has risen eleven feet since 1866. The natural basin of Pyramid Lake is now full, its level having risen nine feet; and Winnemucca Lake is being filled up from the overflow, having risen twenty-two feet, and doubled in area, within the same few years. The upheaval which has been detected on the shores of Hudson Bay extends far up into the region of the lakes of British America and the Mackenzie River basin. Abbé Petitot, a Canadian missionary, who has traversed the vast and little explored territory between Great Slave Lake and the Arctic Sea in every direction, found that several of the lakes and chains of lakes were drying up. The deep granite basin of one of the lakes he found completely bare, and in it he saw a yawning chasm shaped like a funnel, through which the waters had been drawn into some subterranean channel. The Indians believe that there are several of these underground rivers in this region. The Mackenzie River district is not adapted to colonization, in the belief of Abbé Petitot and other travelers who have visited it; but its upper waters, the Liard, Peace, Elk, and Athabasca Rivers drain a fertile region, in which coal is found and petroleum in abundance.

Reports have long been circulated in Cen-

tral America, and repeated doubtfully by travelers, of the existence of descendants of various warlike tribes who had escaped the Spanish conquerors by fleeing to certain rich valleys encircled by mountains and accessible only through narrow and difficult passes, which they have jealously guarded against the approach of strangers to this day. This forbidden land is, according to rumor, of considerable extent—it is said five hundred miles square—and lies between Tabasco, Guatemala, Peten, and Yucatan. Here the remnants of the Chinamaces, the Laucaerones, the Itzaks, and other tribes, still maintaining the league of their forefathers, and allowing no white person to penetrate their stronghold, if the stories of the inhabitants of the neighboring regions are to be accepted, have kept their blood from mixture, and still preserve the customs and mode of living prevailing at the time of the conquest, retain the ancient religious observances, and speak the pure Maya language. Dr. Le Plongeon, who has spent several years in examining the ruins of Central America, has satisfied himself, from information received from the people of the adjacent districts, that these accounts are substantially true. The mountain-region possessed by them is called the *Tierra de la Guerra*. The members of these aboriginal communities are reported to have been more disposed to intercourse of late than formerly, descending sometimes to barter tobacco, cacao, and the products of their handiwork, for commercial articles, and occasionally hiring out for a season as farm-laborers, though not yet suffering strangers to enter their country. Le Plongeon expresses the hope that these people may retain the knowledge of the Mexican hieroglyphics, and that the key of these writings will be disclosed as soon as they can be induced to relax the rigorous exclusiveness which must have served to rescue from oblivion, if not the graphic symbols of the ancient Mexicans, many other interesting relics of their lost civilization. On the borders of this interesting region the British colonial secretary in Honduras has discovered the existence of three ruined cities, and a building containing many mural paintings, which are in the possession of the Santa Cruz Indians. The expedition under Désiré Charnay, equipped by the French Government, and supported at the expense of Pierre Lorillard, of New York, and which is patronized furthermore by the United States Government, is commissioned to systematically and thoroughly explore the ruins of Central America and Mexico, and to take photographs and casts of every relic of the ancient civilization which can be found. Doubtless there are more antiquities yet to be discovered in Oaxaca, Tehuantepec, Guatemala, and Yucatan than have yet been brought to light. Mount Alban, Mitla, Uxmal, Palenque, and the rest of the largest and best known of the ruined cities, have yet to receive a systematic examination, and scores of sites are known to exist which have never been

viewed by a competent archæologist. It is more reasonable to expect that the materials collected by Charnay and his assistants will find some Champollion to unriddle the cryptography, than that the symbols should be yet understood by the retrograde, savage descendants of the Mayas in their mountain eyrie. The Lorillard expedition will endeavor to wring from these shy mountaineers whatever knowledge they possess, and will be protected in their excursions in these wild parts by a body of one hundred regular soldiers.

ARCTIC EXPLORATION.—The American Franklin search party under Lieutenant Schwatka returned in the bark *George and Mary*, on September 22d, from a two years' hunt for the log-books and other relics of the Franklin Expedition. During the first ten years after the loss of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, several finely equipped expeditions were sent out to discover the fate of Sir John Franklin and his companions; but not a trace was seen until in 1859 Captain McClintock found clothes and other articles belonging to the lost crews on King William Land, and explored the country for records; but it was May, and everything was covered with snow and ice. In Captain O. F. Hall's two expeditions, 1860–1862, and 1864–1869, many relics were obtained from the Esquimaux, and the spot was discovered where the band of survivors from the *Erebus* and *Terror* made their last camp on their fatal attempt to return to civilization after wintering three years in the regions of perpetual ice. He was only able to examine the southeast extremity of the island. A skeleton was brought away which was identified as that of Lieutenant Le Vesconte of the *Erebus*. The natives informed him that books and documents had been found. In 1872 an American whaling-master, Captain Potter, who lay frozen up twenty-four months in Repulse Bay, brought to New York spoons, forks, and knives, engraved with the arms and initials of Sir John Franklin, Captain Crozier, and Fitzjames, which he had obtained from Netchilik Esquimaux, who related that a large number of white men had visited their country, which is distant a long way from Repulse Bay; that they had perished one after another of starvation many years before; and that the last one surviving had laid away papers and books in a cairn. In 1877 another ice-bound whaler, F. Barry, who had been one of the companions of Potter, brought back a silver spoon with Franklin's crest upon it, and repeated the tale of buried documents, presumed to be the ship's logs and notes of scientific observations. Messrs. Robinson and Brown, owners of this whaling-vessel, determined to fit out an expedition to land at Repulse Bay, provisioned for eighteen months, for a thorough search with the help of the Esquimaux over the whole ground on which the tragic scenes of the Franklin catastrophe had taken place. The schooner *Eothen*, commanded by Barry and fitted out for a whaling-cruise, bore the search party to the scene

of its labors. Lieutenant F. Schwatka, of the United States Army, was the leader of the expedition. Schwatka chose to land at Camp Daly, north of Chesterfield Inlet, and opposite Depot Island on Hudson Bay, finding Esquimaux here, rather than run the risk of not finding them at Repulse Bay. The party consisted of three white men besides the leader—Colonel W. H. Gilder, Harry Klutschak, and Frank Melms, and the Esquimaux, Joseph Ebberbing, called Esquimaux Joe, for long years the faithful companion of Captain Hall, who acted as interpreter. Lieutenant Schwatka, convinced of the impossibility of conveying the usual stores in the sledge-journey of thousands of miles which was before them, determined to adopt the sensible but novel method in Arctic exploration of becoming inured to the life of the Esquimaux, of acquiring their habits, and learning the arts by which they are enabled to wring their scanty means of subsistence from the chary hand of Nature. Such an existence would be impossible to the natives of kindlier climes without the discipline of a period of habituation and acclimatization. The winter passed at Camp Daly was turned to account in acquiring experience in sledging and in becoming hardened and accustomed to the Esquimaux life and ways. Information was studiously sought as to the best route to King William Land, and scientific observations were taken. Astronomical determinations showed that the west shore of Hudson Bay in this region is set down on the maps nearly two degrees too far to the west. The Esquimaux among whom they found themselves denied all knowledge of relics or buried documents. On April 1st Schwatka and his comrades set out on their way to King William Land, accompanied by thirteen Inuit and Netchillik men, women, and children. In three sledges, drawn by forty-two dogs, were wares for barter and provisions for three months, to be preserved for the case of necessity. They were to depend entirely on the chase for their daily food; and with their long-range rifles they killed an abundance of reindeer, whose flesh they were often obliged to eat raw. Every evening *iglus*, or snow-huts, were thrown up, in which they comfortably passed the nights. They guided their course directly for their destination over a route before untrodden by whites or by Esquimaux, seeking a path where possible in the frozen streams, thus taking advantage of the Connery and Lorrillard Rivers, leaving the latter to cross the Hazard Hills, beyond which they traversed an undulating country, sometimes unhitching the dogs and gliding down the northern slopes by the force of gravitation. On April 21st they found that they were in latitude $65^{\circ} 45'$, having crossed the bed of the Wager River without knowing it. Schwatka thinks that this estuary dries out in late summer after the melted snows have flowed down, leaving only a chain of isolated lakes. The route to the north-westward from this point, through a hilly coun-

try, became difficult, the land being nearly stripped of snow; until, May 9th, they descended a range of hills into a stream flowing northward, which they named Hayes River, and followed it 110 to 120 miles to its mouth in Cockburn Bay. On this river, May 15th, the travelers fell in with Esquimaux, a remnant of the Ukjuliks, who had been expelled from the western shores of Adelaide Peninsula and King William Land, and nearly exterminated by the Netchilliks. The chief had seen white men in his youth who had come down Back River in a boat, and had found a ship in the ice off the west coast of Adelaide Peninsula twenty-five or thirty years ago. There was a single corpse on board, and knives, spoons, and utensils were taken out by the Esquimaux by making a hole in the side, in consequence of which the vessel, which must have been the Erebus or the Terror, sank the next summer with the books and other things which were not removed. He had heard of other white men being seen by Esquimaux, and of cairns being opened and despoiled. Taking several of these Esquimaux into their company, they descended the river and crossed land until they reached Elliot Bay, arrived at their goal, entering the region tracked hither and thither by the fated followers of the most hopefully conceived and most disastrous of Arctic expeditions, who marked the path of their blind wanderings with the corpses of their dead. On May 22d a cairn reported to have been made on Montreal Island was sought for unsuccessfully. On Adelaide Peninsula, by Barrow Inlet, they came across a large band of Netchilliks, several of whom recollected the Franklin party. Near their camp was the spot where, probably, the last survivors perished. The Esquimaux had here found skeletons of several people under a boat, and appropriated their effects, giving the books and watches to their children to play with. Meeting an old woman, who had been in the camp of the unfortunate explorers at Washington Bay, Schwatka determined to hasten on to King William Land before the ice broke. On the way he obtained some relics, and heard of another treasure of books and papers having been destroyed by Esquimaux children. The Esquimaux told a grisly tale of finding skeletons with sawed bones, indicating that cannibalism, the last, desperate relief for the maddening pangs of hunger, had been resorted to by some of the sufferers. They crossed Simpson Strait with a large following of natives, attracted by the promise of rewards, but left Esquimaux Joe and all but a single family of Esquimaux at Cape Herschel, June 21st. They were surprised at reaching Erebus Bay two days later. Cape Herschel was afterward found to be eighteen or twenty miles farther west than the position marked on the Admiralty charts. The snow became too soft to bear the sledges, and the ice was covered with water; but in a few days the snow had nearly melted on the land, while a path was found for the sledges

in the ice off shore. The weather was now so warm that when the wind was not blowing their clothes felt too heavy. At the site of the camp occupied by Captain Crozier, after abandoning his ship off Cape Jane Franklin, many articles were found, and in a grave, on the evidence of a medal inscribed with his name, were the remains of Lieutenant Irving, third officer of the *Terror*. On July 3d they reached Cape Felix, the northern extremity of the island, and the limit of the ground to be explored. On their return journey they more thoroughly examined the whole coast, when the snows had entirely disappeared. Graves were found in many places all along the coast, marked by heaps of stones which the gallant band had tenderly and reverently erected over the heads of their fallen companions; and fragments of boats, utensils, clothing, etc., were found, but no document or jotted minute, save a copy of the brief memorial left by Captain Crozier when he set out with the crews of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, 105 souls in all, for Back River, which was found by Lieutenant Hobson, of the *McClintock* expedition, in 1859, and is the only record of the Franklin expedition which has yet been brought to light.

Difficult as had been the march ever since the snow began to melt, it became tenfold more so when the ice broke up, and all the stores and equipments had to be carried on the men's backs, while the dogs had all they could do to drag the empty sledges over the dry land. While the luggage was being thus transported to the camp at Cape Herschel, the explorers continued their researches. Meanwhile the cold season was again coming on: by the last of August the Esquimaux could build *iglus* of ice eight inches thick. No lack of food was felt, as the reindeer gathered at the southern end of the island at the approach of winter, waiting for the strait to freeze over. The ice was not safe for the heavily laden sledges before the 1st of November. While the main party made their way straight to Back River, after giving Starvation Cove, the last camping-place of the lost crews, another thorough examination, Schwatka and Gilder went around by the west shore of Adelaide Peninsula to seek the spot where that vessel sank, which was driven through Victoria Strait. Here, at the mouth of Sherman Inlet, they obtained from Esquimaux, among other relics, a portion of a boat which had landed from the lost ship. They had a hard journey up Sherman Inlet and across McCrary Isthmus to the rendezvous at the rapids of Back River. The heavy sledges were dragged with difficulty through the deep, new-fallen snow; icicles formed by the severe frost impeded them; the overworked dogs were poorly fed, and their strength failed rapidly; all were kept on short rations, as their store of meat was nearly exhausted, and there was no game to be found. Moreover, they had to pick their way in darkness and twilight, as the sun scarcely rose

above the horizon, and it was growing bitter cold, the mean temperature for November being 23° below zero, Fahr., the lowest reading 49° below. The journey took weeks longer than they expected; but when they came to the rapids, on December 5th, the main body had not arrived. On the 10th they came, and all started for Hudson Bay. This was the worst march of all, a constant struggle for life. The provision of fish which they took from Back River, salmon and a species of herring, soon ran out; and reindeer were so scarce that hunters were often absent several days before getting a shot at one. Farther south, where they were more plentiful, the travelers had to defend themselves from the wolves, and several times the hunters barely escaped being devoured. The reindeer-flesh was now too lean to afford good nourishment, and had to be eaten, moreover, not only raw, but when frozen so stiff that it had to be sawed into small bits and thawed in the mouth; and of lard and tallow they had only enough to light their *iglus*. More than half of their dogs died on the route. Snow-storms often kept them in camp several days. The cold was the most prolonged and severe ever suffered by a polar exploring party. The thermometric readings were so extraordinary that their accuracy has been called in question. The average temperature of the month of December was -50° F., and the minimum reading -69° ; the mean for January was -53° ; the minimum, observed January 3d, -71° ; the mean temperature in February was -45° ; the lowest -69° . The thermometer stood below -60° under the zero-point for twenty-seven several days, and for sixteen days it was below -68° . The natives said that the winter was an unusually severe one. Instances of lower temperature than Schwatka's minimum of -71° F. have been observed by other travelers. Nares read -74° F. on March 4, 1876, at Floeberg Beach, and Dr. Kane, Captain Parry, and several Russian explorers have experienced equally severe cold. In Siberia the thermometer has been known to fall to -76° F. In this very region Back's thermometer registered -70° in 1835, and Hall recorded $-65\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. After they reached Depot Island their privations were not ended. The Esquimaux there could furnish a small quantity of seal and walrus meat, but the supplies promised had not been left for them. They were reduced to chewing walrus-skins for nourishment before the weather allowed of good hunting. They were called for by Captain Baker, who had wintered there, at the end of his next summer's sealing-voyage.

The unexamined sledge-journey of Schwatka and his companions, lasting from April 1, 1879, to March 4, 1880, covered 3,250 miles. Important corrections were made by them in the map of the country traversed. Instead of flowing northeastward, the course of Back River is nearly due north for as far as they followed it up, about ninety miles. The coast-lines of King

William Land and Adelaide Peninsula are corrected and completed, and long stretches of new territory were traveled. The fate of the Franklin Expedition can only be read by the one rescued document and the graves of its members. Weakened by scurvy and lumbered with boats and stores, their march southward, commenced April 26, 1848, was slow and painful. Sickness carried them off rapidly, and hunger added its ravages. They were succored for a time and then abandoned by Esquimaux at Washington Bay. A detachment, probably led by Irving, seems to have thought of returning to the ships, either to bring provisions, or to take their chances for safety on board. A larger division continued the march to the south. A part of the enfeebled band seem to have tried to cross Simpson Strait in a boat, and to have been cast ashore again near Pfeffer River. They had reached the south shore too late to cross on the ice; but the following winter the handful who survived crossed the strait to lie down and die at Starvation Cove. Perhaps the diseased and famine-stricken crews had been fallen upon and numbers of them massacred by Esquimaux who coveted their weapons or feared the destruction of their game.

The Arctic cruise of Captain Hooper in the United States revenue-cutter Corwin had for its objects the discovery of the fate of missing whaling-vessels, and of tidings of the exploring steamer Jeannette; a visit to St. Lawrence Island at the entrance of Behring Strait, where many of the natives have perished of starvation; and the suppression of the traffic in whiskey and firearms with the Indians of Alaska. The Corwin sailed from San Francisco, May 22d, and returned to that port, October 12th. Five different attempts to reach high latitudes east of Wrangel Land were made by the Corwin. She came within twenty-five miles of Wrangel Land, September 11th, and within three miles of Herald Island, August 3d. No news of the Jeannette or of the whalers was obtained. The first push for the north was made before the summer had well begun, after visiting the Island of St. Lawrence. Several hundred Indians had starved to death, owing to an unusually severe season, and improvidence induced by their newly acquired habit of drinking rum. They were stopped in about latitude 69° by packed ice, July 2d. Herald Island was surrounded by ice supposed to be at least two years old. This is said to rarely break up between this island and Wrangel Land. When Wrangel Land was sighted, the highest hills, which seem to be more distant, were entirely covered with snow, other lower ones were partially covered, and others still lower were bare. Three peaks were observed which were about 3,000 feet apparently in height, the central peak conical and the others round-topped. North of these was a range of rounded hills, the summits of which appeared to be about 2,000 feet high. At a point farther north the land seemed to end. Captain Hooper doubts

whether Wrangel Land is ever free from ice. He considers it an island, possibly one of a chain passing through the polar regions to Greenland. The Corwin coasted the northern shore of Alaska as far as Point Barrow, the northernmost extremity of United States territory. The Indians who came down to St. Michaels with fur-traders, some of whom are located 2,000 miles from the coast, are described as superior in *physique* to the coast Indians. They are tall, erect, and muscular, with piercing black eyes, courageous, and not as yet addicted to drink. They attack the fierce black bears with knives, deeming it cowardly to shoot them. The canoes, or *kyacks*, used by the Indians of the coast, are remarkably fleet and handsome. The nomadic inhabitants of Point Hope have larger boats, called *oomiaks*, in which they travel. They are made of walrus-hide or seal-skin, drawn over a wooden frame, which is fastened with thongs with slip joints to allow of its giving in a seaway. They are flat-bottomed, about thirty feet long, six wide, and two and a half deep. The men use paddles and the women oars. The dogs follow along the beach, and are sometimes harnessed to the boat in a head wind. The Esquimaux of Alaska are very different in appearance from those of Labrador, being a remarkably tall and muscular people. This is due, in the opinion of Captain Hooper, to intermarriage with the athletic Indians of the interior. They have low, narrow foreheads, high cheek-bones, and large mouths with very thick lips. Their coarse black hair is cropped short on the top of the head. The men wear in holes bored in the lower lip on each side of the mouth pieces of polished stone, glass, or ivory, round, square, or oblong in shape, three quarters of an inch to two inches in diameter and one eighth to one half inch thick. The women do most of the work. Their infants are carried under their seal-skin tunics on their backs. The parents care for their children tenderly. Their marriages are not prolific. When a wife is barren the husband often brings a second one into the house. They are a good-natured people, always laughing. They call themselves Inuits. The seal is their main support. The flesh and fat of this animal is their chief food; its skin is the material of their clothing, their tents, and their boats; they also light and warm themselves in winter with its oil, and make fish and bird nets of thongs cut from its hide. They catch salmon and other fish in seines and gill-nets, and hunt the white whale, driving it into shoal water in their swift canoes, where it is speedily dispatched with flint spears. They also hunt the bowhead whale. They throw into the whale spears about six feet long with heads of flint or ivory tipped with iron. To these are fastened by thongs inflated seal-skin bags which prevent the whale from escaping by diving. They stalk the seal with the rifle in the spring and fall, and show great skill and patience in hunting the wary animal. They

eat whale and seal meat raw, and sometimes quite putrid. They use no seasoning, and can not bear the taste of salt. All of them smoke—men, women, and children. They make their own pipes, the stems of two pieces of wood wound with sinews of whalebone, the small bowls of different metals combined, very skillfully worked. Their superstitious belief in shamanism is so strong that the medicine-men deceive them with the most transparent tricks. They believe also in witchcraft. Blood-revenge is practiced, but murders are rare. The avenger may wait many years before striking the blow, which he usually delivers secretly and without exposing himself to danger. Aside from this custom they have no laws or punishments. When not in drink they are very kind-hearted, and in the opinion of Captain Hooper could be easily civilized.

Whales are found everywhere in this ocean, entering as soon as the ice breaks up and remaining until the sea closes again. They are said by the natives to be most numerous after the departure of the whaling fleet. They are most frequently found in the vicinity of the ice, and the whalers watch for them in the wake of the ice-pack. The season is reported to have been remarkably successful, though the season before very few whales were killed in these waters; their average size this year was 20 per cent. greater than usual. The whale called the bowhead, a variety of *Balena mysticeta*, is the only common kind. The finback and California gray whales are rare, as is also the grampus. The *Beluga catadon*, or white whale, frequents the mouths of rivers, and particularly Kotzebue Sound. The walrus enters the Arctic Ocean in the spring from Behring Sea, and returns when the ice closes the ocean. They collect in large numbers on the floes, not venturing on the main pack for fear of the polar bear. Seals are found in all parts of the Arctic Ocean. The common hair-seal, the *Phoca vitulina*, and the large hair-seal, probably identical with the *Phoca Greenlandica*, are abundant; the leopard-seal is equally well distributed, but not common. Examples of an unknown variety, small and dark-colored, with a slender body and pointed head, were observed from the Corwin. The Seal Islands abound more than ever before with seals, and the beaches are swarming with their young. The party killed several polar bears ranging from 900 to 2,000 pounds in weight. Reindeer are usually most numerous between Point Belcher and Point Barrow, but are very migratory. Moose, though very common inland, do not visit the coast. The ibex is plentiful in the hills, but can seldom be killed. Muskrats and squirrels are very abundant. Among the birds which swarm on the islands and along shore the commonest were white gulls, and gulls with black-tipped wings, crested auks, lesser auks, two varieties of puffins, eider-ducks, murr, white owls, robber-birds, tern, and ravens, the latter being found all along the coast. Pigeon guillemots, spring-

tail ducks, old squaws, two varieties of snipe, plover, sparrows, and a small bird called the bowhead bird by the whalers, were also met with, and many smaller birds. The only valuable fish is the salmon, which is smaller than the salmon of lower latitudes, but is of excellent flavor.

No icebergs, such as are found in the Atlantic near Greenland, are found in the Arctic Ocean. The highest ice observed did not rise more than fifty feet above the water. The main pack averages ten to fifteen feet in height, with hummocks twenty or thirty feet high. Ice does not form in the water in a thicker sheet than eighteen feet. The deepest formation in a single winter is nine and a half feet. The pack-ice formed by many sheets crushed together and piled upon each other, is one hundred to two hundred feet in thickness. Drift-ice skirts the pack in summer, sometimes floating fifteen or twenty miles away when the wind blows off the pack. Large rifts open at times in the pack, which may be followed many miles; but it is dangerous to enter these leads, or even to approach the pack, as long tongues of ice suddenly shoot out from the pack, and unless very alert and watchful the navigators may be locked in the ice. Since 1871 fifty-four whaling-vessels have been lost in this part of the Arctic Ocean, thirty-three of which have been caught in the ice-pack. The pack has a slow but constant drift toward the northeast. Arctic ice is of four colors: snow-ice newly formed is white and opaque; ice formed in muddy and shallow waters is brownish gray, opaque, and often covered with sand and earth; ice containing salt is greenish; and clear ice which contains none is blue. Above the ice the air is colored yellow with reflected light. This appearance, called the ice-blink, can be seen thirty or forty miles, and before the ice itself is in sight. Drift-ice can be distinguished at a distance from the solid pack by dark lines over the openings. The breaking up of the ice commences in the region of Behring Strait in May or June. By the first of September new ice begins to form, though the general closing does not occur until after the beginning of October. The perennial mass, called the barrier, varies a little in position from year to year, but generally may be looked for near Icy Cape during September. It extends westerly as far as Herald Shoal, where it takes a northwesterly direction to the vicinity of Herald Island. Here, in August and September, a lane of open water is generally found extending to the northward. This space is at first filled with broken ice. In the Corwin's second attempt to reach the island they steamed up this lane over fifty miles, with the pack in sight from the mast-head on both sides. The last twenty miles they were compelled to force a way through drift-ice. The icy barrier extends several degrees farther south between Point Barrow and Wrangel Land than in any other part of the Arctic regions.

A tentative excursion into high latitudes in the European Polar Sea by the route of the Austrian Expedition, which was strongly favored by Dr. Petermann, was made by Leigh Smith in a little steamer specially built for Arctic cruising. He sailed in his small cutter, the *Eire*, from Peterhead, Scotland, on June 19th, and after spending several days on Jan Mayen, seal-hunting, ran over to the east coast of Greenland, which he sighted for one hundred miles north of Cape Bismarck, the farthest point of the German Expedition, and then steered eastward, and finding King Karl Land, like Greenland, inaccessible on account of ice, turned to Franz Joseph Land, which came in sight August 14th. He reached the coast in latitude $80^{\circ} 5'$, longitude $45^{\circ} 50'$ east, found a safe harbor between two islands in latitude $80^{\circ} 5' 25''$, longitude $48^{\circ} 50'$ east, and explored the islands and the fiords of the coast, which run up into the land in northerly and northwesterly directions. Many large and small islands were encountered, all covered with glaciers and snow-fields except on their southern exposures, which were bluff headlands covered with vegetation. Several Arctic flowers were collected. He followed the coast in these excursions eighty or one hundred miles farther westward than the Austrian expedition had gone. His farthest point was $80^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, 40° east longitude. He saw the coast stretching to the northwest for about forty miles farther, but was barred from following it by the ice. He visited on the east Cape Tegethoff and Wilkzek Island, but his advance to the east and northeast was blocked by solid ice-masses stretching across between Hall, Salm, and Lamont Islands. He sighted King Karl Land, which was closed with ice in this direction also, on his return by way of Hammerfest, reaching this port September 27th. Both in his outward and return voyage he found Barents Sea free of ice.

The Dutch schooner *William Barents*, commanded by Captain Van Broekhuysen, in cruising around the coast of Nova Zembla ran upon a reef and was disabled. Thermometric and magnetic observations were made, soundings taken, zoölogical specimens collected, and the location and condition of the ice profitably studied; a barrier of ice stretched from Ice Cape across Kara Sea, which seemed to be filled with ice by the east wind, while to the north of Nova Zembla there was none to be seen.

GEORGIA. The enterprising and commercial spirit which has sprung up in Georgia since the war has enabled its thrifty citizens to develop the great natural advantages of their State so rapidly and extensively as to give it a more decided preëminence than it asserted in the days of slavery, and to earn it the name of the Empire State of the South. Governor Colquitt, in his biennial message, gives the following cheerful description of its present material and social condition: "There is everywhere, in the broad limits of the Commonwealth, progress,

order, thrift, and contentment. All industries have thrived. All classes rejoice in an improved condition, and in the hopefulness of a bright future. Our resources have been multiplied and developed. The different sections of the State have grown in wealth and population. Our credit maintains its exalted standard; our public debt is diminishing; crime is steadily on the decrease. It is a matter of congratulation to all true patriots to observe the rapid progress of the State in moral and material development."

The first session of the General Assembly opened November 3d, and closed December 2d. James S. Boynton was elected President of the Senate, and A. O. Bacon Speaker of the House. The election of a United States Senator, and of Judges of the Supreme and Superior Courts, and Solicitors-General, was the first business which occupied their attention. There was not time to mature many general laws; but much laborious committee-work was accomplished, and a mass of legislation was got under way to be attended to in the next session. The Legislature expected to receive the census returns in time to redistrict the State, but were disappointed. For this and other reasons it was thought necessary to hold an extra session to commence on the second Wednesday in July, 1881. A penal act was passed regarding the buying or selling of votes. An amendment was passed making an order of foreclosure not necessary for the postponement of a sale of mortgaged personal property. An act conferring additional powers on tax-collectors, making them *ex-officio* sheriffs in certain cases, etc., was repealed. An act was passed authorizing the Governor to furnish arms and accoutrements to colleges organized as branches of the State University. The question of appointing a joint committee to inquire into the constitutionality of repealing the convict-lease system was postponed to the July session. Some important railroad bills were passed. One of these was to charter the Atlanta and Alabama Railroad, the incorporators being A. Anstell, S. M. Inman, and other prominent Georgian capitalists. The road is to be built from Atlanta to some point on the Alabama line, in the direction of the coal-fields. The capital stock is to be \$2,000,000, with the privilege of raising it to \$5,000,000. The Rome and Chattanooga Railroad was incorporated, with the privilege of raising a capital of not more than \$1,500,000. This road, if completed, will be an important connecting link in the Southern network. The only other charter granted was for the Buena Vista Railroad, with a capital stock of \$500,000. This road will develop a tract of country which stands in much need of means of transportation.

Only one bill passed by the Legislature was vetoed by the Governor. This was the charter for a bank in Savannah, in which the stockholders were made liable only for the amount of the unpaid stock, which the Governor deemed

contrary to public policy, as they could contract unlimited liabilities for deposits.

In 1874 an act was passed by the Legislature taxing the property of all the railroads in the State as other property of the citizens is taxable. Many of these corporations claimed that they were entitled by their charters to a prescribed limited rate of taxation, and that it was a violation of the contract made with the State to impose a higher rate. The rate prescribed in their charters was generally one half of one per cent. upon their net income. The object of the act was to test the right of the State to tax the railroads beyond the limits prescribed, and a method was defined by that act, by which the railroads could avail themselves of all the privileges conferred by their charters. Suits were instituted against most of the railroad companies during the term of Governor Smith; and while taxes were collected against those roads which had no chartered exemptions, yet in most of the leading lines of this State the decisions of both the State courts and the Supreme Court of the United States were adverse to the right of the State to recover any taxes beyond its chartered rate. The *feri facias* issued were generally for taxes due for the years 1874 and 1875. The Legislature, by reenacting the act of 1874, in an amended form, continued to impose the tax, and made it the duty of the Executive to enforce it, if possible, under the law. The Attorney-General suggested that, if new suits were instituted against the railroads, a decision might be obtained from the courts, either declaring these exemptions unconstitutional, or else materially modifying them. General Toombs, who had been employed in the suits arising under the *feri facias* for the years 1874 and 1875, was employed to aid the Attorney-General in reopening this litigation. The Comptroller-General, whose duty it was under the law to issue the *feri facias*, declined to issue the writ without an Executive order requiring him to do so. This order was accordingly given by the Governor, and the *feri facias* issued. The result of that reopened litigation was to obtain a decision from the court declaring the tax constitutional; so that from this source, apparently closed, there has been collected for the State the sum of \$216,683.27. These collections embrace taxes from the railroads for the years 1874 and 1875, as well as subsequent years, with interest from the time when due. A principle has been established which will result in bringing a large amount of revenue into the State Treasury annually from this source. The Attorney-General recommends some legislation in connection with the tax on certain roads, and that, in order to secure a proper return of the taxable property of railroads, the duty of determining what taxes the roads should pay should be devolved by the Legislature on the Railroad Commission instead of the Comptroller-General.

A very important suit has been instituted,

which involves the constitutionality of the act creating the Railroad Commission. A bill was filed by M. K. Jessup, surviving trustee of the bondholders, for the old Atlantic and Gulf Railroad, in the United States court, to restrain the Commissioners from executing the act to regulate tariffs, which bill Judge Bradley dismissed. A second bill was filed by one of the stockholders of the Savannah, Florida and Western Railroad Company, which succeeded the old Atlantic and Gulf Railroad Company, and a preliminary injunction was granted pending the decision.

In conformity with a resolution of the General Assembly, *feri facias* were issued against John W. Renfro, Treasurer of the State, and his sureties, for certain moneys received as interest on the public funds. Bills were filed in these cases by the defendants, and injunctions granted, and the cases are pending. The *feri facias* are for the amount of nearly \$26,000. The amount of interest which the principal and his sureties are sued for is over \$20,000. It is contended by the State that the Treasurer illegally appropriated to his own use interest obtained from banks in payment for the use of the State's moneys which were deposited in them, in violation of an act which forbids the Treasurer "to use himself, or to permit to be used, the funds of the State." Six contracts were made with the banking companies by the Treasurer, each of which, and not each act of receiving interest, was construed by the Attorney-General to constitute a violation of the law, to which a penalty of \$500 is attached. The question will, however, be submitted to the courts, it is said, whether or not each separate act of receiving interest is finable, in which case the penalties will amount to \$40,000.

In the case of the State against John Jones, Treasurer, and John T. Grant and C. A. Nutting, sureties, a judgment was obtained for \$96,000, dated May 23, 1879. A motion was made to set aside the judgment. The suit was instituted during the term of Governor Smith, by the Attorney-General, N. J. Hammond; and Governor Smith employed to assist him General R. Toombs, McCay & Trippe, Willis A. Hawkins, and William T. Newman. All of these lawyers advised the acceptance of \$35,000 offered in compromise by Mr. Grant. The tax-books showed his available property to be but little in excess of this sum. Mr. Grant urged, and some of the State's counsel conceded, that he gave the bond to serve a temporary purpose, deemed important for the public service, and thought that the new bond given was legally a substitute for his bond. This constituted a strong equitable reason for accepting the compromise. Governor Colquitt under these circumstances acted upon the recommendation of the counsel for the State, and accepted the \$35,000 as the best thing for the State's interest. This offer was accepted pending the motion to set aside the judgment. The Supreme Court afterward decided in favor of

the State, but the decision, the Governor states, would not have increased the chances of a larger recovery.

At the close of the fiscal year ending September 30, 1878, the first of Governor Colquitt's administration, there was a balance in the Treasury of \$295,789. The receipts of the year ending September 30, 1879, were \$1,847,790, and the disbursements \$1,212,671, leaving a balance at the close of the year of \$930,908. During the fiscal year 1880 the receipts amounted to \$4,589,015, making the total sum in the Treasury \$5,519,924; and the disbursements were \$4,833,683; leaving a cash balance in the Treasury on the 30th of September, 1880, of \$686,240. The issuance of \$100,000 of four per cent. bonds to meet bonds issued in 1856, which was authorized by an act approved December 14, 1878, will not be required if the balance in the Treasury is applied for that purpose. The remaining \$100,000 of \$400,000 of four per cents. can also be redeemed. \$2,298,000 of the year's disbursements were applied to the funding of seven per cent. endorsed bonds of the Macon and Brunswick, the North and South, and the Memphis Branch Railroads in six per cent. State bonds, in pursuance of an act passed in 1877. The Governor issued an order on April 14th directing the Treasurer, J. W. Renfro, to apply \$250,000 surplus in the Treasury, over the requirements to meet appropriations and interest and the maturing debts, to the purchase of outstanding four per cent. or other bonds, not due, at par.

The Macon and Brunswick Railroad, which was seized by the State on July 2, 1873, on account of the non-payment of interest, was sold at auction January 13, 1880. From September 30, 1878, to February 29, 1880, the date on which it was handed over to the purchasers, the earnings were \$638,731, and the expenses \$496,246, making the net earnings for the seventeen months \$142,484. Since the foreclosure the State has discharged old debts resting upon the road to an amount exceeding \$123,000. The act under which the road was sold, approved September 3, 1879, authorized the lease of the road to the highest bidder, with the privilege of purchase for \$1,125,000. An auction was held September 16, 1879; but the bidding was going on at the legal hour of closing, and such confusion prevailed that the highest bidder could not be recognized, while at the same time the true value of the lease had not been offered, the highest yearly rental bid having been \$176,000. The sale was, therefore, postponed to November 18th, on which date it was knocked down to James M. Couper, acting also for Messrs. Hazlehurst, Lane, and Johnston, for the sum of \$194,000 rent. They demanded the immediate sale and transfer of the road; but, not being able to obtain from the Governor a warranty deed, they, after some delay, accepted a deed without an unconditional warranty covenant, and, upon the payment of \$250,000 in State four per cent.

bonds, received the title to the road. One of the conditions of the sale was the extension of the road from Macon to Atlanta within twelve months. The Governor was requested by the Legislature in a resolution to investigate the validity of some coupons of the first-mortgage guaranteed bonds of this road which fell due before 1873. These coupons are not valid claims against the State under the present law, the Governor reports, for the reason which Governor Smith gave when he ordered that the \$540,000 of bonds authorized in 1875 for the payment of back interest on railroad bonds should not be applied to any interest on the bonds of this road which were overdue before the seizure. The grounds on which the previous interest is declared to have been forfeited lie in the terms of the act of 1866 authorizing the endorsement of the bonds, which requires the Governor to take possession of the road when the interest on bonds endorsed by the State is not paid when due, and apply the earnings to the payment of the guaranteed interest. The act only authorized the payment by the State of the defaulted interest for the non-payment of which the road is seized. This construction of the act is demanded by the principles of equity, because, if the notice of default, such as is required before the road can be seized, is not duly given, the State loses the opportunity to protect its own interests.

The valuation of the taxable property of the State, as given in the report of Comptroller-General Wright, is \$13,840,707 greater in 1880 than the tax valuation of 1879. The counties possessing the greatest amount of taxable wealth are Fulton, assessed for \$20,303,525, of which \$11,647,125 is in city and town property; Chatham, \$17,672,222, of which \$9,327,509 is urban property; Richmond, \$15,328,452, of which the town property makes \$7,001,650. The amount of property returned by colored tax-payers was \$5,764,293, an increase of \$581,895 over the returns of 1879. The aggregate amounts of the different species of taxable property in the State are given in the following table:

DESCRIPTION OF PROPERTY.	Value in 1879.	Value in 1880.
Improved land.....	\$8,629,168	\$6,676,558
Wild land.....	1,607,677	1,749,966
City and town property.....	49,607,286	51,280,730
Building associations.....	202,685	88,474
Bank shares.....	4,667,560	4,761,498
Money and solvent debts.....	26,518,005	29,295,439
Merchandise.....	12,012,755	13,989,109
Shipping and tonnage.....	896,003	579,081
Stocks and bonds.....	4,869,364	5,037,894
Cotton-manufactories (not exempt).....	1,640,000	1,966,845
Iron-works (not exempt).....	295,640	267,790
Mining capital.....	97,580	103,390
Household furniture.....	9,156,440	9,543,026
Watches, jewelry, etc.....	1,073,911	1,112,662
Horses, cattle, etc.....	21,017,634	23,075,764
Plantation and mechanical tools.....	2,971,872	3,206,286
Cotton and corn crops.....	546,940	781,977
Other property.....	3,958,069	4,364,681
Defaulters' property.....	630,376	503,016
Total taxable wealth.....	\$225,093,469	\$238,934,126

The census returns make the total population of Georgia 1,538,983, a gain during the decade of 351,014, or 29½ per cent. The population is divided into 761,152 males and 777,831 females; the white population numbers 814,218, the colored 724,765; the native-born 1,523,673, the foreign-born 10,310. In the returns of the colored population are included 93 Indians and half-breeds, one albino, and 17 Chinese. The census of the African race has increased since 1870 from 545,142 to 724,654, or over 33 per cent. The increase of the colored population between 1840 and 1850 was 25 per cent.; between 1850 and 1860 19 per cent. It is suspected that the large increase of 33 per cent. in the last decade is an excessive estimate, as the returns of the census of 1870, which showed an increase of only 5½ per cent. between 1860 and 1870, must have been defective. The same ratios of increase are reported in the other Southern States, and it seems probable that the true rate of increase in the colored population is not greater than that of the whites, or about 28 per cent. in all the States largely peopled by the black race. The population of Atlanta is 32,825, against 21,789 in 1870; of Savannah, 30,747, against 28,235; of Macon, 12,695, against 10,810; of Columbus, 10,132, against 7,401.

The attendance in the State free schools in 1879 was about 224,000, an increase of 14,000 over the attendance of 1878. The total number of children of school age was 433,444. The growth of the free schools since the inauguration of the system in 1871 has been steady and rapid, as shown in the following table giving the attendance in the white and colored schools in each year:

YEAR.	White pupils.	Colored pupils.	Total attendance.
1871.....	42,914	6,664	49,578
1873.....	63,922	19,755	83,677
1874.....	93,167	42,374	135,541
1875.....	105,990	50,333	156,324
1876.....	121,418	57,987	179,405
1877.....	128,296	62,330	190,626
1878.....	137,217	72,655	209,872
1879.....	147,192	79,435	226,627

The average attendance in 1879 was 132,000. The net amount appropriated for the support of the free schools in 1879 was \$155,264; in 1880, \$185,789. The increase in 1880 was due to the receipt of about \$35,000, the yield of the new liquor-tax for a half-year. The poll-tax for the support of schools assessed in the counties is separate from this sum. The poll-tax collected in 1879 amounted to \$160,484. About \$150,000 additional is raised in certain cities and counties under local laws. The estimated revenue available for the public schools in 1880 is \$376,273 from the State, or, with the local levies, \$526,000 altogether. The schools have been maintained with \$300,000 for from a month and a half to three months in the year; but a more liberal support is demanded in view of the growth and increasing popularity of the free schools. The

appropriation from the State in 1879, including the poll-tax, rental of the State road, and other sources of revenue, amounted to \$315,748, being 73 cents per capita of the total school population, \$1.39 per capita of the enrollment, and \$2.39 per head of the average attendance. The State University at Athens was attended in 1879 by 149 students, and in 1880 by 152. Of these, 82 were in the Literary College, 63 in the College of Agriculture and the Mechanical Arts, and seven in the Law School. The available fund in 1880 was \$40,035, including a balance from the preceding year of \$7,276. The amount derived from tuition fees was \$2,227. The expenditures were \$32,138. In the branch college at Dahlonega were instructed 245 males and 80 females—together 325 students; in that at Thomasville 180 students, all males; and in the one at Milledgeville 165 males and 186 females—together 351. In these three colleges and the one at Cuthbert the total number instructed was 1,024; adding the 112 students in the medical department at Augusta, the total number of pupils instructed in the State high-schools was 1,288. The branch colleges which perform so conspicuous a part in the educational work are all of them of very recent establishment. The North Georgia College commissioned 79 teachers at the end of the school year in 1879, and from these in the following autumn 105,000 received instruction. The college at Thomasville, employing four instructors, was first organized in September, 1879. It occupies a school-building which was already standing, and which was presented by the Methodist Church and improved with a sum subscribed by the citizens. The Milledgeville College occupies the old State Capitol. It was organized in January, 1880, and employs ten teachers. The Cuthbert College commenced operations in September, 1879, and has four teachers.

The number of convicts in the penitentiary at the close of the fiscal year 1878 was 1,234. In 1879 and 1880 the number received was 444; discharged, 332; deceased, 80; escaped, 32; pardoned, 42; leaving 1,187 in the penitentiary on October 1, 1880. The number received during the two years was 105 less than during the two years preceding. The death-rate among the convicts has been lessened from 4½, 5½, and 4½ per cent. in the three years preceding 1877 to 3½, 1½, and 2½ per cent. in the three succeeding years. The present convict-lease system was inaugurated under the administration of Governor Smith. Several reforms in the management of the system have been instituted. The leases which were entered into with contractors are for a term of twenty years. The grand juries in the counties where the convict-camps are keep a watch over the manner in which the men are treated and cared for.

The State Lunatic Asylum contained in the year 1879 the average number of 749 patients, the whole number in the asylum during the year having been 951. In 1880 the average

number was 820, and the whole number 1,058. There was a building for colored patients containing 164 new rooms added to the asylum during the year, and an additional building is demanded, as the present accommodations are insufficient. The cost of maintaining the insane was 35-64 cents per capita per diem in 1880, and 32-9 cents in 1879, against 34-35 cents in 1878, and 36-33 cents in 1877. There was a greater number of patients restored to health in 1880 than in any previous year.

In the Deaf and Dumb Institute there were 67 pupils in 1879, and 64 in 1880. The expenses were \$15,641 in 1879, and \$14,616 in 1880. The buildings are too small for the number of pupils, and have no accommodations for the reception of colored deaf-mutes, of whom 15 have applied for admission. The appropriations made by Georgia for the support and instruction of the deaf and dumb are lower than in any other State. In the Academy for the Blind, which has been established twenty-eight years, 66 pupils were in attendance in 1879, the average attendance having been 58. The expenses were \$9,624; the cost per capita \$166.

The first semi-annual report of the Railroad Commissioners was made to the Governor on the 1st of May. The commission is empowered by the act to fix just and reasonable rates for freight and passenger transportation, which shall be published, and must not be avoided by secret rates or rebates. The rates on freight which is carried from or to places beyond the boundaries of the State are not subject to the regulation of the Commissioners, except that they must not exceed the uniform tariffs established by the commission. A standard tariff for freight was adopted, which went into operation on the 1st of May. It is a maximum rate which can not be exceeded by any road, but which was lowered for different roads with the acquiescence of the commission. The maximum rate for passengers was placed at four cents a mile, but license is given to any railroad to charge as much less as it wishes, to special classes of people, or to issue thousand-mile or excursion tickets at reduced rates. In December a further reduction was made in passenger rates, which were fixed for the principal railroad at three cents per mile, while some were permitted to charge four, and a few five cents. The law empowers the commission to revise its action at any time. The commission was organized November 10, 1879, and is composed of ex-Governor J. M. Smith, Major Campbell Wallace, and Colonel Samuel Barnett. Concerning the latitude of their powers the Commissioners in their report remark as follows:

The regulations established by the commission under the law are enforced by ample penalties to the State and damages to individuals—so stringent that the board feels a deep sense of responsibility and anxiety for the just exercise of powers so large and enforced by such penalties. In the report of the Wisconsin Commissioner we observe that his powers are felt to

be inadequate to his duties; he is to make brick without straw; quite the reverse in many particulars in our case. There is no sense of weakness, but rather of anxiety in the use of large powers—positive, not merely negative; which, like thumb-screws, take a powerful hold, so that even litigation to test them is dangerous. For this reason our sense of responsibility has often been oppressive.

The Commissioner of Agriculture remarks a gratifying advance in the agricultural prosperity of the State, improvements in home comforts, on the farms, the general introduction of improved implements and machinery, and improved methods of culture. Steam-power has been largely utilized on the farms, especially in running cotton-gins. An increased demand has been made for improved seeds. Thoroughbred cattle and sheep have been bought. The dairying interest has received a decided impetus. Local agricultural organizations have been instituted in greater numbers, and there seems to be a general and practical interest taken by the farmers in the department of agriculture. The department has issued 148,000 copies of crop reports and circulars, and is publishing a manual on cattle. From the inspection of fertilizers, of which 119,583 tons, chiefly ammoniated superphosphates, of 182 different brands, were inspected in the season of 1879-'80, there have been \$59,791 received in fees, \$10,353 of which were consumed in the cost of inspection. The present statute concerning the analysis and inspection of artificial manures needs revision. The Commissioner proposes that the revenue derived from this source be applied to founding an agricultural college. The Superintendent of Fisheries stocked the Oconee, Ocmulgee, and Chattahoochee Rivers with shad in June, and has distributed German carp in small numbers for the stocking of ponds.

No appropriation was made by the last General Assembly for the payment of the State Geologist, and the field-work was suspended. The Geologist continued to some extent his office labors, however. He reports that the mineral districts are attracting a greater degree of attention than before. During the five years of the survey fifty gold-mills with nearly 500 stamps, representing nearly \$500,000 of capital, attracted from outside, were set in operation. New mining industries which have sprung up during the year are the working of manganese-mines in Bartow County, of brown hematite iron deposits in Dade County, and copper mining in Haralson County. Other mineral interests of recent development are the manufacture of fertilizers from the potash deposits of Houston and Twiggs Counties, the shipping of soapstone from Murray and Fannin Counties, and of asbestos, barite, mica, and rutile from other parts of the State. Iron has been found in 71 counties in the State, granite in 45, and gold in 61, as shown in the collections of specimens made by the geological survey. There are specimens also of valuable limestone from 48 counties, of quartz from 46, of soapstone from

22, of asbestos from 28, of copper-ore from 27, of corundum from 9, of kaolin from 11, of manganese from 15, of marble from 6, of serpentine from 11, and of other minerals of merchantable character. The survey has found 600 streams in the State affording water-power, ranging from 10 to 300 horse-power usually, though some of them are capable of giving as high as 30,000 horse-power.

The yield of gold bullion in the State is stated by Dr. Little, the State Geologist, to amount at present to over \$1,000,000 per annum. There are said to be very rich veins of easily crushed quartz in the Georgia hills, and Dr. Little believes that the gold-mines of the State will prove as productive as those of California at present. In the gold belt in north Georgia only the most primitive machinery has as yet been used, and many easily accessible lodes are left undeveloped for lack of capital. Extraordinary placer deposits have lately been found. The largest nugget but one ever found in the State was met with in the spring in the Nacoochee Valley. It weighed over a pound. Gold dust and nuggets are said to be the common medium of exchange in northern Georgia, every storekeeper having a pair of scales to weigh the gold brought to him for barter. The Chattahoochee and other streams, which are known to contain gold in their beds, have never been worked.

Francis Fontaine was appointed State Commissioner of Land and Immigration under an act approved October 17, 1879. He opened an office in Atlanta and one in New York, and printed circulars and pamphlets containing information on the soil, productions, and climate of the State. Agents have been appointed at the North and in Europe. The Commissioner thinks that the best way to get immigrants for Georgia is to obtain them in Europe and bring them direct by steamship to Savannah. There are now no emoluments attached to his office, and he asks that a salary for himself and a secretary, office-rent, and a fixed sum for printing, etc., be provided.

The area under cotton, reported in the census returns, is 2,579,969 acres, about 18½ per cent. of the total cotton acreage of the country; the crop of 1879-'80 is reported to have been 803,211 bales, less than 14½ per cent. of the total crop of the country. Georgia has the largest acreage of any State devoted to cotton, but its product is exceeded by that of Mississippi, whose acreage is less than that of either Georgia, Alabama, or Texas.

An act was passed by the last Legislature, pursuant to a clause in the new State Constitution, for supplying soldiers who had lost an arm or a leg in the Confederate service with artificial limbs during their lives at the expense of the State. The sum of \$69,870 has been paid out of the Treasury for this purpose to 960 maimed veterans of the Southern army. By means of skillful forgeries a small portion of the fund was fraudulently ob-

tained, but the criminal parties have been arrested, and one of them convicted.

A revision of the law in the State code relating to the electoral vote for President was discovered to be necessary, as it was found after the Presidential election that a discrepancy exists between the code and the United States statute which rendered the electoral vote of Georgia in 1880 legally void. While the law of Congress requires the electoral college in each State to cast its vote on the first Wednesday in December, the Georgia code directs the Governor to summon the electors to meet at the capital on the first Monday in December to cast their vote on the Wednesday following. When, therefore, the first day of the month, as in 1880, or the second, should happen to be a Wednesday, the electoral vote can not be taken on the legal day under the code.

A murder of exceptionally heinous character occurred in Jonesboro, Clayton County, on the 29th of July, in which the victims were a family of negroes and the perpetrators a band of masked white men. The leader of the assassins was identified as a man who had been prosecuted and fined for whipping the negro whose family was murdered. As there were threats made of rescuing the suspected parties who were arrested, the Governor sent a company of militia, going himself to Jonesboro, and had the prisoners taken to Atlanta.

The squads of revenue officers who, in accordance with the vigorous policy adopted by Commissioner Raum for the suppression of illicit distilling, scoured the mountains of north Georgia for that purpose, were frequently assaulted and resisted in the execution of their duty. Special agents were sent out by Commissioner Raum to investigate the state of affairs reported by the officers, and a State Commissioner, Henry L. Carrow, was appointed to participate in the inquiry, who, together with District-Attorney Farrow and Marshal Fitzsimons, accompanied the Government agents. Later a disposition was manifested on the part of those who had been engaged in the unlawful business to abandon the practice, and men against whom warrants were issued voluntarily came and surrendered themselves to the United States officers. The Georgia press and the representatives of the State in Congress indignantly denied the reports of a state of lawlessness in the northern counties, and a concerted resistance to the enforcement of the laws on the part of the citizens.

A revenue *posse* was fired upon by a gang of five illicit distillers near Red Oak, Campbell County, and returned the fire, killing one and wounding another of the "moonshiners"; the fatal encounter occurred on the night of June 23d. The deputies were arrested on a justice's warrant; and, on application to Judge Woods of the United States Circuit Court, he took cognizance of the case and discharged the prisoners after an examination. One of the band who was in advance was arrested in the road,

and the others then hid in the bushes and fired, and upon being dislodged sought another ambush and fired a second volley.

A resolution was agreed to by the State Senate, on one of the last days of the session, by which the Senators and Representatives in Congress are instructed to endeavor to secure an enactment exempting from revenue taxation all distilled spirits made by farmers on their own lands, from grain or other material of their own production, not to exceed 1,000 gallons per annum, to the same extent to which brandy manufactured from apples, peaches, or grapes is exempted, and allowing its manufacture under the provisions and restrictions applying to brandy.

Arrangements are being made for an exhibition of appliances, methods, and products of the culture and the manufacture of cotton, to be held in Atlanta, in the months of September, October, and November, 1881. The scheme was first proposed by Edward Atkinson, who made a speech before the people of Atlanta, in which he criticised the institution of slavery and its social and material consequences very bluntly. The kindly and interested seriousness with which the leading Georgians and the citizens in general received the strictures of a former abolitionist and approved the advice of a practical New England business man was remarked throughout the country. J. W. Ryckman, of Philadelphia, afterward visited Atlanta in behalf of the project, and an association was organized under the name of the International Cotton Exposition Company. The capital stock was limited to \$200,000, and a quarter of that amount was at once subscribed in the State. Senator Joseph E. Brown was chosen President, Samuel M. Inman, Treasurer, and J. W. Ryckman, Secretary. The need of more careful and thorough methods of preparing cotton for the market is felt by manufacturers, and in this planters are naturally interested, as well as in improved methods of culture, which, it is thought, might treble the yield from the same area. The Southerners are very desirous to see the English and American processes of manufacture exhibited, on account of the young industry which has sprung up along their water-courses, engaged in spinning coarse yarns and weaving the heavier fabrics. They think that the climatic conditions of the South are more favorable for cotton manufacture than those of New England, while the saving in freight, and the superior condition of the cotton before it is compressed into tight bales, give them great commercial advantages.

Active efforts are being made by the attorney of the holders of the repudiated bonds of the Brunswick and Albany Railroad to compel the State to acknowledge its warranty, which was disclaimed by an act of the Legislature, passed in 1872, and by a clause in the Constitution of 1877 forbidding the payment of these bonds. The bonds amount to nearly \$3,000,000, and are held principally in Frankfort-on-the-Rhine.

The attorney for the German bondholders is O. A. Lochrane, of Georgia, who has applied to Congress to submit to the people the question of the annulment of the eleventh amendment to the United States Constitution, which forbids legal process against a State in the suit of private parties. Judge Lochrane hopes to rally to the support of such a measure a strong party of the holders of repudiated Southern bonds and their sympathizers, and to bring pressure enough to bear upon Congress, and excite enough popular interest, to secure the repeal of the amendment, the effect of which would be to bring the action of the repudiating States into the United States courts for review, to be tested by the ordinary rules of law and equity. The construction of the Brunswick and Albany road was commenced with Northern capital just before the war. About sixty-five miles had been completed, and some 1,400 tons of iron were lying on the wharves at Brunswick, when the ordinance of secession was passed. In the secession Convention a resolution was adopted granting immunity to public works from confiscation. Nevertheless, the property was seized as belonging to alien enemies. At the close of the war the owners made a claim upon the State for the material destroyed, and a compromise was effected by which they were to complete the road, and the State to pay a subsidy of \$15,000 for every mile constructed. This measure was passed in 1869 by a Democratic Legislature. In October, 1871, the railroad was seized by Governor Bullock and placed in the hands of a receiver, being in a bankrupt condition, the President, J. C. Kimball, having no funds to pay the contractors, to whom about \$1,000,000 were owing. Henry Clews, banker, of New York, was the Treasurer and financial agent of the road, and had the bonds of the road, bearing the warranty of the State, which he proceeded to negotiate in Europe. The seal of the State was attested by the British consul in Savannah, and the bonds were purchased by German investors on the strength of the State's guarantee. Among these bonds were a number predicated upon a section of the road not completed. The refusal of the Treasurer to complete the road, and his failure to pay the contract debts, which were distributed among about eight hundred Georgia citizens, and entailed upon them great hardships, exasperated the people. The Legislature appointed the bond committee, in the winter of 1871, to investigate the validity of the bonds sold by Clews & Co., which reported that the company had not conformed to the charter in many respects, and had consequently lost its legal existence; that the bonds had been issued on sections before they had been completed, and were invalid under the authorizing act; and that there was irregularity in the recording of the deed of trust securing the bonds sufficient to vitiate them. The General Assembly passed the act declaring the endorsement of the State null and void on August 16, 1872. The law author-

izing the investigation was published in American, German, and English newspapers. On the 29th of May, at the instance of the Governor and Attorney-General, the State was allowed by an order of the Court to withdraw from the case which it had commenced against the company. Besides the claims of the contractors, that of the first-mortgage bondholders for \$2,844,986 was entered in the complaint by Henry Clews & Co. Upon the withdrawal of the State, the bondholders, who had not been parties to the original bill, being supposed to be protected by the endorsement of the State, now took charge of the case, pressed their first lien, established their claim, and bought in the road under foreclosure for \$530,000, thus shutting out all the claimants on simple contract debts, except those who had been paid by the court on laborers' liens. This course of the bondholders in electing to assert their claim upon the property of the road instead of relying upon the security of the State, which was properly the mortgagee according to the act, and held the deed of trust of the road, and not the bondholders, is held to bar the bondholders from recourse to the State under the law of estoppels, since they prevented the contractors from recovering their debts from the assets of the road, even if the bonds were valid in form and substance. As the publication of the legislative investigation, the withdrawal of the State from litigation, and the passage of the act of repudiation were sufficient advertisement of the intentions of the State before and while the bonds were being sold, the State is considered released in law and in honor from the claims of the bondholders, which were vitiated by frauds and irregularities originally, of which defects the State had given warning in ample time; while, moreover, on the ground of the invalidity of the bonds and their repudiation by the State, the bondholders had stepped in and assumed the mortgage in the place of the State, to the prejudice of other parties. Judge Lochrane claims for his clients that the bonds issued upon the road as far as now completed, \$2,850,000 bonds on one hundred and ninety miles of road, are perfectly valid and regular, while the bonds last issued on sixty miles of road which was never completed were illegal, and should not be paid; that there was never any just reason for repudiating the former, which were issued in compliance with the law, and with the proceeds of which, obtained on the State's guarantee, railroads, which have added to the wealth of the State, were built.

The Democratic Convention for the nomination of State officers and Presidential electors assembled in Augusta on the 4th of August. An excited canvass had preceded the Convention, an organized and determined minority opposing the nomination of Governor Colquitt for the governorship. On the first ballot Colquitt received 209½ votes, lacking only 24½ of the necessary two-thirds vote. The struggle over the governorship prolonged the sessions

of the Convention for seven days, and on the seventh day, after taking thirty-two ballots, it adjourned without making a nomination for Governor in accordance with the two-thirds rule, in the place of which a majority resolution was adopted recommending Alfred H. Colquitt to the votes of the people. N. C. Barnett was nominated for Secretary of State, and William A. Wright for Comptroller. Clifford Anderson was proposed for Attorney-General after two or three ineffectual ballots for other candidates had been taken, and on the next ballot he received the nomination. The State Treasurer, J. W. Renfro, it was announced, would, in consequence of the failure to nominate a candidate for Governor, go before the people as an independent candidate for Treasurer; upon which D. N. Speer was nominated. The minority division of the party settled upon Thomas M. Norwood as the opposition candidate, although his name had not been before the Convention. The opposition to Governor Colquitt was ostensibly based upon his endorsement of the Northeastern Railroad bonds, to which, he asserted, the honor of the State was pledged, and upon other official acts which were held to have been unwise. This opposition was intensified by his appointment of ex-Governor Brown to the vacant senatorship left empty by the resignation of Senator Gordon. General John B. Gordon unexpectedly sent in his resignation on May 15th. To the request of Governor Colquitt that he would recall his resignation or postpone it until the meeting of the Legislature, he refused to accede, and the Governor was obliged to accept it and appoint another Senator for the interim. General Gordon stated, as the principal reason for his action, that he was too poor to support the hospitalities which he felt bound to dispense as a Senator, and was unable in that position to obtain the means of providing to his satisfaction for his family, as he might in private employments. He subsequently accepted the position of attorney to the Louisville and Nashville Railroad. Joseph E. Brown, who was appointed in his stead, had been the earliest of the secessionists to accept the position in which the State was placed by the defeat of the Southern arms, and in inaugurating the movement, in which many of the leading men of the South soon afterward joined, he placed himself outside the pale of his party in 1868, acting and voting with the reconstructionists. His appointment to the senatorship awakened the resentment of the conservative wing of the Democratic party, of which he had constantly been an energetic opponent, and who regarded him with greater hostility than any of their other assailants. Many of the more moderate conservatives regarded Brown as a deserter of his party, half a radical, and altogether ineligible for the senatorship. Senator Brown and Governor Colquitt made common cause in the gubernatorial contest. The conservative Democracy were joined by other factions in opposing the reelection of Colquitt,

and many harsh accusations were brought during the campaign, among others that the retirement of Senator Gordon was the result of a bargain and sale, by which he was given a remunerative employment, and Brown made Senator in return for his promised support of Colquitt. In the preceding election Colquitt had received over 80,000 majority. In this one his majority, though considerably less than those of his associates on the ticket, reached over 54,000. The Legislature upon assembling elected ex-Governor Brown Senator for the unexpired term of Senator Gordon by a handsome majority.

JOSEPH EMERSON BROWN, the new Senator, was born in Pickens County, South Carolina, April 15, 1821. He commenced active life as a lawyer in Canton, Georgia, in 1845. He was elected State Senator in 1849, and a Circuit Judge in 1855. In 1857 he was nominated for the governorship, B. H. Hill, the candidate of the American party, being his opponent, and was elected. He was reelected in 1859, and again in 1861, remaining Governor during the war. He was strongly opposed to the conscript and enforcement acts of the Confederate government, as being contrary to the Jeffersonian principles of Democracy on which the Confederacy was to be founded. When Georgia was invaded by Sherman's army he raised a defensive force of about 10,000, made up of State officers, youths and aged men, and other classes exempt from conscription, and when Jefferson Davis afterward made a requisition upon him for this corps he refused to send them out of the State. Upon being released from the prison in which he was confined by the Union authorities after the war, he resigned the governorship. In 1866 he visited Washington to ascertain the position of affairs, and on his return expressed his views in the famous letter in which he advised the Southerners to accept the situation and comply with the terms of reconstruction, and thus obtain representation in Congress as speedily as possible. He found himself almost alone in his position, and for the time acted with the Republican party. He took part in the Constitutional Convention of 1868, and was appointed by Governor Bullock Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, which place he resigned in 1870. He was chosen President of the Western and Atlantic Railroad Company, President of the Southern Railway and Steamship Association, President of the Dade Coal Company, President of the Atlanta Board of Education, and has been one of the most active promoters of the *post-bellum* development of the material resources of Georgia. He voted for Greeley in 1872, and has acted with the Democratic party ever since.

The results of the election gave Colquitt 118,349 votes for Governor, and Norwood 64,004, making Colquitt's majority 54,345. Clifford Anderson was elected Attorney-General, William A. Wright Comptroller-General, and

N. C. Barnett Secretary of State, by much larger majorities.

A speech made by ex-Governor Brown before the Assembly, in answer to one by the rival candidate, General Lawton, in advocacy of his election to the United States Senate, was accepted both in the North and the South as defining the position of the progressive branch of the Southern Democratic party. In this controversy, Lawton, whose candidature was favored by General Toombs and the conservative wing of the party, called Brown to account for allying himself with the reconstructionists in 1868. Brown showed that the Democratic party in the next Presidential campaign, and ever since, have gone beyond him by professing devotion to the constitutional amendments and reconstruction, which he had merely accepted as the conditions of defeat. He quoted a private letter written by Robert E. Lee, dated April 3, 1867, in which the late commander of the Southern army counseled the same acquiescence in reconstruction and participation in the constitutional conventions which he advised himself. General Lee's opinion, privately expressed to one of his former subordinates, was as follows:

I think there can be no doubt in the minds of those who reflect that conventions must be held in the Southern States under the Sherman bill; that the people are placed in a position where no choice in the matter is left them, and it is the duty of all who may be entitled to vote to attend the polls and endeavor to elect the best available men to represent them and act for the interests of their States. The division of the people into parties is greatly to be reprehended, and ought to be avoided by the willingness on the part of every one to yield minor points, in order to secure those which are essential to the general welfare. Wisdom dictates that the decision of the Convention should be cheerfully submitted to by the citizens of each State, who should unite in carrying out its decrees in good faith and kind feeling.

His policy, Senator Brown declared, would be to endeavor to obtain the advantages from the General Government for his State which the current theory of the Constitution makes possible—harbor and river improvements, encouragement of agriculture and manufactures, etc.; to cultivate friendly relations with the Republican Administration, and to solicit the appointment of honest and capable colored Georgians to Federal offices where Democrats are not acceptable; and to advocate a national public-school fund to be derived from the sales of public lands, and to be apportioned among the States in proportion to the extent of illiteracy, a plan which he thought the wealthier and better educated commonwealths of the North would not grudge for the improvement of the South, which found itself hampered in its efforts for progress by the mass of ignorant colored citizens, who had been enfranchised as a result of the war. The constitutional amendments and the other results of the war must be accepted finally, and the Democratic party of the South must turn its back upon the Bourbons and reject the disaffected sentiments of

the former slaveholding aristocracy, and look forward to the building up of a prosperous South under the new conditions, seeking national and local advancement hand in hand with the other States, and fostering a general and superior education, such as that of New England, which gives its ideas their present ascendancy. The negroes must be assured absolute civil and political equality, while social equality must be left, as it is elsewhere, to itself.

GERMANY, an empire in Europe, reestablished January 18, 1871. The Emperor, William I, was born March 22, 1797, and was married June 11, 1829, to Augusta, daughter of the Grand Duke Charles Frederick of Saxe-Weimar. The heir-apparent, Frederick William, born October 18, 1831, has the official titles of Crown Prince of the German Empire and Crown Prince of Prussia. He was married January 25, 1858, to Victoria, Princess Royal of Great Britain and Ireland, born November 21, 1840, and has six children, viz.: William, born 1859, married on February 27,

1881, to Augusta Victoria, Princess of Schleswig-Holstein, born 1858; Henry, born 1862; Charlotte, born 1860, married in 1878 to Bernhard, hereditary prince of Saxe-Weimar; Victoria, born 1866; Sophia, born 1870; and Margareta, born 1872. One son, Waldemar, born in 1868, died March 27, 1879. Imperial Chancellor (*Reichskanzler*), Otto, Prince von Bismarck-Schönhausen.

The German Empire consists at present of twenty-six states, of which four are kingdoms, six grand duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, three free cities, and one, Alsace-Lorraine, an imperial province (*Reichsland*). The area of the German Empire in 1880 was 540,477 square kilometres, or 208,687 English square miles. The following table exhibits all the states of the German Empire, the area, the population according to the census of 1875, the number of representatives of every German state in the Federal Council, and the number of deputies who represent each state in the Reichstag:

STATES.		Area in square kilometres.	Population in 1875.	Votes in Federal Council.	Deputies to the Reichstag.
Grand Duchies. Kingdoms.	1. Prussia (including Lauenburg).....	348,245.83	25,742,404	17	236
	2. Bavaria.....	75,863.49	5,022,390	6	48
	3. Saxony.....	14,992.94	2,760,586	4	23
	4. Württemberg.....	19,503.69	1,881,505	4	17
Duchies.	5. Baden.....	15,083.55	1,507,179	3	14
	6. Hesse.....	7,680.92	884,218	3	9
	7. Mecklenburg-Schwerin.....	13,303.75	553,785	2	6
	8. Saxe-Weimar.....	3,593.24	292,968	1	8
Principalities.	9. Oldenburg.....	2,929.50	319,814	1	8
	10. Mecklenburg-Strelitz.....	6,413.99	95,673	1	1
	11. Brunswick.....	3,690.43	327,493	2	3
	12. Saxe-Meiningen.....	2,468.41	194,494	1	2
Free cities.	13. Saxe-Altenburg.....	1,321.51	145,844	1	1
	14. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.....	1,967.74	182,599	1	2
	15. Anhalt.....	2,347.35	213,565	1	2
	16. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.....	942.13	76,676	1	1
	17. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen.....	862.11	67,480	1	1
	18. Waldeck.....	1,121.60	54,743	1	1
	19. Reuss-Greiz (elder line).....	316.99	46,935	1	1
	20. Reuss-Schleitz (younger line).....	829.25	92,375	1	1
	21. Schaumburg-Lippe.....	339.71	83,183	1	1
	22. Lippe-Deimold.....	1,188.75	112,452	1	1
	23. Lübeck.....	298.73	56,912	1	1
	24. Bremen.....	255.50	142,200	1	1
	25. Hamburg.....	409.78	388,618	1	8
	26. Alsace-Lorraine (Reichsland).....	14,508.10	1,581,504	..	15
Total.....		540,477.48	42,727,360	53	397

The Constitution of the Empire bears date April 16, 1871. By its terms all the states of Germany "form an eternal union for the protection of the realm and the care of the welfare of the German people."

The Statistical Bureau of the empire officially estimated the population of the empire for 1876 at 43,073,087, 1877 at 43,657,387, 1878 at 44,210,948. A new census was taken throughout the empire on December 1, 1880. According to a preliminary statement of the result, published in March, 1881, the population of the empire amounted in 1880 to 45,194,172. The following table exhibits all the cities of the empire which, according to the new census, have more than 100,000 inhabitants, and compares their present population with that of 1875:

CITIES.	POPULATION.	
	1875.	1880.
Berlin.....	966,858	1,118,630
Hamburg.....	348,447	410,176
Breslau.....	239,050	272,390
Munich.....	198,829	228,372
Dresden.....	197,295	220,816
Cologne.....	185,371	144,225
Leipsic.....	127,387	148,760
Königsberg.....	122,696	140,689
Stuttgart.....	107,273	117,021
Hanover.....	106,677	122,675
Frankfort-on-the Main.....	103,186	137,600
Bremen.....	102,532	112,114
Dantzic.....	97,931	108,864
Strasburg.....	94,306	106,000

The following table shows the growth of the population of the German Empire within its present limits since 1816:

YEAR.	Population.	Average annual increase.
1816	24,531,396	
1820	26,291,606	1.48 p. c.
1830	29,518,125	0.98 "
1840	32,755,150	1.16 "
1850	35,895,496	0.57 "
1860	37,745,137	0.83 "
1870	40,816,249	0.58 "
1875	42,727,360	0.92 "

The total number of electors inscribed on the lists at the general election of 1878 was 9,124,311, while the number of actual voters was 5,834,843 at the same election.

The following table gives a full exhibit of the governments of the particular states, including the names and titles of all the sovereign princes, their years of birth and accession to the thrones, and the names of the heirs-apparent :

STATES.	Title.	Name.	When born and when succeeded to the government.	Heir-apparent.
Prussia.....	King.....	William I.....	Born 1797, succ. 1861...	Frederick William, son.
Bavaria.....	King.....	Louis II.....	" 1845, " 1864...	Otto, brother.
Saxony.....	King.....	Albert.....	" 1828, " 1873...	George, brother.
Württemberg.....	King.....	Charles.....	" 1828, " 1864...	William, cousin.
Baden.....	Grand Duke.....	Frederick.....	" 1826, " 1856...	Frederick William, son.
Mecklenburg-Schwerin.....	Grand Duke.....	Frederick Francis II.....	" 1823, " 1842...	Frederick Francis, son.
Hesse.....	Grand Duke.....	Louis IV.....	" 1837, " 1877...	Ernest Louis, son.
Oldenburg.....	Grand Duke.....	Peter.....	" 1827, " 1853...	August, son.
Saxe-Weimar.....	Grand Duke.....	Charles Alexander.....	" 1818, " 1853...	Charles August, son.
Mecklenburg-Strelitz.....	Grand Duke.....	Frederick William.....	" 1819, " 1860...	Adolf Frederick, son.
Brunswick.....	Duke.....	William.....	" 1806, " 1831...	Disputed.
Anhalt.....	Duke.....	Frederick.....	" 1831, " 1871...	Leopold, son.
Saxe-Altenburg.....	Duke.....	Ernest.....	" 1826, " 1853...	Maurice, brother.
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.....	Duke.....	Ernest II.....	" 1818, " 1844...	Prince Alfred, cousin.
Saxe-Meiningen.....	Duke.....	George.....	" 1826, " 1866...	Bernhard, son.
Lippe-Deimold.....	Prince.....	Waldemar.....	" 1824, " 1875...	Hermann, brother.
Reuss (elder line).....	Prince.....	Henry XXII.....	" 1846, " 1859...	Henry XXIV, son.
Reuss (younger line).....	Prince.....	Henry XIV.....	" 1832, " 1867...	Henry XXVII, son.
Schaumburg-Lippe.....	Prince.....	Adolf.....	" 1817, " 1860...	George, son.
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.....	Prince.....	George.....	" 1838, " 1859...	Günther, second cousin.
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen.....	Prince.....	Charles.....	" 1830, " 1880...	Leopold, brother.
Waldeck.....	Prince.....	George.....	" 1831, " 1852...	Frederick, son.
Bremen.....	Burgomaster.....	{ F. L. Grave.....	1879-1883.....	
		{ Dr. O. Gildemeister.....	1877-1881.....	
Hamburg.....	Burgomaster.....	{ Dr. C. Petersen.....	1880.....	
		{ Dr. Kirchenpauer.....	1880.....	
Lübeck.....	Burgomaster.....	{ Dr. H. T. Behn.....	1880.....	
Alsace-Lorraine.....	Stadtholder, appointed by the Emperor.....	Freiherr von Mantouff.....	1879.....	

It will be seen from the above table that the dual line of Brunswick is likely to become extinct by the death of the reigning Duke. The succession is disputed by the Duke of Cumberland (son of the late King of Hanover) and the Emperor of Germany. It is also interesting to notice that the heir-apparent is the son of the reigning sovereign in only thirteen of the twenty-two sovereign houses which belong to the German Empire.

The legislative functions of the empire are vested in the Bundesrath or Federal Council, and the Reichstag or Diet of the Empire. The Bundesrath represents the individual states of Germany, and the Emperor must have its consent to declare war which is not merely defensive. The members of the Bundesrath are appointed by the Governments of the individual states for each session. Both the Bundestag and the Reichstag meet in annual session convoked by the Emperor. The Emperor has the right to prorogue and dissolve the Reichstag, but the prorogation must not exceed sixty days; while in case of dissolution new elections take place within sixty days, and a new session opens within ninety days. The Bundesrath is presided over by the Chancellor of the Empire, and the President of the Reichstag is elected by the deputies.

Emigration from the ports of Bremen and Hamburg since 1832 has been as follows:

YEAR.	FROM		Total.
	Bremen.	Hamburg.	
1879.....	26,654	24,864	51,518
1875-79.....	22,697	26,756	49,253
1870-74.....	56,318	52,361	108,679
1865-69.....	62,093	45,579	107,672
1860-64.....	21,580	20,085	41,665
1855-59.....	32,541	21,892	54,433
1850-54.....	51,361	25,804	77,165
1845-49.....	31,290	5,416	36,706
1836-44.....	12,949	1,704	14,653
Total since 1832.....	1,544,655	961,391	2,506,046

The movement of population in 1878 was as follows:

STATES.	Marriages.	Births.		Still-births.	Surplus of births.
		Inclusive of still-births.	Deaths.		
Prussia.....	207,716	1,076,058	730,467	44,272	345,586
Bavaria.....	37,565	216,173	160,970	7,589	55,203
Saxony.....	24,797	128,185	87,031	5,140	41,154
Württemberg.....	13,364	64,387	59,593	3,214	24,744
Baden.....	10,861	60,576	42,244	1,950	18,332
Alsace-Lorraine.....	9,989	54,775	40,387	2,138	14,388
Hesse.....	6,625	34,080	22,865	1,345	11,165
Other states.....	29,009	130,951	85,050	5,004	45,901
Total.....	340,016	1,785,080	1,228,607	70,647	556,473

Germany has twenty universities, of which nine are in Prussia, three in Bavaria, two in Baden, and one each in Württemberg, Hesse, Saxony, Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg, and Alsace-Lorraine. The number of professors and

of students in the German universities in 1879 were as follows :

UNIVERSITIES.	State.	Professors.	STUDENTS.	
			Matriculated.	Total.
Berlin.....	Prussia.....	219	3,608	5,201
Bonn.....	".....	100	851	917
Breslau.....	".....	108	1,309	1,324
Erlangen.....	Bavaria.....	63	480	480
Freiburg.....	Baden.....	56	892	450
Gießen.....	Hesse.....	58	358	361
Göttingen.....	Prussia.....	116	965	974
Greifswald.....	".....	62	531	536
Halle.....	".....	102	1,098	1,130
Heidelberg.....	Baden.....	107	*495	*551
Jena.....	Saxe-Weimar.....	77	451	431
Kiel.....	Prussia.....	64	242	347
Königsberg.....	".....	85	737	745
Leipzig.....	Saxony.....	206	3,227	3,345
Marburg.....	Prussia.....	71	572	588
Munich.....	Bavaria.....	132	1,806	1,840
Rostock.....	Prussia.....	41	195	198
Strasbourg.....	Alsace-Lorraine.....	86	752	814
Tübingen.....	Württemberg.....	83	994	1,004
Würzburg.....	Bavaria.....	76	848	907
Total.....		1,912	19,839	22,202

Sometimes the academies of Münster and Braunsberg, containing each the two faculties of Catholic Theology and Philosophy, are counted among the German universities. In 1880 Münster had 32 professors and 253 students. At the following universities outside of the German Empire the German language is exclusively or predominantly used, and in the province of literature they may be counted as German universities :

UNIVERSITIES.	Countries.	Professors.	STUDENTS.	
			Matriculated.	Total.
Basel.....	Switzerland.....	71	191	302
Bern.....	".....	82	342	399
Czernowitz.....	Austria.....	38	196	259
Dorpat.....	Russia.....	79	1,048	1,069
Graz.....	Austria.....	95	*676	*773
Innsbruck.....	".....	73	521	607
Prague.....	".....	143	1,602	1,707
Vienna.....	".....	258	3,258	3,885
Zürich.....	Switzerland.....	85	317	372

The budget of the German Empire for 1880-'81 estimates the revenue and expenditure at 539,252,640 marks each (1 mark = 23·8 cents). The revenue was derived from the following sources :

	Marks.
1. Customs and excises of consumption.....	307,196,470
2. Stamps on playing-cards.....	1,139,000
3. Stamp-duty on bills of exchange.....	6,276,200
4. Statistical dues.....	900,000
5. Administration of postal affairs and telegraphs.....	16,649,045
6. Administration of railroads.....	10,367,400
7. Administration of the imperial printing-office.....	953,340
8. Imperial Bank and other receipts.....	1,506,000
9. Receipts of various descriptions.....	6,692,487
10. From the imperial funds for invalids.....	32,098,512
11. Surplus of former years.....	16,668,286
12. Interest from invested capitals.....	4,759,635
13. Extraordinary receipts.....	52,975,315
14. Matricular contributions.....	81,670,950
Total.....	539,252,640

The expenditures of the empire were estimated as follows :

EXPENDITURES.	Ordinary.	Extraordinary.
1. Chancellor of the Empire and Imperial Chancery.....	118,870
2. Imperial Diet.....	352,580
3. Foreign Office.....	6,493,890	230,000
4. Imperial Office of the Interior.....	2,629,756	517,979
5. Administration of posts and telegraphs.....	8,459,150
6. Imperial army.....	825,915,066	85,973,814
7. Navy.....	25,598,289	18,659,450
8. Administration of Justice.....	1,676,585	224,000
9. Imperial Treasury.....	43,785,646	8,881,760
10. Railroad Office of the Empire.....	262,260
11. Interest on the debt of the empire.....	9,002,500	128,500
12. Chamber of Accounts.....	460,618	20,000
13. Administration of railroads.....	8,124,411
14. Imperial printing-office.....	20,000
15. General pension funds.....	17,895,197
16. Expenditures arising from the war with France.....	792,766
17. Imperial invalid funds.....	32,098,512
18. Deficit of the financial year 1878-'79.....	5,987,592
Total.....	468,289,719	72,962,921

The public debt of the German Empire consists of three loans, one of 77,731,321 marks (authorized by the law of June 14, 1877), one of 97,484,865 marks (law of June 14, 1878), and one of 68,021,071 marks (law of June 13, 1879). Total debt, 243,237,257 marks = \$57,900,467. There is also a floating debt consisting of Treasury notes issued for short periods only. In accordance with the law of April 20, 1874, the Imperial Government has issued paper money (*Reichsbankenscheine*) to the amount of 120,000,000 marks, which has been distributed among the several states in proportion to their population on December 31, 1871. The same law authorized the issue of paper money to the amount of 54,889,940 marks to facilitate the carrying out of the reform in the coinage. Of this amount, 54,082,140 marks had been issued on April 1, 1880, and 14,637,280 had been withdrawn, leaving the paper money in circulation on that date 159,444,820 marks.

The following table gives the military forces of the empire in time of war (exclusive of the Landsturm) :

I. FIELD ARMY.			
DIVISIONS.	Officers.	Men.	Horses.
Higher staff.....	868	5,170	5,070
Infantry.....	10,328	463,564	20,060
Jägers.....	440	20,520	800
Cavalry.....	2,144	59,514	55,608
Artillery.....	2,388	82,460	81,702
Pioneers.....	599	21,720	9,739
Train.....	663	43,004	46,842
Administration.....	216	2,826	10,864
Total.....	17,591	699,078	230,685
II. RESERVES.			
DIVISIONS.	Officers.	Men.	Horses.
Substitutes of the staff.....	875	1,836	820
Infantry.....	2,886	212,630	1,059
Jägers.....	80	6,360	20
Cavalry.....	465	23,994	19,717
Artillery.....	396	16,422	5,980
Pioneers.....	89	6,281	24
Train.....	247	12,287	3,990
Total.....	4,598	280,210	81,000

* In 1878.

III. GARRISON.

DIVISIONS.	Officers.	Men.	Horses.
Offices *	850	10,000	1,850
Infantry.....	7,596	814,438	2,513
Jägers.....	80	4,020	20
Cavalry.....	828	22,968	25,890
Artillery.....	1,370	54,565	8,114
Pioneers.....	128	6,492
Total garrison.....	11,152	412,723	87,877
“ reserves.....	4,588	280,210	31,000
“ field army.....	17,591	699,078	230,685
Grand total.....	33,331	1,892,011	299,562

The military forces of the empire in time of peace are as follows:

DIVISIONS.	Officers.	Men.	Horses.
1. Staff.....	1,994	4
Infantry of the line.....	8,579	259,013
Chasseurs.....	424	11,148
Landwehr.....	348	4,622
2. Infantry.....	9,651	274,783
3. Cavalry.....	2,358	64,709	62,591
Field artillery.....	1,629	30,737	14,845
Foot artillery.....	683	13,159
4. Artillery.....	2,312	45,896	14,845
5. Pioneers.....	394	10,324
6. Train.....	200	5,000	2,457
7. Particular formations.....	311	943
Total.....	17,220	401,659	79,893

These numbers are distributed among the states as follows:

STATES.	Officers.	Men.	Horses.
Prussia (inclusive of smaller states).....	13,311	311,423	62,757
Bavaria.....	2,133	48,244	8,726
Saxony.....	1,012	24,208	5,055
Württemberg.....	764	17,784	3,355
Total.....	17,220	401,659	79,893

According to a law passed on May 6, 1880, the army on a peace footing, exclusive of officers and volunteers, shall consist of 427,274 men. Since the Franco-German war the fortress system of Germany has been entirely re-modeled, and a number of old fortified places deemed useless have been abolished, and many new ones erected, and others enlarged. The Empire is at present divided into the following nine “fortress-districts” (Festungs-Inspectionen), each including a certain area with fortified places: Königsberg, Dantzic, Posen, Berlin, Mayence, Metz, Cologne, Altona, Munich. In 1880, the Empire had 17 fortified places of the first class, serving as fortified camps, and 26 other fortresses. Works for enlarging six of the fortresses were in hand.

The German navy was composed as follows in 1879:

* Including Ministry of War, offices of commanding generals, etc.

VESSELS.	Number.	Guns.	Tons.	Horse-power.
I. Afloat.				
1. Steamers—ironclads:				
Frigates.....	7	85	80,754	48,100
Corvettes.....	4	26	17,474	19,800
Batteries.....	1	4	1,230	1,200
Gunboats.....	8	5	6,272	5,600
Total ironclads.....	19	122	54,946	69,000
Frigates.....	13	195	29,600	32,600
Corvettes.....	7	62	9,321	10,800
Dispatch-boats.....	3	4	1,768	2,150
Ships of the line.....	2	46	6,318	4,200
Imperial yachts.....	2	5	1,993	3,650
Gunboats.....	15	50	5,537	5,850
Torpedo-vessels.....	10	4	2,000	3,550
Transport-steamers.....	2	..	425	320
2. Sailing-vessels:				
Frigates.....	1	10	1,052
Brigs.....	3	18	1,708
Total.....	78	517	114,998	132,250
II. IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.				
1. Iron-clad corvette.....	1	6	5,034	5,600
2. Corvettes.....	4	40	7,508	8,400
3. Iron-clad gunboats.....	3	3	2,352	2,100
Total.....	8	49	14,894	16,100

The commercial navy was composed as follows in 1879:

STATES.	TOTAL VESSELS.		STEAMERS.		
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	Horse-power.
Prussia.....	3,259	491,602	147	33,982	10,877
Hamburg.....	464	218,654	100	75,029	15,622
Bremen.....	292	234,337	66	59,900	23,138
Mecklenburg.....	398	112,350	10	4,069	1,112
Oldenburg.....	347	61,998
Lübeck.....	44	9,688	28	6,682	1,564
North Sea fleet.....	2,754	673,071	181	137,117	39,880
Baltic fleet.....	2,050	456,058	170	42,545	12,438
Total 1879.....	4,504	1,129,129	351	179,662	52,313
“ 1878.....	4,505	1,117,935	336	138,379	50,603
“ 1877.....	4,509	1,103,550	313	130,946	49,575
“ 1876.....	4,745	1,084,882	319	138,569	50,756
“ 1875.....	4,602	1,068,383	299	139,998	48,422

The movements of shipping in the German ports in 1878 were as follows:

STATES.	TOTAL VESSELS.		STEAMERS.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
<i>Entered.</i>				
Prussia.....	39,279	3,396,927	7,630	1,797,448
Hamburg.....	4,370	2,231,245	2,965	1,768,008
Bremen.....	2,202	775,300	503	456,245
Lübeck.....	2,251	302,634	1,027	202,833
Oldenburg.....	2,285	138,023	54	13,505
Mecklenburg.....	1,226	110,698	203	33,145
Total.....	52,413	6,957,589	12,382	4,271,489
<i>Cleared.</i>				
Prussia.....	39,589	3,365,777	7,606	1,796,435
Hamburg.....	5,078	2,264,214	2,979	1,776,735
Bremen.....	2,244	765,785	495	447,021
Lübeck.....	2,233	299,994	1,023	203,242
Oldenburg.....	2,726	148,532	52	14,236
Mecklenburg.....	1,189	107,603	201	34,020
Total.....	52,059	6,951,710	12,361	4,271,659

The German Customs Union includes the entire German Empire, with the exception of the free ports of Bremen, Hamburg, Bremer-

haven, Geestemünde, Brake, and a small part of Baden, in all 390 square kilometres, with 594,750 inhabitants. It also includes the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg and the Austrian community of Jungholz. The imports and exports for 1878 in the customs territory of Germany were estimated as follows (value in marks—1 mark = \$0.238):

CLASSES OF GOODS.	Imports, 1878.	Exports, 1878.
Grain.....	612,000,000	375,000,000
Malt and other liquors.....	58,700,000	68,000,000
Colonial produce.....	202,000,000	117,600,000
Tobacco and cigars.....	106,600,000	10,900,000
Seeds and fruits.....	138,000,000	72,900,000
Animals and animal provisions...	396,600,000	371,000,000
1. Articles of food.....	1,513,900,000	1,010,400,000
Fuel.....	59,500,000	93,500,000
Minerals and ores.....	76,700,000	92,200,000
Raw metals.....	65,400,000	82,100,000
Hair, hides, and leather.....	176,300,000	93,100,000
Spinning material.....	587,000,000	228,900,000
Wood and timber.....	183,100,000	70,100,000
2. Raw material.....	1,148,000,000	664,900,000
Pottery and glassware.....	12,900,000	52,700,000
Metals.....	21,000,000	86,500,000
Metal ware.....	25,300,000	60,500,000
Machines and vessels.....	54,700,000	92,300,000
Leather, etc.....	18,000,000	58,200,000
Yarn.....	141,700,000	67,300,000
Cordage, woven goods, and cloth	123,200,000	410,900,000
Caoutchouc and wax goods.....	6,500,000	16,500,000
Paper.....	6,400,000	25,600,000
Wood and carvings.....	16,700,000	40,100,000
Jewelry and art goods.....	13,900,000	56,000,000
Manuscripts, articles for printing.	10,200,000	16,500,000
3. Manufactured goods.....	450,400,000	988,200,000
4. Miscellaneous goods.....	401,400,000	228,600,000
5. Precious metals.....	209,000,000	29,400,000
Total.....	3,738,900,000	2,916,500,000

The result of last agricultural census showed that there were in the Empire 3,352,231 horses, 13,315 mules and donkeys, 15,776,702 head of cattle, 24,999,706 sheep, 7,124,088 swine, 2,320,002 goats, and 2,333,484 bee-hives. The number of families possessing live-stock was found to be 5,028,023.

The total length of railroads of Germany, open for traffic, was as follows on April 1, 1880 (in kilometres—1 kilometre = 0.62 mile):

STATES.	
Prussia.....	20,680.91
Bavaria.....	4,795.09
Saxony.....	2,080.85
Württemberg.....	1,504.22
Alsace-Lorraine.....	1,208.86
Baden.....	1,813.04
Hesse.....	880.56
Oldenburg.....	318.46
Schaumburg-Lippe.....	24.38
Saxe-Meiningen.....	191.10
Hamburg.....	18.96
Bremen.....	104.89
Saxe-Weimar.....	209.67
Brunswick.....	366.04
Mecklenburg.....	354.95
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.....	26.40
Saxe-Altenburg.....	8.60
Total.....	34,039.00

In regard to their administration and importance these roads were divided as follows:

STATE ROADS.		PRIVATE ROADS			
		Under state administration.		Under their own administration.	
Main.	Local.	Main.	Local.	Main.	Local.
20,081.81	2,248.03	8,482.29	434.91	7,131.10	711.29

The postal statistics of the empire, according to the latest official publications, were as follows:

CLASSES OF ARTICLES.	Imperial mail, 1879.	Bavaria, 1878.	Württemberg, 1878.	Total.
Letter-mail.....	1,213,189,483	160,163,889	49,446,384	1,422,800,000
Parcel and money mail.....	66,580,720	16,062,860	3,201,943	85,800,000
Total number of articles sent.....	1,279,770,203	176,226,749	52,648,282	1,508,600,000
Aggregate value of money-letters (in marks)....	13,151,574,959	998,270,796	365,559,088	14,515,400,000
Total weight of parcels sent (in kilogrammes)....	251,801,560	32,499,277	10,089,439	294,300,000

The extent of electric telegraphs (in kilometres) and the amount of their business are shown in the following table:

LINES AND DISPATCHES.	Imperial telegraph, 1879.	Bavaria, 1878.	Württemberg, 1878.	Total.
Lines.....	55,952	8,094.27	2,633.1	66,679
Wires.....	196,353	34,141.24	7,082.6	237,527
Number of state stations.....	5,114	990	363	6,467
Number of railway stations.....	2,738 } 7,852	27 } 1,017		9,232
1. Private dispatches.....	8,831,742	767,898	269,866	9,869,506
2. Official dispatches.....	320,277	79,818	125,420	525,515
3. International dispatches:				
Sent.....	1,975,019			
Received.....	1,967,259			
4. Transit dispatches.....	383,941	989,720	500,089	5,515,978
Total 1879.....	12,978,238			
Total 1878.....	11,682,371	1,897,436	893,325	15,710,999

The German Parliament was opened on February 12th, by Count Stolberg, the Vice-Presi-

dent of the Prussian Ministry, who read the Emperor's speech. It was stated in the speech

from the throne that an increase in the contributions from the various states would be required, as well as a loan, to meet the most urgent items of expenditure. A large portion of the speech was devoted to the increase of the army, which was declared to be without prejudice to the pacific tendency of the policy of the empire. The Reichstag, it was added, would be asked to prolong for a fitting period the new Socialist law, which would expire in March, 1881. At the conclusion of the speech, Herr von Frankenstein, former Vice-President of the Reichstag, called for cheers for the Emperor, in which all the members heartily joined. Next day the Parliament elected its President and Vice-Presidents: Count Arnim-Boitzenburg, belonging to the Imperial German party, was chosen President by 154 out of 244 valid votes; Herr von Bennigsen, National Liberal, receiving 89 votes. Herr von Frankenstein, of the Center, was elected first Vice-President, and Herr Hoelder, National Liberal, second Vice-President. As the latter declined, Herr Ackermann, of the German Conservative party, was elected, receiving 102 out of 202 votes.

The most important bill of the session was the Army Bill. It had been submitted to the Federal Council in January, and its contents had then become known. It demanded a prolongation of the military law of 1874 for seven years more, an increase of the army by eleven new regiments of infantry, one regiment of field-artillery, thirty-two field-batteries, one regiment of foot-artillery, and one battalion of pioneers, and besides the means for the regular convocation of the "Ersatz-Reserves" for several manœuvres. The additional expenditures required by these changes would amount to about 17,000,000 francs annually, and to 27,000,000 more for the first introduction. The general discussion of the bill began on March 1st. The Minister of War positively denied that the proposed increase of the German army had its origin in the expectation of imminent war. Count Moltke spoke in the same sense. He delivered on this occasion one of the longest speeches he had ever made. Having briefly reviewed the causes of recent wars, he showed that Germany must yet bear for a long time the heavy burdens imposed upon it by its geographical position and historical development. Besides, there was the constant augmentation of the hosts of Russia and France, each of which had now a much larger peace force than Germany. He sincerely grieved that stern necessity compelled the imposition of fresh sacrifices on the German nation, but it was only by sacrifices and heavy labor that Germany again became a nation. The credit of a state reposed exclusively upon the security of that state, and how would all the credit relations of Germany be shaken were the continuance of the empire even but doubted! Since the decline of imperial German power, Germany had been the battle-field for all oth-

er powers. Swedes, Frenchmen, and Germans once transformed Germany into a desert for more than half a century. And were not the ruins which later still were heaped upon the Neckar, on the Rhine, and deep within the bosom of the land, permanent monuments of the previous weakness of Germany and of the masterfulness of its neighbors? Who would wish to recall the days when, at the imperious behest of an alien lord, German contingents took the field against Germany? "Let us defend," Count Moltke concluded, "above all things, the safety and honor of the empire, our long yearned for and finally achieved unity. Let us continue to be at peace as long as we may, and even also preserve it abroad as far as lies in our power. In this effort we shall, perhaps, not stand alone, but find allies. Therein lies a menace to no one, but surely a pledge rather of peaceful existence in our part of the world, always presupposing, of course, that we are strong and in arms. For with weak forces, and armies liable to quit on a given warning, this aim can not be reached, and the fate of each nation lies in its own strength."

Herr von Bennigsen, leader of the National Liberals, declared, in the name of his political friends, that they would support the bill in its essential provisions. Professor Treitschke, the distinguished historian, wound up a patriotic speech with the words, "We will threaten no one, but our neighbors must know that if any one should dare to attack us, we are all one, a host valiant in arms, a strong people." Count von Frankenberg, a Conservative, referred to the dangers which threaten Germany from France and Russia, and to the Austro-German agreement which he said was "intensely popular in Germany as a pledge of European peace." Dr. Windthorst, the leader of the Catholic Center, declared his readiness to support all the reforms which were proved to be necessary, but this had not been done with regard to the proposed army reform. Herr Bebel, representing the Social-Democrats, declaimed on the crying evils of the military system. The bill was then, on motion of Herr Bennigsen, referred to a special committee of twenty-one, which adopted clause one, fixing the strength of the army on a peace footing from 1881 to 1888, with the proviso that, instead of one per cent. of the population, the number of men shall be fixed at 427,274. Clause two, increasing the *cadres*, was adopted without alteration; and clause three, requiring the reserve of the first class to come up for drill, was agreed to with some modifications. The second reading of the bill took place on April 9th and 10th, and the third reading on the 15th. The leading men of all the parties took an active part in the debate, which was the most important one of the session. The arguments against the adoption of the bill represented the foreign relations as free from any serious danger, and regarded a bill which demanded a grant for seven years in advance, as a new in-

fringement of parliamentary rights, which even now were more limited in Germany than in other constitutional monarchies; they also called attention to the additional burden which its adoption would impose upon a heavily taxed people. The Progressist party and the Center showed themselves unanimously opposed to the bill, the chief speaker of the former being Herr Richter, and of the latter Freiherr von Schorlemer-Alst. The Conservative parties were a unit in favor of the bill. The declaration of Herr Bennigsen, the leader of the National Liberals, that a majority of his friends would vote for the Government, assured the latter of success. In the name of this party Herr Dernburg and Herr Rickert spoke eloquently for the bill, but among the dissenters were some of the most prominent and influential men of the party, especially Herren von Stauffenberg, Bamberger, and Lasker. Herr Richter moved an amendment to the effect that the number of men with the colors should be fixed annually in the military budget; that the one-year volunteers should be included in that number; and, finally, that the Imperial Chancellor should be called upon to present a bill in the course of next session limiting the term of service of the infantry to two years. The motion was supported by the Progressists, the Center party, and a few National Liberals; but it was ultimately rejected. Herr von Stauffenberg next proposed to restrict the operation of the Army Bill to three years, but this motion was also lost by 180 votes to 104. Paragraphs one and two, fixing the peace strength of the army to March 31, 1888, at 427,270 men, were then adopted by 186 to 96 votes. During the debate Herr von Kamecke, the Minister of War, declared that the bill owed its origin not only to the present political situation, but to reasons of a lasting character. A permanent military budget could alone give the army stability and confidence in itself. Herr Rickert, who spoke at considerable length, ended his address by declaring that the strengthening of the army was of the highest importance to the nation, and must not be made a party question. There existed in Germany no party which wished to weaken the defensive power of the Fatherland, and it was the desire of the whole nation to uphold with a mighty hand the possessions which Germany had acquired, and to maintain peace. A resolution proposed by Herr Bühler, urging the Imperial Chancellor to bring about a congress of states with a view of promoting a general disarmament, was almost unanimously rejected. Herr Bühler had previously had a correspondence on the subject with Prince Bismarck, who wrote: "I regret being too much occupied with urgent and practical concerns to have any time left for the contingencies of a future which I am afraid neither of us will live to see. Only after you have won our neighbors for your plans shall I or any other German Chancellor be in a position to attend to such like suggestions in relation to this coun-

try and its purely and permanently defensive position. But even then I fear nations will find it difficult to supervise each other's military preparations, and to create a board able and willing to exercise and enforce an effectual military control." On April 16th the bill was adopted by 186 to 128 votes.

Next to the Military Bill, the Emperor's speech had specified the bill for the prolongation of the anti-Socialist law of 1878 as one which the Government regarded as important. The committee appointed by the Reichstag to report on the bill decided, by ten votes against three, to prolong its operation until September 30, 1884, instead of 1886, as proposed by the Government. The discussion of the second reading was begun on April 17th. The Socialists had allotted to each member of their fraction the task of moving for the abrogation of successive clauses of the bill. Foreseeing, however, the protracted struggle which would result from this mode of warfare, the Reichstag, on motion of Herr Winnigerode, resolved to combine all the seven motions of the repealers, promising, however, to listen to their specially prepared arguments. Accordingly, Herr Wiener spoke against the unfair application of the Socialist law with regard to the right of public meeting; Herr Fritzsche declaimed on the suppression of coöperative societies; Herr Hasenclever delivered an angry philippic on the vexatious restraints which had been imposed by the police on certain prints alleged by them to have a democratic taint; and Herr Debel indignantly protested against the contradictory way in which electoral meetings had been either forbidden or scattered. On a division the combined amendments of the Socialists were rejected by an overwhelming majority, being only supported by a few Progressists. The Reichstag also rejected two separate amendments of the leader of the Center, Dr. Windthorst—the first to the effect that the Reichsgericht, or Imperial High Court, should be substituted for the Reichsbeschwerde Commission, or Tribunal of Appeal, for such as deemed themselves aggrieved through the operation of the Socialist law; the second aiming at exempting electoral meetings from its scope. In support of the former, Dr. Windthorst pointed to England, where much sounder views on the subject prevailed, full and free discussion being permitted in the confidence that the power of truth would prevail. Hence, too, all expelled leaders of the Socialist movement fled to London, whence he was convinced that the whole agitation here was conducted—an assertion which elicited an emphatic protest from the ranks of the Socialists. The speaker then went on to descant on the evils resulting from the prevention of free discussion, winding up with an allusion to the "Culturkampf," and the efficacy of a free Christian Church in combating the evils which the Government vainly sought to exterminate by dictatorial force. Bebel threatened with the imminence of a terrible

revolution if the people were deprived of all their rights, and debarred from the possibility of executing their plans by legal means. The act was then adopted by 191 against 94 votes, with some slight modifications, particularly one which protects Social-Democrats who are elected to any of the state Legislatures.

A bill introduced by the Prussian Government for granting a subsidy to the German Marine Commercial Company, lately formed on the ruins of the enterprise started by Messrs. Godeffroy, of Hamburg, also called forth on April 21st an animated discussion, as it was regarded as a new attempt of the Imperial Chancellor to inaugurate a colonial policy. The bill empowered the Chancellor to guarantee a maximum sum of 10,000,000 marks to the shareholding company aforesaid, formed in Berlin in January, toward insuring a net annual profit of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the invested capital, but under the condition that the amount thus to be granted from the Imperial Treasury toward the payment of the dividends should not exceed three per cent. of the paid-up capital. Deputy Mosle ardently supported the measure, in the interest of German commerce, navigation, industry, science, missionary enterprise, etc., making copious reference to long personal experience of things in the latitude of Samoa. Herr Meyer, also relying on his knowledge of the South Seas, essayed to dissuade the House from countenancing the bill, scorning the apprehension that the English would seek to oust the Germans from the commercial footing they had already effected on the islands. Prince Hohenlohe, lately German ambassador in Paris, assured the Reichstag that the Government laid great stress on the measure, and would honestly regret its rejection. The numerous firms recently founded in Australia testified to the restless spirit of enterprise among the commercial classes of Germany. It was a well-known fact that trade with those South-Sea peoples only thrived on the savage tribes being impressed with the power of the nation with which they had to do. Trustworthy traders who had long lived among them asserted that the South-Sea Islanders had a very fine appreciative sense of the might of those countries having intercourse with them. The rejection of the bill would result in the German settlements in Samoa passing into other hands—settlements over which the German flag waved, and which came into life with a certain well-studied, and he might almost say well-justified, aim. This transition into other hands, the hauling down of the German colors, and the hoisting of the English, the American, or any other flag, would decidedly impress the population with the belief that Germany had suffered a defeat. This view might be erroneous, but they could not dispute that unthinking men would receive this impression. Traders averred that this result would again react on all the South-Sea Islands, and even make itself felt in Japan. The approval of the bill would

materially enhance the prestige of the empire and the commercial flag of Germany. The bill was also supported by Herr Georg von Bunsen, a National Liberal, and Prince von Hohenlohe-Langenburg, belonging to the Protestant branch of that family, of which the Paris ambassador is the Catholic head. One of the most effective speeches in behalf of the bill was made by Reuleaux, Federal Council Commissary, who had but lately returned from officially representing Germany at the Sydney Exhibition, and had ample opportunity while in Australia of gathering material on the subject of the South-Sea trade. Professor Reuleaux essayed to elucidate the commercial relations of Germany with Australia, and argued that vessels could only undertake successful voyages thither when, by the establishment and prosperity of the South-Sea Company, the opportunity of getting return freights was afforded them. Conversely, a firm connection being established with Samoa, German traders would be infinitely better able to compete with English exporters in Australia. On its becoming known out there that the Godeffroy firm was tottering, all English houses expressed themselves more or less loudly to the effect that the time was now come for again snatching from the Germans the trade in Polynesia, but their joy was turned into anger when they heard that the Imperial Government thought of protecting and promoting the commercial interests of its subjects in the South Seas. All parliamentary proceedings on the subject were wired to Sydney and read with great suspense. After further describing the watchful jealousy of English traders in the South Seas, Professor Reuleaux wound up by saying that the bill, if passed, would stretch a net of commercial relations all over the archipelago, and animate their connection with Australia, while enormous difficulties in that respect would drop up if the company were not promoted and direct communication with the islands established. The most powerful speech against the Government bill was made by Dr. Bamberger (Liberal), who compared the present project to the notorious South-Sea Company, founded in London in 1710, and asked the House to reject it, which the House soon thereafter did by 128 votes against 112, the majority including the Center, the Progressists, and some of the National Liberals.

The revised Elbe Navigation Act, concluded between Germany and Austria on March 7th, led to complicated and angry discussions which involved the constitutional rights of the Federal Council and called forth a long speech from Prince Bismarck. The Government of Prussia had made a motion in the Federal Council to separate Altona and the suburb of St. Pauli from the free-port territory of Hamburg, and to include them within the Customs Union. The Government of Hamburg regarded this as a danger to their free-port position, but all the efforts on the part of the Ham-

burg Senate and the deputies of the Hanse cities in the Reichstag to effect a compromise with the Chancellor proved unavailing. On May 6th Prince Bismarck addressed a circular note to all the representatives of Prussia accredited to the federal courts of the empire. Alluding to the conflict of opinion between Hamburg and Prussia which would inevitably result from a formal interpretation of Article XXXIV of the Constitution by a majority in the Federal Council, the Prince points out the detriment which would accrue to certain Prussian subjects from the present formation of the Hamburg free-port district. As Reichskanzler it was incumbent on him to be cognizant of the constitutional rights of the Bundesrath, and to represent all the allied Governments in their exercise thereof, and not only seek to counteract particular efforts on the part of the various states, but also centralizing tendencies of the Federal Council in abridging its constitutional rights in favor of Parliament. The Prussian Government, the Prince then proceeded to say, demanded the separation of Altona and other Prussian territory from the free-port district of Hamburg, its justification being that these parts were not necessary to the fulfillment of the ends of Hamburg as a guaranteed Hanse city, and there being apparent a unanimity on that point in the Bundesrath on the proposition of Altona to propose the new line of frontier which the Federal Council would have to decide upon, and he opined that it would not be difficult to form such a resolution without creating a conflict over the interpretation of the Constitution. The Chancellor then said: "Those Governments which believe that, by the separation of St. Pauli from the free-port territory, a constitutional right is infringed, or even affected, can vote against this line; and the customs frontier, if they form a majority, will then coincide with the territorial boundary between Hamburg and Prussia. But should, in the opinion of Prussia, an erroneous interpretation of the Constitution be alleged in justification of the vote, it will also be necessary for Prussia, on the other hand, to stand up for the proper reading thereof; and in that case I can not advise my most gracious master, in his quality of German Emperor, to waive his undoubted duty of upholding the Constitution." Dr. Lasker wished to procure a declaration from the Reichstag that Article XXXIV of the Constitution did not permit the Federal Council to approve the proposal of Prussia without the consent of the city of Hamburg. The Reichstag would, however, not consent to his desire to bring in his motion on May 8th. On the other hand, the committee of the Reichstag to which the Navigation Act had been referred proposed a resolution that a change of the Customs Union frontier could only by constitutional right be effected by a law passed by Parliament in the usual way, and not by the Federal Council alone. On May 8th Prince Bismarck appeared in the Reichs-

tag after ten months' absence, and made a long speech in support of the Elbe Navigation Act. He said that he had no wish to deprive the free port of Hamburg of any of its rights, but that he considered the arrangement of the customs boundary was exclusively in the hands of the Federal Council, and that the Parliament had nothing whatever to do with it. He complained bitterly of the attempts made to sow dissensions among the German states, said that such attempts endangered German unity, and concluded by asserting that he was tired to death of the opposition he had to meet with at every turn, and that, if the obstacles proved too great, he should beg the Emperor to relieve him of his post, and appoint some one who would be able to satisfy all parties. Dr. Wolfson, member for Hamburg, replied to Prince Bismarck, and defended the proposal of the committee. Herr von Windthorst said that the Center did not oppose the Government from a spirit of opposition, but they supported the empire on the bases of the federative Constitution. At the day sitting on Monday the debate on the second reading of the Elbe Navigation Act was proceeded with, and, after a discussion extending over seven hours, the House rejected, by 125 votes to 123, a motion of Herr von Bennigsen to refer the bill back to the committee, and also threw out, by 138 votes to 110, the declaratory resolution of the committee to the effect that the Elbe frontier line could not be removed to a point lower down the river, except by a special bill. The Reichstag finally agreed to the second reading, and resolved to take the third reading at an evening sitting. On the House reassembling, Herr von Windthorst, the leader of the Center, brought forward a motion in favor of referring the bill back to the committee, which was ultimately agreed to. In June, after the adjournment of the Reichstag, the Federal Council passed the resolutions moved by the Prussian Government for the inclusion of the lower Elbe in the Customs Union by an all but unanimous vote. The representative of the free city of Hamburg was the only dissident.

On May 10th, after a review of the work of the session, made by the President, Count Arnim-Boitzenburg, Count Stolberg, the Vice-Chancellor, read a message from the Emperor closing the session.

A few weeks before, in April, Prince Bismarck had once more tendered his resignation as Imperial Chancellor, in consequence of a vote come to in the Federal Council on the Imperial Stamp Duties Bill. On this occasion Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony had been outvoted by a combination of the small states under the leadership of Wurtemberg. The Emperor William, in a Cabinet order, while recognizing the difficulties of Prince Bismarck's position, declined to relieve him of his office, and called upon him to prepare proposals for bringing about a constitutional solution of such a conflict of duties as led to the recent resigna-

tion. On May 12th the German Federal Council adopted a resolution declaring receipts for post-office orders and remittances liable to a stamp-duty, thus reversing the previous vote which led to the resignation of Prince Bismarck.

On April 20th an International Fishery Exhibition was opened at Berlin by the Crown Prince of Germany. The ceremony was attended by Prince Frederick Charles, several Ministers of State, and many of the principal functionaries of the empire and members of the Federal Council and the Reichstag. Nearly all the members of the foreign diplomatic body were also present. The Prussian Minister of Agriculture, Dr. Lucius, addressed the Crown Prince on the origin and aims of the Exhibition. The German Fishery Society, called into existence by his Highness, had in 1873 inaugurated a display of native achievements in the piscatorial art; and, encouraged by the success of their endeavors, the committee had now ventured on a bolder flight, and invited the participation of all nations in the scheme. In doing this they had an eye no less to the economical than to the scientific side of the question. He gratefully acknowledged that the Fishery Society had met with the most obliging support, not only in Germany itself but in nearly all the neighboring countries and even in the farthestmost zones of the earth. From the Baltic and the German Ocean, the ice-bound seas of the North, from the coasts of Holland and England, from the Swiss lakes, from the exhaustless riches of the Mediterranean, from the Volga and the Black Sea, from North and South America, from the coasts of the far East, from India, China, Japan, and the Malay Archipelago, the fauna of the waters had been brought in rare and wonderful profusion, with an endless variety of pearls, shells, and corals. Alluding then to the innumerable kinds of instruments and devices for catching, curing, and rearing fish sent for exhibition, the Minister wound up with an eloquent peroration on the profit derivable from such an international competition, and trusted that, among other things, it might result in gradually directing the attention of all classes of the population in Germany to fish-products as the cheapest article of food. Sections of the Exhibition were allotted to Germany, England, America (North and South), Italy, Holland, Russia, Denmark, Norway and Sweden, China, and Japan, and each of these Governments, with the exception of England, gave a government grant in connection with the competition of their fishing industries, sending one or two commissioners to Berlin to look after their interests. An idea of the extent and variety of the Exhibition may be obtained from the enumeration of the various classes, which comprised aquatic animals: fishing gear, craft, tackle, and machinery; pisciculture; appliances for keeping and conveying fish; the preparation and preservation of fish; fishermen's dwellings and costumes; physico-

chemical researches; the history and the literature of fishing. The prizes awarded to the various exhibitors in the Fishery Exhibition at Berlin were distributed on June 17th by the Crown Prince. To the United States, which sent a fine national collection of piscatorial articles, a large share of honor fell, Professor Spencer Baird, of Washington, having also received the first honorary prize offered by the empire.

An exhibition of manufactures, agriculture, forestry, and the fine arts, was opened at Düsseldorf on May 9th. It was the largest ever held in Germany, and the products exhibited were of exclusively German origin. The opening ceremony was conducted by the Crown Prince of Germany. The entire Exhibition was divided into twenty-two groups, including agriculture with forestry, mines, smelting machinery, metallic industry, chemical products, alimentary products, earthenware and glass, timber and wood-work, small wares, textile industries, ready-made clothing, leather and India-rubber goods, paper manufactures, polygraphic trades, scientific instruments, musical instruments, building and engineering, educational books and appliances, and modern art industry, as well as a valuable collection of objects of old art industry, and finally one of the greatest exhibitions of modern paintings ever held in Germany or Austria. The number of exhibitors was altogether about four thousand. The building cost \$200,000, and this sum did not include the eighty annexes, the construction of which was defrayed by the exhibitors themselves. Krupp's annex was among the more striking curiosities of the Exhibition; near it an immense one-hundred-ton gun, with all the late improvements, attracted crowds of visitors.

The relations of Germany to all foreign countries were of a friendly nature. The alliance with Austria did not only remain undisturbed throughout the year, but was greatly strengthened. The meeting of the Emperors of the two countries at Ischl, on August 10th, was generally believed to have been highly satisfactory. Nearly all the political parties of Germany were agreed in regarding a close alliance with Austria as most profitable for the interests of Germany. In the further development of the Eastern question (see EASTERN QUESTION) Germany took a leading part, and the supplementary conference of the great powers, which was to settle the remaining difficulties of Turkey with Montenegro and Greece, again met at Berlin. The German ambassador at Constantinople, Count Hatzfeld, acquired by the successful management of difficult negotiations the reputation of a diplomatist of consummate ability. The commercial treaties with Austria, Switzerland, and Belgium were renewed until June 30, 1881.

The German military manœuvres which took place in August were of the most imposing character. They were visited by Crown Prince Rudolph of Austria, the King and Queen of the Hellenes, the Duke of Cambridge, the Duke and

Duchess of Connaught, the Grand Dukes of Hesse and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and a number of distinguished foreign officers. The appearance of the troops was a subject of general admiration.

The birth of a son, on October 28th, to the Duke of Cumberland, the claimant to the throne of Hanover, caused great jubilation among the Guelphs. The Duke of Brunswick greatly displeased the Prussian Court by sending a congratulatory telegram to the Guelphs in the city of Hanover who celebrated the event.

The split which had for some time existed in the National-Liberal party with regard to the policy of Prince Bismarck, led in August to the secession of a considerable number of members of the Imperial Parliament and Prussian Diet from the ranks of the party. A declaration to that effect was published at Berlin, on August 30th, signed by twenty eight members of the two Assemblies. The "Secessionists," as they were called, declare in their manifesto their intention to uphold the political liberties already achieved, and to adhere to the principles of freedom of commerce and reform of the imperial system of taxation, rejecting unnecessary burdens and indirect taxes, especially those which press heavily upon the poorer classes. They also insist upon ecclesiastical and religious freedom being guaranteed by independent state legislation, protecting the inalienable rights of the state. Among those who signed the manifesto were Herr von Forckenbeck, formerly President of the Reichstag, Herr von Stauffenberg, formerly first Vice-President of the Reichstag, Dr. Bamberger and Herr Rickert. At the close of the year the "Secessionists" numbered thirty. Their political position is half-way between the National-Liberal and the Progressist parties.

On October 15th Germany celebrated the formal consecration and opening of the Cologne Cathedral. The Emperor and Empress, the Crown Prince and the Crown Princess, the King of Saxony, and several other German sovereigns were present on the occasion, but all the leaders of the Catholic party remained demonstratively absent. A petition of prominent Catholics of the Rhenish provinces and Westphalia, for the recall of the exiled Archbishop of Cologne to his see on the occasion of the cathedral festival, was not granted.

GIFFORD, SANDFORD ROBINSON, N. A., landscape painter, was born in Greenfield, Saratoga County, New York, in 1823. His youth was passed at Hudson, where his mind must have been early imbued with those beautiful combinations of river and sky which he studied later to reproduce. He entered at Brown University in 1842, but during his second year he left college and went to New York to devote himself to art. He studied under John R. Smith, one of the best teachers and water-color painters of that day. His canvases show that he was a disciple of Cole. In 1851 he became an Associate of the National Academy, and in 1854 a member. In 1855 and 1856 he

was abroad, and his careful study of the best models produced a steady growth in his own powers. The war interrupted his work. He was a member of the Seventh Regiment, volunteered with it, and shared its history in camp and field. Some fine sketches of bivouac and battle are reminiscences of this experience. His first exhibition at the Academy of Design was in 1847, "A Lake Scene on the Catskills." His last were, in this year, "Ruins of the Parthenon" and "Sunrise on the Matterhorn"—well worthy of his maturer fame. He sent to the Paris Exposition (1867) "Home in the Wilderness" and "Twilight on Mount Hunter." At the Centennial Exhibition, Philadelphia, he was represented by "Lake Geneva"; "Pallanza"; "Fishing-Boats in the Adriatic"; "Sunrise on the Seashore"; "Tivoli," and a canvas glowing with golden tints, "San Giorgio, Venice," which was also shown at the Paris Exposition of 1878, together with "Mount Renier." In 1868, Mr. Gifford returned to Europe. In 1870 he journeyed through the Rocky Mountains. In the early summer of 1880 he traveled to Lake Superior in search of health, but the benefit was temporary, and after his return to New York he died, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

GLADSTONE,* WILLIAM EWART, First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer in the new Liberal Cabinet formed in 1880, was born December 29, 1809. After graduating at Oxford, where he took a double first class, in 1831, he contested in the following year Newark in the Conservative interest, and sat for that borough until December, 1845. He was only twenty-five years of age when Sir Robert Peel appointed him to a Junior Lordship of the Treasury, and three months later he became Under-Secretary for the Colonies, retaining that post until his ministerial leader went out of office, in April, 1835. On Sir Robert Peel returning to power in 1841, Mr. Gladstone accepted the appointment of Vice-President of the Council and Master of the Mint. In 1843 he exchanged the former office for the presidency of the Board of Trade in succession to the Earl of Ripon. In 1845 he succeeded the late Earl of Derby in the Secretaryship for the Colonies; but shortly after resigned the office and his seat, and remained out of Parliament until the general election of 1847, when he was returned for the University of Oxford. Finding himself opposed to his colleagues on the questions of university reform and the removal of Jewish disabilities, Mr. Gladstone in 1851 separated himself from the body of the Conservative party, and at the general election of that year succeeded in regaining his seat only after a severe contest. In December, 1852, he joined the "Coalition" Ministry of Lord Aberdeen as Chancellor of the

* A sketch of Mr. Gladstone's political and literary life was published in the "Annual Cyclopaedia" for 1871. In the following lines we reproduce the leading events in the political life of the new English Premier, and add an account of his life since 1871.

Exchequer, which position he resigned in 1855, soon after the reconstruction of the Cabinet by Lord Palmerston. In the winter of 1858-59 he was employed on a special mission to the Ionian Islands. In June, 1859, Mr. Gladstone resumed office under Lord Palmerston as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and when Lord Palmerston died he retained the chancellorship under the late Earl Russell and also assumed the leadership of the House of Commons. At the general elections of 1865 Mr. Gladstone was rejected by the University of Oxford, but obtained a seat in South Lancashire. In June, 1866, the Government being defeated in committee on the Reform Bill, Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues resigned. He lost his seat in Lancashire at the general election of 1868, but was returned for Greenwich by a large majority, and, on the resignation of Mr. Disraeli's Ministry, Mr. Gladstone succeeded him as Premier. In 1873 the Government sustained a serious defeat in the rejection of the Irish University Education Bill, and Mr. Gladstone tendered his resignation; but Mr. Disraeli declining to take office, he was commissioned by the Queen to reconstruct the Cabinet. Mr. Gladstone undertook the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, in addition to his office as First Lord of the Treasury, retaining the dual position until the adverse verdict of the constituencies in 1874 caused the resignation of the Ministry. Soon after his retirement from office, Mr. Gladstone formally announced, in a letter to Earl Granville, his resignation of the leadership of the Liberal party, which was transferred to the Marquis of Hartington. He devoted the leisure thus gained to literature, and, by a number of controversial essays and newspaper articles, took an active part in the leading questions of the day. The pamphlets published by him in 1874 and 1875, on the conflict between the States of Europe and the Roman Catholic Church ("The Vatican Decrees in their Bearing on Civil Allegiance"; "Vaticanism, an Answer to Reproofs and Replies," 1875; "Rome and the Newest Fashion in Religion," 1875), were translated into several foreign languages and found a wide circulation. In 1876 he published his famous pamphlet on "Bulgarian Horrors and the Question of the East," which exerted a decisive influence upon public opinion in England. About the same time he published a large work on Homer, entitled "Homeric Synchronism; an Inquiry into the Time and Place of Homer" (London, 1876). At the general election of 1880 he was returned both for the borough of Leeds and for Edinburghshire. The former he resigned in favor of his son Herbert, who was elected in his stead. Mr. Gladstone married, in 1839, Catharine, eldest daughter of Sir Stephen Glynne, Bart., of Hawarden Castle, Flintshire. By the decease of the late Baronet that mansion and estate became the property of Mr. Gladstone's eldest son. Several members of

his family have also come forward in public life. Mr. William Henry Gladstone, the eldest son, was born in 1840, was elected member of Parliament for Chester in 1865, for Whitby in 1868 and 1874, and for East Worcestershire in 1880. He was also a Lord of the Treasury from 1869 to 1874. Mr. Herbert Gladstone, the fourth son, was born in 1854. He is a lecturer on history at Keble College, Oxford, and was in 1880 appointed private secretary of his father. He was also elected in the same year to Parliament for the borough of Leeds. The second son, the Rev. Stephen Edward Gladstone, is Rector of Hawarden, and a daughter of Mr. Gladstone is wife of the Rev. E. C. Wickham, Head Master of Wellington College. Mr. Gladstone's oldest brother, Sir Thomas Gladstone, Baronet, was Lord Lieutenant for Kincardineshire, and member of Parliament for Queensborough, 1830, Portarlington, 1832-1835, Leicester, 1835-1837, and Ipswich, 1842.

GRANVILLE, GRANVILLE GEORGE LEVESON GOWER, second Earl, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the new English Cabinet, was born in London May 15, 1815. He took his degree at Oxford in 1834. He sat in the House of Commons for Morpeth (1836 to 1838), and also for Lichfield (1841 to 1846), previously to succeeding, in 1846, his father, the first Earl Granville, in the peerage. His official life dates from 1840, when he accepted the appointment of Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs. From 1848 to 1851 he was Vice-President of the Board of Trade, and from 1851 to 1852 Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. He has held various other official positions, having in turn been Master of the Buckhounds, Paymaster-General of the Forces, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and President of the Council, which office he held in the two Cabinets presided over by Lord Palmerston. In 1868 he joined Mr. Gladstone's first Cabinet as Colonial Secretary, relinquishing that position in 1870 to succeed the Earl of Clarendon as Secretary for Foreign Affairs. He was Vice-President of the Royal Commission for the Great Exhibition of 1851, and also chairman of the Commission for the Exhibition of 1862. He attended the coronation of the Emperor Alexander II of Russia, as the representative of England, in 1856. He is Chancellor of the University of London and Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, a kingdom of Western Europe. The Queen, Victoria, was born May 24, 1819. She is a daughter of Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III; succeeded her uncle, William IV, in 1837; and married in 1840 Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

Children of the Queen.—1. Princess Victoria, born November 21, 1840; married in 1858 to the present Crown Prince of Germany. 2. Prince Albert Edward, heir-apparent, born November 9, 1841; married in 1863 to Princess Alexandra, daughter of King Christian IX

of Denmark. Issue, two sons and three daughters; eldest son, Albert Victor, born January 8, 1864. 3. Princess Alice, born April 25, 1843; married in 1862 to Louis IV, Grand Duke of Hesse; died December 14, 1878. 4. Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, born August 6, 1844; married in 1874 to the Grand Duchess Maria of Russia. He is heir-apparent to the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He has issue one son and three daughters. 5. Princess Helena, born May 25, 1846; married in 1866 to Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg. 6. Princess Louise, born March 18, 1848; married in 1871 to the Marquis of Lorne. 7. Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught and Strathearne, born May 1, 1850; married March 13, 1879, to Princess Louise Margarethe, daughter of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia. 8. Prince Leopold, born April 7, 1853. 9. Princess Beatrice, born April 14, 1857.

The following princes and princesses are cousins of the Queen: 1. Prince Ernest August, Duke of Cumberland, born September 21, 1845, the grandson of King Ernest August of Hanover, fifth son of King George III; married December 21, 1878, to Princess Thyra of Denmark, born September 29, 1853. Offspring of the union are a daughter, Maria Louisa, born October 11, 1879, and a son, born October 28, 1880. 2. Prince George of Cambridge, born March 26, 1819, the son of Duke Adolph of Cambridge, sixth son of King George III, Field-Marshal, commanding in chief the British army. 3. Princess Augusta, sister of the preceding, born July 19, 1822; married June 28, 1843, to Grand Duke Frederick William of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. 4. Princess Mary, sister of the preceding, born November 27, 1833; married June 12, 1866, to Prince Franz von Teck, born August 27, 1837, son of Prince Alexander of Württemberg. Offspring of the union are one daughter and three sons.

The Cabinet was composed as follows at the close of 1880: First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M. P. (see GLADSTONE); Lord High Chancellor, Lord Selborne (see SELBORNE); Lord President of the Council, Earl Spencer (see SPENCER); Lord Privy Seal, Duke of Argyll (see ARGYLL); Secretaries of State: 1. Home Department, Right Hon. Sir Vernon Harcourt, Baronet, M. P. (see HARCOURT); 2. Foreign Affairs, Earl Granville (see GRANVILLE); 3. Colonies, Earl of Kimberley (see KIMBERLEY); 4. War, Right Hon. Hugh C. E. Childers, M. P. (see CHILDERS); 5. India, Marquis of Hartington, M. P. (see HARTINGTON);

First Lord of the Admiralty, Earl of Northbrook (see NORTHBROOK); Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Right Hon. John Bright, M. P. (see BRIGHT); Chief Secretary for Ireland, Right Hon. W. E. Forster, M. P. (see FORSTER); President of the Board of Trade, Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, M. P. (see CHAMBERLAIN).

The Parliament which assembled in April, 1880, is the twenty-second Imperial Parliament of the United Kingdom, and the tenth Parliament of the United Kingdom. The House of Lords consists of all peers of Great Britain and of Scotch and Irish representative peers, and of most of the archbishops and bishops of England and Wales. The House of Lords, in 1880, was composed of 4 peers of the royal blood, 2 archbishops, 22 dukes, 19 marquesses, 134 earls, 32 viscounts, 24 bishops, and 262 barons. The Speaker of the House of Lords was Earl Selborne, the Lord High Chancellor. The members of the House of Commons are elected by the counties, boroughs, and universities. Of the latter, Oxford elects 2, Cambridge 2, London 1, Edinburgh 1, Glasgow 1, and Dublin 2. England was represented in 1880 by 493, Scotland by 60, and Ireland by 105 members. The Speaker of the House of Commons was the Right Hon. Henry Bouverie William Brand; second president and chairman of committees, Right Hon. Dr. Lyon Playfair. The number of registered electors in 1880 was 2,501,676 in England, 231,536 in Ireland, and 305,514 in Scotland. The total number of votes recorded at the general election of 1880 was 1,417,924 for the Conservative candidates, and 1,881,951 for Liberal candidates and Home Rulers.

The area and population of the British Empire in 1880 were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	AREA.		Population in 1880.
	In English square miles.	In square kilometres.	
United Kingdom.....	121,608	314,951	34,866,000
India and Ceylon.....	924,043	2,393,177	193,851,000
Colonies and possessions..	6,544,549	17,726,669	11,769,665
Total British Empire..	7,590,200	20,434,797	240,486,665
Tributary states in India..	557,908	1,444,922	49,203,083
Total empire and dependencies.....	8,448,108	21,579,719	289,689,718

The following table gives the area and population of the United Kingdom according to the census of 1871, as well as the estimates of the Registrar-General (who does not include the islands in the British waters, nor the soldiers and sailors abroad) for 1871, 1878, 1879, and 1880:

COUNTRIES.	Square miles.	Population in 1871.	Population in 1878.	Population in 1879.	Population in 1880.
England and Wales.....	58,811	22,712,266	24,854,937	25,165,386	25,480,161
Scotland.....	30,463	8,360,018	8,593,989	8,627,453	8,661,292
Ireland.....	32,581	5,412,377	5,951,060	5,938,324	5,363,590
Islands in the British waters.....	308	144,633	145,000	145,000	145,000
Soldiers and sailors abroad.....	216,080	216,000	216,000	216,000
Total.....	121,608	31,845,879	34,160,386	34,517,113	34,866,000

The following table gives a complete list of the English colonies and possessions:

COUNTRIES.	Square miles.	Population.	Year.	COUNTRIES.	Square miles.	Population.	Year.
I. EUROPE:				IV. AUSTRALASIA:			
Helligoland.....	0·21	1,918	1871	Queensland.....	668,259	210,510	1878
Gibraltar.....	1·93	18,014	1878	New South Wales.....	808,560	698,748	1878
Malta.....	142·73	147,806	1876	Norfolk Island.....	16·8	481	1877
Total Europe.....	144·87	172,480	Victoria.....	88,451	879,442	1878
II. ASIA:				South Australia.....	880,602	248,795	1878
Cyprus.....	8,707	150,000	Northern Territory.....	523,531	3,265	1879
British India.....	899,841	191,095,445	1872	Western Australia.....	975,524	25,166	1878
Ceylon.....	24,702	2,755,557	1877	Natives in Australia.....	26,315	55,000
Straits Settlements.....	1,445	808,097	1871	Tasmania.....	104,272	109,947	1878
Hong-Kong.....	82	139,144	1876	New Zealand.....	432,323	1878
Labuan.....	80	4,898	1871	Maoris in New Zealand	11,319	1878
Nicobar Islands.....	684	5,500	Chatham Islands.....	625	49	1878
Andaman Islands.....	2,508	14,500	Auckland Islands.....	196·7
Laccadive Islands.....	744	6,800	Lord Howe's Island.....	8·2	25	1878
Curia-Muria Islands.....	21	Feejee Islands.....	8,088·8	4,585	1877
Aden.....	7·71	22,707	1872	Natives of the Feejee	112,272	1878
Perim.....	4·55	?	Fanning Island.....	15·4	150	1868
Mosha.....	0·4	50	Starbuck Island.....	1·1
Kamran.....	64	?	Caroline Island.....	2·1
Keeling Islands.....	8·5	400	1853	Malden Island.....	34·4	79	1876
Total Asia.....	938,380	194,508,548	Rotumah (annexed in 1880).....	14	2,680	1871
III. AFRICA:				Total Australasia.....	3,084,660	2,821,400
Cape Colony, inclusive of British Caffraria.....	199,950	720,984	1875	V. AMERICA:			
Basutoland.....	8,450	127,701	1875	Dominion of Canada.....	3,205,344	3,686,596	1871
New Griqualand.....	17,491	45,277	1877	Newfoundland.....	42,734	161,374	1874
Transket Territory.....	15,573	400,500	Bermudas.....	19·4	18,812	1878
Natal.....	18,750	856,517	1878	British Honduras.....	7,562	24,710	1871
Transvaal.....	119,749	40,000	Bahama Islands.....	5,390	89,162	1871
Natives in Transvaal.....	275,000	Turks Islands.....	9·7	2,845	1871
Namaqualand.....	99,927	16,850	Caicos Islands.....	213	1,878	1871
Gambia.....	69	14,190	1871	Jamaica.....	4,193	585,256	1878
Sierra Leone.....	1,000	38,936	1871	Caymans Islands.....	225	2,400	1871
Gold Coast.....	15,000	400,000	1871	Leeward Islands.....	706	117,788
Lagos.....	78	60,221	1871	Windward Islands.....	830	809,686
St. Helena.....	47	6,241	1871	Trinidad.....	1,754	109,638	1871
Ascension.....	34	27	1871	British Guiana.....	85,425	240,500	1874
Tristan da Cunha.....	45	85	1875	Falkland Islands.....	4,839	1,394	1878
Mauritius.....	789	854,628	1877	States Island.....
Dependencies of Mauritius.....	286	13,391	1871	Total America.....	3,359,244	5,269,539
New Amsterdam and St. Paul.....	28·8	Total British colonies and possessions.....	7,768,592	205,620,667
Total Africa.....	891,243	2,558,700				

The colonies and dependencies of Great Britain embrace about one seventh of the land of the globe, and a fourth of its population.

The movement of population for 1875 to 1879, according to the "Statistical Abstract of the United Kingdom," No. 26, 1864-1878 (London, 1880), was as follows:

YEARS.	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.	Excess of births.
ENGLAND AND WALES.				
1875.....	201,212	850,607	546,458	304,154
1876.....	201,874	887,963	510,315	377,653
1877.....	194,332	888,200	500,496	387,704
1878.....	189,657	891,418	569,574	331,844
1879.....	181,719	882,866	528,194	354,672
SCOTLAND.				
1875.....	25,921	123,693	81,785	41,908
1876.....	26,568	126,749	74,122	52,627
1877.....	25,790	126,824	73,946	52,878
1878.....	24,333	126,707	76,775	49,932
1879.....	23,462	125,736	73,329	52,407
IRELAND.				
1875.....	24,037	138,320	98,114	40,206
1876.....	26,388	140,469	92,324	48,145
1877.....	24,722	139,659	93,548	46,116
1878.....	25,368	134,370	91,839	42,531
1879.....	23,313	135,408	105,432	29,976

The number of owners of land in Great Britain, exclusive of the metropolis, is as follows:

	No. of owners below an acre.	No. of owners above an acre.	Total No. of owners.
England and Wales, exclusive of London.....	703,289	269,547	972,836
Scotland.....	113,005	19,225	132,230
Total.....	816,294	288,772	1,105,066

The number of emigrants from the United Kingdom in 1879 was as follows:

NATIONALITIES.	To United States.	To British North America.	To Australia and New Zealand.	To other countries.	Total.
English.....	52,402	13,965	26,366	11,542	104,275
Scotch.....	9,846	1,670	6,395	1,292	18,703
Irish.....	30,058	2,317	8,198	723	41,296
Foreign.....	41,651	4,497	1,219	2,083	49,480
Not specified.....	1,103	60	2,246	3,409
1878.....	134,590	22,509	42,178	17,886	217,163

The number of emigrants from the United Kingdom during the years 1853-1879 was as follows:

NATIONALITIES.	To United States.	To British North America.	To Australia and New Zealand.	To other countries.	Total.
English.....	1,941,473	209,059	545,769	122,006	1,918,307
Scotch.....	155,328	75,381	134,977	17,571	413,207
Irish.....	1,632,233	126,402	231,103	14,648	2,004,375
Foreigners.....	654,902	94,282	22,509	80,801	801,994
Not specified.....	163,742	52,556	80,898	55,768	308,264
1853-1879.....	3,652,668	557,930	965,255	240,294	5,446,147
1815-1879.....	5,747,249	1,594,644	1,276,091	291,755	8,909,739

The receipts and expenditures from 1874 to 1880 were as follows :

YEARS.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	Surplus (S.) or Deficit (D.).
1874-75.....	£74,921,573	£74,328,040	S. £593,533
1875-76.....	77,181,693	16,621,773	S. 509,920
1876-77.....	73,565,036	78,125,227	S. 459,509
1877-78.....	79,763,298	82,403,495	D. 2,640,197
1878-79.....	83,115,972	85,407,789	D. 2,291,817
1879-80.....	81,265,655	84,105,754	D. 2,840,699

The revenue for the year ending March 31, 1880, was as follows :

SOURCES.	Gross receipts.	Delivered to the Exchequer.
1. Customs.....	£19,301,555	£19,326,000
2. Excise.....	25,961,280	25,300,000
3. Stamps.....	11,527,940	11,300,000
4. Land-tax and house-duty.....	2,673,694	2,670,000
5. Property and income tax.....	9,350,523	9,230,000
6. Post-Office.....	6,561,616	6,350,000
7. Telegraph service.....	1,702,254	1,420,000
8. Crown lands.....	470,217	390,000
9. Interest of sums advanced for local works and the purchase of Suez Canal shares.....	1,254,596	1,254,596
10. Miscellaneous.....	4,026,337	4,024,459
Total.....	£32,830,312	£31,265,055
Balance of the Treasury.....		6,915,756
Other revenues of the Treasury (reimbursements, loans, etc.).....		39,500,467
Total.....		£127,631,273

The expenditures were as follows :

1. Payments out of the Exchequer for services charged on the consolidated fund :	
Interest and management of debt.....	£21,504,831
Terminable annuities.....	5,717,471
Interest of Exchequer bills.....	127,134
New sinking fund.....	651,064
Interest on loans by Bank of England.....	562,919
Interest and principal of Exchequer bonds (Suez).....	199,955
2. Other charges on the consolidated fund :	
Civil list.....	£407,463
Annuities.....	159,168
Pensions.....	155,392
Salaries.....	98,839
Courts of justice.....	624,180
Miscellaneous expenses.....	158,447

YEARS.	Imports.	EXPORTS.		
		British goods.	Foreign and colonial goods.	Total.
1879.....	£362,991,000	£191,532,000	£57,251,000	£248,783,000
1873.....	363,771,000	192,849,000	52,635,000	245,484,000
1877.....	394,420,000	198,899,000	53,453,000	252,346,000
1876.....	373,155,000	200,639,000	56,137,000	256,776,000
1875.....	373,940,000	223,466,000	58,140,000	281,612,000
1869-73 (average).....	381,143,000	224,806,000	58,247,000	278,053,000
1870-74.....	344,067,000	234,727,000	55,453,000	290,180,000

3. Civil service:	
Public works.....	1,866,109
Public departments.....	2,207,192
Administration of Justice, Police, etc.....	5,837,817
Public Instruction, Art, Science.....	8,995,298
Foreign Affairs.....	627,155
Pensions, charity, etc.....	1,287,861
Miscellaneous.....	53,134
4. Army and Navy:	
Army services.....	15,645,867
Army services charged on account of troops in India.....	1,113,050
Expedition to Abyssinia.....	634
War in South Africa.....	3,244,920
Navy services.....	10,416,132
5. Charges on the revenue:	
Customs.....	973,842
Inland revenue.....	1,810,473
Post-Office.....	3,338,000
Telegraph service.....	1,107,000
Post-Office packet service.....	772,820
Total ordinary expenditure.....	£34,105,754
Localization of the military forces.....	250,000
Greenwich Hospital and School.....	123,096
Exchequer bonds paid off.....	5,760,000
Other expenses.....	37,442,423
Total.....	£127,631,273

The public debt of Great Britain was as follows at each of the periods mentioned :

MARCH 31.	Funded debt.	Terminable annuities.	Not funded debt.	Total.
1875.....	£714,797,715	£35,311,671	£3,239,300	£753,348,686
1876.....	713,657,517	51,911,227	10,701,500	776,270,544
1877.....	712,621,355	49,308,558	13,943,500	775,873,713
1878.....	710,543,008	46,335,539	20,603,000	777,481,597
1879.....	709,430,592	42,778,147	25,770,100	778,078,840
1880.....	710,476,359	36,222,976	27,344,900	774,044,235

In 1775 the total charge for interest and management of the debt was less than 4½ millions sterling, but at the end of the war it had risen to 9½ millions. The twenty years' warfare with France, from 1793 to 1814, added nearly £23,000,000 sterling to the annual charge, which had risen to £32,000,000 in 1817, the year of the consolidation of the English and Irish Exchequer. Since that date, the capital, and the annual charge for its interest and management, has steadily decreased.

The imports and exports of merchandise from 1875 to 1879 were as follows :

The declared value of the imports and exports of precious metals, coined and in bars, in the same period, was as follows:

YEARS.	GOLD.		SILVER		TOTAL.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
1879	£13,369,000	£17,579,000	£10,787,000	£11,006,000	£24,156,000	£28,585,000
1878	20,571,000	14,969,000	11,532,000	11,715,000	32,423,000	26,687,000
1877	15,442,000	20,861,000	21,711,000	19,487,000	37,153,000	39,798,000
1876	23,470,000	16,516,000	18,578,000	12,948,000	37,054,000	29,464,000
1875	23,141,000	18,643,000	10,174,000	8,950,000	33,265,000	27,628,000

The value of imports and exports in the years 1879 and 1878 was as follows:

COUNTRIES.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1879.	1878.	1879.	1878.
I. FOREIGN COUNTRIES.				
Russia.....	£15,876,000	£17,804,000	£7,645,000	£6,559,000
Sweden and Norway.....	8,380,000	9,127,000	2,456,000	2,719,000
Denmark and Iceland.....	4,675,000	4,585,000	1,647,000	1,526,000
Germany.....	21,608,000	23,571,000	18,592,000	19,457,000
Netherlands.....	21,959,000	21,466,000	9,353,000	9,303,000
Belgium.....	10,726,000	12,887,000	5,106,000	5,526,000
France.....	38,459,000	41,379,000	14,989,000	14,825,000
Spain.....	8,899,000	9,115,000	2,940,000	3,211,000
Portugal, with the Azores.....	3,241,000	3,616,000	2,010,000	2,226,000
Italy.....	3,234,000	3,252,000	4,984,000	5,864,000
Austro Hungary.....	1,686,000	1,666,000	799,000	763,000
Greece, with the Ionian Islands.....	1,861,000	1,768,000	944,000	982,000
European and Asiatic Turkey.....	8,473,000	4,779,000	7,208,000	7,748,000
Roumania.....	1,873,000	971,000	897,000	887,000
Egypt.....	8,890,000	6,145,000	2,144,000	2,194,000
Europe and Mediterranean countries....	£158,837,000	£161,626,000	£81,844,000	£83,870,000
United States of North America.....	£91,889,000	£89,146,000	£20,322,000	£14,552,000
Mexico.....	582,000	507,000	693,000	773,000
Central America.....	1,386,000	968,000	728,000	732,000
Cuba and Porto Rico.....	2,630,000	1,805,000	1,772,000	1,890,000
Other West Indian Islands.....	140,000	247,000	351,000	572,000
Venezuela.....	115,000	98,000	462,000	473,000
Colombia.....	926,000	933,000	882,000	1,032,000
Ecuador.....	523,000	300,000	282,000	200,000
Brazil.....	4,750,000	4,651,000	5,685,000	5,578,000
Argentine Republic and Uruguay.....	1,200,000	1,744,000	2,986,000	3,816,000
Chili.....	3,738,000	2,199,000	950,000	1,191,000
Peru.....	3,859,000	5,232,000	747,000	1,370,000
America.....	£111,519,000	£107,890,000	£25,855,000	£31,679,000
China, without Hong-Kong.....	£11,049,000	£13,601,000	£4,650,600	£3,738,000
Japan.....	451,000	629,000	2,638,000	2,216,000
Dutch East Indies.....	1,784,000	1,851,000	1,645,000	1,663,000
Philippine Islands.....	1,481,000	1,258,000	599,000	835,000
Algeria.....	454,000	257,000	228,000	169,000
Morocco.....	154,000	391,000	245,000	191,000
Canary Islands.....	341,000	328,000	174,000	170,000
West Coast of Africa.....	1,459,000	1,286,000	657,000	1,140,000
Other countries.....	1,522,000	1,678,000	1,999,000	1,040,000
Asia and Africa.....	£18,695,000	£21,379,000	£12,881,000	£11,562,000
Total foreign countries.....	£284,051,000	£290,885,000	£130,530,000	£126,611,000
II. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.				
Channel Islands.....	£738,000	£726,000	£599,000	£586,000
Gibraltar.....	36,000	35,000	675,000	710,000
Malta.....	185,000	177,000	769,000	1,161,000
Colonies in North America.....	10,446,000	9,531,000	5,445,000	6,437,000
West Indies, Honduras, and Guinea.....	7,284,000	6,793,000	2,810,000	2,760,000
Australia and New Zealand.....	21,963,000	20,855,000	16,271,000	19,573,000
East Indies.....	24,698,000	27,470,000	21,374,000	23,277,000
Singapore.....	2,565,000	2,537,000	2,029,000	1,776,000
Ceylon.....	3,569,000	2,922,000	781,000	803,000
Hong-Kong.....	1,327,000	1,174,000	2,948,000	2,871,000
Mauritius.....	642,000	887,000	341,000	409,000
Colonies in South Africa.....	4,610,000	4,881,000	5,853,000	4,913,000
British West Africa and islands.....	550,000	622,000	744,000	873,000
Other possessions.....	288,000	256,000	360,000	139,000
Total British possessions.....	£78,941,000	£77,936,000	£61,002,000	£66,288,000
Total imports and exports.....	£362,992,000	£368,771,000	£191,532,000	£192,899,000

The value of the principal articles of import and export was as follows in 1879:

CLASSES OF GOODS.	Imports.	Exports.	CLASSES OF GOODS.	Imports.	Exports.
Grain.	£27,413	£700	Pottery and glassware.	£1,574	£2,553
Malt and other liquors.	8,874	2,207	Metal manufactures.	1,207	4,664
Colonial produce.	43,932	1,629	Machines and vessels.	1,002	10,114
Tobacco and cigars.	1,969	Leather, etc.	1,236	2,956
Seeds and fruits.	12,475	1,550	Yarn.	2,543	17,792
Animals and animal provisions.	40,105	2,464	Cordage and twine, woven goods and clothing.	20,174	85,279
1. Articles of food.	£174,798	£3,850	Paper.	445	916
Fuel.	£7,207	Wood-carvings.	415
Minerals and ores.	£1,240	552	Manuscripts, articles for printing.	957
Raw metals.	7,903	23,421	3. Manufactured goods.	£28,231	£125,677
Hairs, hides, and leather.	9,633	1,507	4. Miscellaneous goods.	£54,250	£23,377
Spinning material.	72,237	Total merchandise.	£262,992	£191,532
Wood and timber.	11,530	Precious metals.	24,156	25,585
2. Raw material.	£105,713	£33,628	Total.	£287,148	£220,117

The movement of shipping in the foreign and colonial trade was as follows (in tons):

YEARS.	ENTERED.			CLEARED.		
	British.	Foreign.	Total.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
Total entrances and clearances :						
1860.	6,889,009	5,283,776	12,172,785	7,025,914	5,490,593	12,516,507
1878.	17,327,733	7,965,988	25,293,721	17,963,750	8,387,608	26,351,358
1879.	18,514,550	7,518,042	26,032,592	18,919,441	7,763,417	26,682,858
Laden vessels entered and cleared :						
1860.	5,760,537	4,294,444	10,054,951	6,858,917	4,424,020	10,782,937
1878.	14,513,688	6,804,558	21,318,246	15,783,488	5,798,200	21,581,688
1879.	15,089,579	6,059,765	21,099,344	17,095,146	5,754,211	22,849,357
Steamers entered and cleared :						
1860.	2,145,000	404,030	2,549,030	2,042,000	377,000	2,419,000
1878.	12,528,657	2,499,127	15,027,784	12,912,543	2,616,387	15,528,930
1879.	13,619,092	2,662,351	16,281,443	13,885,925	2,809,646	16,695,571

The following table shows the finances, commerce, and movement of shipping of the British colonies in 1878, according to the "Statistical Abstract for the Colonial and other Possessions in the United Kingdom in 1864-'78" (London, 1880):

COLONIES.	Income.	Expenditures.	Debt.	Imports.	Exports.	Movement of shipping, tons.
Gibraltar*.	£43,000	£13,000	£5,128,000
Malta.	190,000	175,000	£312,000	£15,936,000	£15,249,000	6,504,000
Dominion of Canada.	4,651,000	6,238,000	29,242,000	19,392,000	16,526,000	6,654,000
Newfoundland.	212,000	239,000	251,000	1,431,000	1,173,000	599,000
Bermuda.	27,000	29,000	11,000	244,000	65,000	194,000
British Honduras.	40,000	51,000	5,000	181,000	181,000	84,000
Bahamas.	42,000	41,000	61,000	191,000	143,000	152,000
Turk's Islands.	9,000	6,000	20,000	27,000	96,000
Jamaica.	539,000	505,000	642,000	1,493,000	1,211,000	738,000
Virgin Islands.	2,000	1,000	4,000	6,000	8,000
St. Christopher.	32,000	27,000	5,000	173,000	202,000	83,000
Nevis.	10,000	9,000	1,000	33,000	31,000	21,000
Antigua.	38,000	36,000	61,000	184,000	201,000	60,000
Montserrat.	9,000	8,000	27,000	30,000	17,000
Dominica.	21,000	20,000	8,000	66,000	85,000	26,000
Santa Lucia.	28,000	33,000	47,000	108,000	151,000	93,000
St. Vincent.	29,000	35,000	3,000	150,000	162,000	41,000
Barbadoes.	181,000	124,000	25,000	1,103,000	1,075,000	401,000
Grenada.	34,000	27,000	10,000	181,000	149,000	155,000
Tobago.	15,000	15,000	1,000	41,000	67,000	11,000
Trinidad.	470,000	405,000	271,000	1,901,000	1,839,000	675,000
West Indies (total).	1,409,000	1,292,000	1,135,000	5,625,000	5,832,000	2,610,000
British Guiana.	409,000	415,000	304,000	2,151,000	2,508,000	555,000
Falkland Islands.	12,000	13,000	37,000	51,000	20,000
British India.	53,969,000	62,512,000	146,685,000	58,818,000	67,433,000	5,754,000
Straits Settlements.	366,000	340,000	106,000	18,420,000	12,739,000	4,391,000
Ceylon.	1,543,000	1,448,000	623,000	4,981,000	4,438,000	2,560,000
Hong-Kong* (1876).	184,000	188,000	?	?	4,360,000
Labuan*.	7,000	7,000	158,000	157,000	21,000
Australia.	17,357,000	18,410,000	67,483,000	50,546,000	44,197,000	7,710,000
Cape Colony.	5,832,000	?	6,986,000	6,589,000	3,533,000	1,138,000
Natal.	369,000	387,000	1,632,000	1,720,000	694,000	263,000
Sierra Leone (1875).	179,000	174,000	74,000	273,000	399,000	277,000
Gold Coast.	105,000	65,000	394,000	393,000	181,000
Gambia (1876).	26,000	20,000	165,000	204,000	148,000
St. Helena.	14,000	13,000	12,000	88,000	40,000	181,000
Lagos.	51,000	50,000	484,000	577,000	363,000
Mauritius.	730,000	735,000	700,000	2,229,000	3,777,000	564,000
Feejee (1876).	61,000	65,000	137,000	193,000	47,000

* The commerce of Gibraltar, Hong-Kong, and Labuan is with the United Kingdom only.

The commercial navy was as follows in 1879 and 1878 :

PARTICULARS.	SAILING-VESSELS.		STEAMSHIPS.		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Number of ships registered :						
United Kingdom { 1879	20,538	4,289,000	4,826	2,816,000	25,884	6,555,000
{ 1878	21,058	4,289,000	4,826	2,816,000	25,884	6,555,000
Number of vessels used in 1879 (exclusive of river-steamers) :						
Coasting	10,709	708,000	1,844	240,000	12,058	948,000
Coasting and long-voyage	909	128,000	209	84,000	1,118	213,000
Long-voyage	4,881	8,083,000	2,027	2,007,000	6,858	5,089,000
Total, 1879	16,449	8,919,000	3,580	2,881,000	20,029	6,250,000
Ships registered in British colonies, 1879						

The following table gives the postal statistics for the year ending March 31, 1880 :

ARTICLES.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.
Letters	950,000,000	102,000,000	76,000,000	1,128,000,000
Postal-cards	97,000,000	12,000,000	6,000,000	115,000,000
Newspapers and printed matter	281,000,000	87,000,000	27,000,000	845,000,000
Money orders :				
1. To United Kingdom	£14,400,000	£1,400,000	£1,000,000	£16,900,000
2. To foreign countries and colonies				200,000
3. From foreign countries and colonies				300,000
Amount of money orders :				
1. To United Kingdom	21,838,000,000	2,820,000,000	1,874,000,000	25,032,000,000
2. To foreign countries and colonies				427,000,000
3. From foreign countries and colonies				1,081,000,000

The railroad statistics for 1879 were as follows :

COUNTRIES.	Kilometres in operation.	Capital.	Gross receipts.	Net receipts.
England	20,192	£598,156	£50,488	£25,367
Scotland	4,609	90,695	6,884	3,229
Ireland	8,677	33,153	2,573	1,186
Total, 1879 ..	27,894	£698,545	£60,454	£29,673
“ 1879 ..	28,478	717,004	59,395	29,732

The number of telegraph-offices in 1878 was 5,259, of which 1,401 were private and railway stations. The length of the government lines was 41,334 kilometres, of wires 183,554 kilometres. The number of dispatches sent, exclusive of press and official dispatches, was 23,385,416.

The British army is filled up exclusively by recruiting. The term of service is twelve years, after which a soldier can serve for nine years more. At the end of three years he can also enter the reserve, one year in the regular army being counted as three in the reserve. By the reorganization of 1872, the United Kingdom is divided into sixty-eight military districts. In each district there is one brigade depot of 182 men, two battalions of the regular army, which alternately serve abroad, two battalions of militia, and the volunteers of the district. Besides these there are the following organizations: In Ireland there is a police force under military discipline, consisting of 13,000 men and 4,000 horses; the Channel Islands have a militia of 300 officers and 7,000 men, subsidized by the British Government. India has a police force, under military discipline, of 190,000 men, the officers of which are Europeans; the colonies

all have a militia and a volunteer corps of their own. According to the “Army Estimates” 1880-’81, the army was composed as follows :

TROOPS.	Officers.	Soldiers.	Total.	Animals.*
I. REGULAR ARMY.				
1. Cavalry	819	16,426	17,245	11,718
2. Artillery	1,324	32,907	34,231	12,164
3. Engineers	816	4,885	5,655	322
4. Infantry	4,814	116,971	121,785
5. Colonial corps	122	2,363	2,485
6. Administrative corps	1,794	5,987	7,781	1,095
7. Reserve	1,500	47,000	48,500
Total	11,189	226,489	237,678	25,299
II. TERRITORIAL ARMY.				
1. Yeomanry and militia	4,677	143,945	158,622
2. Volunteers	7,580	198,500	206,120
Total	12,207	347,585	359,742
III. IMPERIAL ARMY OF NATIVES IN INDIA.				
1. Gardes du corps	2	170	172	70
2. Cavalry	310	18,500	18,810	20,100
3. Artillery	20	800	820	600
4. Engineers	40	8,200	8,240	200
5. Infantry	1,100	101,200	102,300	2,220
6. Staffs	1,808	1,808	1,000
Total	3,280†	123,870‡	127,150	24,190
Grand total	26,676	697,894	724,570	49,489

In 1878 the army was distributed as follows :

TROOPS.	Great Britain.	Colonies.	India.	Total.
I. Regular army	147,062	27,376	68,240	237,678
II. Territorial army	359,742	359,742
III. Native Indian army	127,150	127,150
Total	506,804	27,376	190,890	724,570

* Horses, elephants, and steers.

† English officers.

‡ Native officers and soldiers.

The navy consisted of 72 ironclads, inclusive of those in the course of construction, about 360 steamers, and 120 sailing-vessels. Of this number 251 were in commission in August, 1880, 123 being at home, and 128 abroad. The navy is manned by 45,800 seamen, 13,000 marines, and 21,420 men belonging to the Royal Navy reserve.

The session of Parliament was opened February 5th by the Queen in person. Her Majesty said in her speech, which was read by the Lord Chancellor :

My relations with all the powers continue to be friendly. The course of events since the prorogation of Parliament has tended to furnish additional security to the maintenance of European peace, on the principles laid down by the Treaty of Berlin. Much, however, still remains to be done to repair the disorder with which the late war has affected many parts of the Turkish Empire.

A convention for the suppression of the slave-trade has been concluded between my Government and that of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan.

At the close of your last session I expressed my hope that the Treaty of Gundamak had happily terminated the war in Afghanistan. In conformity with its provisions, my envoy, with his retinue, was honorably received and entertained by the Ameer at Cabool. While engaged, however, in the exercise of their duty, he and those connected with the embassy were treacherously attacked by overwhelming numbers, and, after an heroic defense, were almost all massacred. An outrage so intolerable called for condign chastisement, and my troops, which, pursuant to the stipulations of the treaty, either had withdrawn or were withdrawing from the territories governed by the Ameer, were ordered to retrace their steps. The skill exhibited in the rapid march upon Cabool, and in the advances upon the other lines of action, reflects the highest credit upon the officers and men of my British and native forces, whose bravery has shewn with its wonted luster in every collision with the enemy.

The abdication of the Ameer, and the unsettled condition of the country, render the recall of my troops impossible for the present; but the principle on which my Government has hitherto acted remains unchanged; and, while determined to make the frontiers of my Indian Empire strong, I desire to be in friendly relations alike with those who may rule in Afghanistan, and with the people of that country.

My anticipations as to the early establishment of peace in South Africa have been fulfilled. The capture and deposition of the Zooloo king, and the breaking-up of the military organization on which his dynasty was based, have relieved my possessions in that part of the world from a danger which has seriously impeded their advancement and consolidation. In Basutoland a native outbreak of considerable importance has been effectually quelled by my colonial forces; while the Transvaal has been freed from the depredations of a powerful chief, who, having successfully resisted the former Government of the country, had persistently rejected our attempts at conciliation. I have reason to hope that the time is now approaching when an important advance may be made toward the establishment of a union or confederation under which the powers of self-government, already enjoyed by the inhabitants of the Cape Colony, may be extended to my subjects in other parts of South Africa. . . .

The commission which, at the close of the last session, I informed you I had issued to inquire into the causes of agricultural depression throughout the United Kingdom is pursuing its labors. In the mean time, the serious deficiency in the usual crops in some parts of Ireland has rendered necessary special precautions on the part of my Government to guard against the calamities with which those districts were threatened.

With this view, they have called upon the authorities charged with the duties of administering relief to make ample preparations for the distribution of food and fuel, should such a step become necessary; and they have also stimulated the employment of labor by advances on terms more liberal than those prescribed by the existing law.

I feel assured that you will give your sanction to the course which has been adopted where it may have exceeded the power intrusted by Parliament to the Executive Government.

A proposal will be submitted to you for providing the funds required for these exceptional advances on the security of the property administered by the Church Temporalities Commissioners.

I trust you will be able to resume the consideration of the Criminal Code, and of the improvement of the law of bankruptcy.

Bills will be laid before you for enlarging the powers of owners of settled land, for consolidating and amending the lunacy laws, and for simplifying the practice of conveyancing.

The address to the Crown was moved in the House of Lords by Lord Onslow, who defended the policy of the Government in Afghanistan and South Africa, and expressed the hope that the Government would be able to make good its promises of useful legislation to meet the agricultural distress. Lord Rosse seconded the motion, speaking particularly of the distress in Ireland. Lord Granville urged a reform of the land laws, by simplifying the sale and acquisition of land. If Home Rule meant another and distinct Parliament for Ireland, he considered it an utter impossibility, though he had no objection to giving the sister kingdom such an amount of local control over its affairs as would really tend to an amelioration of its condition. The war in South Africa had not only been impolitic, but in the highest degree unjust and unnecessary, a cruel and inhuman contest, a disgrace to the honor and name of the nation. Not less without excuse had been the war with Afghanistan, where the British had been met with the most determined resistance on the part of all the natives. The Earl of Beaconsfield said it was disingenuous to blame the Government, not so much for what it had done, as for what it had been said it had done. He did not think it necessary at that time to defend the stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin. The Government was seeing to their execution. To the strictures of Lord Granville on the wars in South Africa and Afghanistan, and the alleged atrocities there, he gave an indignant denial. The policy of the Ministers in regard to Afghanistan had never altered. It was not one of annexation, but purely of defense, and, having secured the military frontier, the troops would be withdrawn the moment the Afghans had obtained a ruler under whom they could live and be peaceful. Not more than one tenth of the people were hostile to the British. The Premier further declared that what the Home Rulers wanted would be equivalent to a dismemberment of the United Kingdom, and the man who favored that was false to his sovereign and his country. The Duke of Argyll denounced the proceedings of

General Roberts in Afghanistan, criticised the Treaty of Berlin as giving each of the powers a separate cause of quarrel with Turkey, and the Anglo-Turkish Convention as guaranteeing Turkey against the consequences of breaking its own promises, and charged that Lord Lytton, Viceroy of India, had led the Government in its Afghan policy. Lord Cranbrook replied to the Duke of Argyll, and the motion for the address was adopted. The address was moved in the House of Commons by Colonel Drummond Moray, and seconded by Mr. J. P. Corry. Lord Hartington asked explanations from the Government on various points; first, as to the Greek frontier negotiations, and the progress which had been made in inducing Turkey to adopt the promised reforms. He deprecated any action on the part of England for the repression of the rising liberties of the Danubian principalities, and insisted that the threatening state of Europe should teach the lesson of making the country safe, by concentrating its resources and lessening its responsibilities. He complained that the speech from the Throne contained no reference to future policy in Afghanistan, and argued that the course of events had made it impossible to pursue the policy marked out in the Treaty of Gundamak. He thought the annexation of the Transvaal in South Africa was effected under a mistake as to the views of the people, and might be revoked if that should turn out to be the wisest policy. He hoped the Ministers would take the earliest opportunity for explaining what steps they had taken to meet the distress prevailing in Ireland. The Chancellor of the Exchequer spoke in explanation of measures that had been adopted by the Government on subjects to which the opposition had directed their inquiries. The state of Turkey was such as to cause anxiety, but the Government were striving to bring about a better condition. Under existing circumstances, and in the armed state of Europe, England could not afford to abdicate its position and influence in the council of nations. The policy of the Government as to Afghanistan was not changed. A better hope than hitherto existed of bringing about a South African federation. The Chancellor also related what the Government had done with respect to the distress in Ireland.

In the course of the subsequent debates, Earl Beaconsfield several times announced that the statement that the Government had released Persia from its engagement not to occupy Herat, was not true; and a letter was read from General Roberts denying allegations that Afghan prisoners had been shot for fighting against the British troops. On the 18th of February Earl Beaconsfield, in answer to a question from Earl Granville, said that he was not prepared to say that the tripartite treaty of 1856, by which Great Britain, Austria, and France guaranteed the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, had ceased to exist, but that if

the kingdom were appealed to by the co-signatories of the treaty to act under its provisions, there were certain circumstances he should take into consideration. Lord Selborne said that he considered the treaty as completely inoperative as if it had been abrogated in the most solemn form. On the 20th of February the Duke of Argyll made a speech of more than two hours in length in the House of Lords, in condemnation of the policy and proceedings of the Government in Afghanistan. He was replied to by Lord Cranbrook, and the debate was continued by Lord Northbrook, Lord Hammond, Lord Strathairn, Lord Napier of Magdala, the Lord Chancellor, Lord Granville, and Lord Beaconsfield.

Attention was called in the House of Commons, February 17th, to a placard signed "S. Plimsoll" which had been posted on the walls of Westminster, appealing to the constituents of Sir Charles Russell against his action on the grain-cargoes bill. This was regarded by the member assailed as a breach of privilege, and he moved a resolution affixing that character to it. Mr. Plimsoll acknowledged his responsibility for the paper, made an explanation and apology for his act, and desired to withdraw the words he had used. The resolution of censure was withdrawn, but it was insisted that some notice ought to be taken of the act notwithstanding an apology had been made, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved a resolution mentioning the offense, but declaring that an apology for it had been accepted. A debate ensued as to whether the effect of the resolution might not be to make a new rule or to limit the freedom of discussion, after which it was adopted.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved, February 23d, a series of resolutions for preventing the obstruction of the progress of business in the House by factious members, which were adopted without a division and made a standing order of the House. They provide that if any member shall have been named by the Speaker or Chairman of Committees as disregarding the authority of the Chair or abusing the rules of the House by persistently or willfully obstructing business, then the Speaker shall put the question—if motion be made, without amendment, adjournment, or debate—that the offender be suspended for the remainder of the sitting. If a member be suspended three times in one session his suspension shall continue on the last occasion one week, and until a motion has been made upon which it shall be decided whether his suspension shall cease, or for how long a period it shall continue; and a member, if he so pleases, may be heard in his own defense.

The army estimates were passed March 1st, including a vote of £4,579,000 for pay and allowances for the land forces at home and abroad. The naval estimates were passed March 8th, embodying a vote of 58,800 men and boys for the service for 1880-'81, and several votes of money.

On the same day, the Government announced in both Houses that as the Parliament would necessarily be dissolved during the year by the expiration of its term of limitation, they had considered it most convenient to hold the elections for the new Parliament at about the time of Easter, the effect of which would be to enable the new Parliament to meet in May. Parliament would then be prorogued and dissolved as soon as the essential measures could be finished. The Chancellor of the Exchequer presented his financial statement March 11th. The total amount of the deficit on the last year was £3,340,000, due in some measure to war expenditure, but largely traceable to a falling off in the revenue. The total cost of the Zulu war, from first to last, had been £5,138,000. The Chancellor estimated the total income of the next year at £81,560,000, as against an actual income for the past year of £80,860,000, showing an advance of £700,000. The actual expenditure of the last year had been £81,153,000. For the coming year he estimated it at £81,486,000. This would leave as between estimated income and estimated expenditure a balance of £74,000. The accumulated deficit—£8,100,000—he proposed to meet by the conversion of £6,000,000 of annuities terminable in 1885, and by Exchequer bills for the remaining £2,000,000. The sum of £600,000 would be appropriated from the new sinking fund, and, £800,000 being added to the fixed sum of £28,000,000 now applied yearly to pay the interest of the public debt, the deficit of £6,000,000 would thus be met in five years. A bill was passed concerning Parliamentary elections and corrupt practices, and a few other pending measures of more pressing importance were disposed of, after which Parliament was prorogued and dissolved by royal proclamation March 23d. The Queen said in her message of prorogation:

I can not part from you without expressing my deep sense of the zeal and ability which, during more than six years, you have consistently displayed in exercising your important functions, nor without tendering to you my warm acknowledgments for the useful measures which you have submitted for my acceptance, and especially for the manner in which you have upheld a policy the object of which was at once to defend my empire and to secure the general peace.

My relations with foreign powers are friendly and favorable to the maintenance of tranquillity in Europe.

I entertain the confident hope that the measures adopted in Afghanistan will lead to a speedy settlement of that country.

I have had much satisfaction in assenting to the acts you have passed for the relief of the distress unhappily prevalent in parts of Ireland; and, trusting that these measures will be accepted by my Irish subjects as a proof of the ready sympathy of the Imperial Parliament, I look forward with confidence to the restored prosperity of their country.

I rejoice to observe the indications of a general improvement in trade, and that the commercial depression which I have had to lament appears to be passing away.

I have witnessed with the greatest sympathy the heavy losses sustained by the various classes connected with the cultivation of the soil, and have viewed with admiration the patience and high spirit with

which they have contended against an almost unprecedented series of disastrous seasons.

I trust that, with the blessing of Providence, a more favorable harvest may be looked for, and that, from the commission which I issued to inquire into the causes of agricultural depression, suggestions may come which will lead to the more profitable use of agricultural land, and to a higher development of this branch of national industry.

The electors of the United Kingdom will be called upon forthwith to choose their representatives in Parliament, and I fervently pray that the blessing of Almighty God may guide them to promote the object of my constant solicitude—the happiness of my people.

The Parliament now dissolved met on March 5, 1874, and had reached the age of six years and nineteen days, constituting it the longest Parliament that had sat during the reign of Victoria, except that called by Earl Derby in May, 1859, which sat thirteen days longer.

The leaders of both parties published their declarations, designed to be influential in the coming elections, immediately on the announcement being made that the dissolution would occur near Easter. The Earl of Beaconsfield wrote to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, stating that the measures respecting the state of Ireland were about to be submitted to the royal assent, and claiming that one of the most difficult problems connected with the government and people of that country had been solved by establishing a system of education open to all classes and creeds. Nevertheless, a great danger distracted Ireland in that a part of its population was attempting to sever the constitutional tie which united it to Great Britain. After declaring that the strength of the nation depended on the unity of feeling which should pervade the United Kingdom and its dependencies, and that the first duty of the Minister should be to consolidate the coöperation of all the parts, the Premier continued:

And yet there are some who challenge the expediency of the imperial character of this realm. Having attempted, and failed, to enfeeble our colonies by their policy of decomposition, they may, perhaps, now recognize in the disintegration of the United Kingdom a mode which will not only accomplish, but precipitate their purpose. . . .

Rarely in this century has there been an occasion more critical. The power of England and the peace of Europe will largely depend on the verdict of the country. Her Majesty's present Ministers have hitherto been enabled to secure that peace, so necessary to the welfare of all civilized countries, and so peculiarly the interest of our own. But this ineffable blessing can not be obtained by the passive principle of non-interference. Peace rests on the presence, not to say the ascendancy, of England in the councils of Europe. Even at this moment the doubt, supposed to be inseparable from popular election, if it does not diminish, certainly arrests her influence, and is a main reason for not delaying an appeal to the national voice.

The Marquis of Hartington, the Parliamentary leader of the Liberal party, carefully indicated the policy of the Government in an address to the electors of northeast Lancashire. Referring to the manifesto of the Prime Minister, he said: "I seek to evade no issue which the Government can raise; but it is necessary

that these issues should be plainly stated, and that others which he has avoided shall be brought before you. I know of no party which 'challenges the expediency of the imperial character of this realm.' I know of none who have 'attempted to enfeeble our colonies by their policy of decomposition.' The present healthy condition of the colonies, and their harmony of feeling with the mother-country, he continued, was owing to their having received their institutions under the guidance of Liberal statesmen, and learned "that entire dependence on imperial assistance for their freedom and defense was not compatible with the dignity of freemen." No patriotic purpose was to be gained by the use of language of exaggeration in describing the Irish agitation for Home Rule. His lordship believed that the demand so described was impracticable, that concession to it would be mischievous, and he had always opposed it and always would oppose it. The Government had treated it with indulgence and indifference when it should have met it with firm and consistent resistance, combined with proof that every just and reasonable demand of the Irish people for equal laws and institutions would be granted. Lord Beaconsfield had claimed that her Majesty's Ministers had maintained the peace of Europe. "But they did not prevent," said the Marquis of Hartington, "even if their policy did not cause, a war in the East of Europe. The ascendancy of England has been claimed in circulars, but it has been surrendered in secret conventions. In the aggrandizement of Russia, and the destruction of the independence and integrity of the Turkish Empire, the declared objects of their policy have been frustrated." No progress had been made toward giving effect to the provisions of the Anglo-Turkish Convention for reforms in Asia Minor, and the Greek question, which disturbed Eastern Europe, was still as far from a solution as ever; but while the policy of the Ministry had failed, the immense responsibilities incurred by the country remained. In Africa, the address continued, "her Majesty's Ministers have drifted into a war which they did not sanction and which they deplore—a war which has brought no honor and no advantage in return for the blood and treasure which have been spent. In Afghanistan they have created a war which has destroyed a nation, the strength and independence of which they declared, in common with their predecessors, to be important for the safety of the frontier of India." And in this they had subjected India to immense loss and expense. "The just influence of England in the councils of Europe," the Marquis added, "is an object which the Liberal party has pursued with at least as much sincerity as, and certainly with more success than, has attended the policy of the present administration. . . . But the influence of England does not rest upon boasts of ascendancy over Europe, irrespective of the objects for which that ascen-

dancy is to be employed. It rests on the firmness and moderation of our conduct, based upon the material and moral strength of our position, and exercised in concert with other nations on behalf of peace, justice, and freedom." The domestic consequences of a foreign policy at once restless and undecided had been stagnation in internal reforms and financial confusion. Had not domestic prosperity and honor been attended to by the predecessors of the present Ministry, the power and influence of England, of which they were the foundations at home, would never have existed to be displayed abroad. The Marquis then mentioned several points of domestic concern which required consideration, but in relation to which nothing serious had been attempted by the Government, and there was no indication that anything serious was intended. The Liberal party, he concluded, "can offer no special favor to any class or to any interest. They can only undertake that, while upholding the power of the empire, securing the safety of our own country, and maintaining its possessions, they will engage in no policy of disturbance or uncalled-for annexation."

The elections for the new Parliament were held during April, and resulted in the return of 355 Liberals, 238 Conservatives, and 62 Home Rulers, giving the Liberals a plurality of 117, and a majority of 55 members. At the election of sixteen peers to represent the peers of Scotland in the House of Lords, April 16th, the Earl of Leven and Melville, and Lord Borthwick were chosen in the place of Lord Sinclair and the Marquis of Queensberry. Mr. Gladstone, who was universally regarded as the real leader of the Liberal party, was returned to the House of Commons by the two constituencies of Midlothian and Leeds. He elected to sit for Midlothian. He gave his view of the situation and of the responsibility of his party in his address to the electors of that borough, saying, "The efforts of the party which now seems likely to attain the full measure of its predominance will, I trust, be steadily and temperately addressed toward establishing the external policy of this country on the lines of justice, equal right, and sympathy with freedom, and toward the direction of the internal government and legislation which, during the last half-century, have done so much to relieve the people, to gain respect for the laws, to strengthen the foundation of the throne, and to consolidate the structure of this great and noble empire." The Marquis of Hartington regarded the result of the elections as rather the expression of the disapproval and condemnation by the voters of the conduct of the Government than of their confidence in the Liberal party; he thought the Liberals knew very well that they had still very much to do in order to establish their claims before the country. A task of pressing importance which they had before them was to secure a condemnation and reversal of the system of foreign policy which

the Government was pursuing. Mr. Gladstone was offered a public reception in London, but declined it on grounds of public propriety, saying, "I am sure that in the eyes of many, and not of our political opponents exclusively, it would be regarded as an attempt, made for the first time, to establish a practice of public rejoicing in the metropolis of the country over the catastrophe of an administration and a political party, and would wound feelings which we ought to respect as well as spare."

On the 21st of April the Earl of Beaconsfield formally tendered to the Queen the resignations of himself and his colleagues in the Ministry. On the next day the Queen sent for the Marquis of Hartington. On the 23d Lord Hartington visited the Queen again with Lord Granville, and afterward Mr. Gladstone was summoned to Windsor and received the appointment of First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. The new Cabinet was constituted as follows: First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone; Lord Chancellor, Lord Selborne; Lord President of the Council, Earl Spencer; Lord Privy Seal, the Duke of Argyll; Secretary of State for the Home Department, Sir William Harcourt; Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Earl Granville; Secretary of State for the Colonies, Earl of Kimberley; Secretary of State for War, Mr. Childers; Secretary of State for India, Marquis of Hartington; First Lord of the Admiralty, Earl of Northbrook; President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Chamberlain; Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Mr. Bright; Chief Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Forster; President of the Local Government Board, Mr. Dodson.

Earl Granville as Foreign Secretary received the foreign ambassadors and ministers April 30th, and stated concerning the attitude of the new Cabinet in regard to Continental affairs, that the Treaty of Berlin, frankly adopted by the new Government, would be maintained; the Cabinet would enter into no Continental alliance, and would cordially continue the relations with France; it would support the demands of Greece; and it expected to maintain a good understanding with respect to English and French relations in Egypt.

The new Parliament met April 23d. The Right Honorable Henry Brand was elected Speaker of the House of Commons. During the process of swearing in the members of the House of Commons, Mr. Charles Bradlaugh, who had been returned from Northampton, being an atheist, claimed the privilege of making an affirmation instead of taking the oath. The Speaker was not able to determine the question thus raised, since he had grave doubts of the construction placed on the meaning of the Parliamentary Oaths Act of 1866 by Mr. Bradlaugh. The case was referred to a select committee. The House afterward adjourned till May 20th. The committee appointed to consider the question raised by Mr. Bradlaugh,

decided that the oath should not be dispensed with in his case, and so reported when the House met again. On the 21st of May Mr. Bradlaugh came forward and offered to be sworn. A resolution was offered declaring that he ought not to be allowed to take the oath. This was rejected by a vote of 289 to 214. The case was then referred to a select committee, with directions to inquire into the facts and circumstances of the claim of Mr. Bradlaugh to be sworn, into the law applicable to the claim, and into the jurisdiction of the House to refuse it. This committee reported adversely to Mr. Bradlaugh's claim, and the House decided, June 22d, after having debated the question for two days, that Mr. Bradlaugh should not be allowed to take the oath. On the next day, Mr. Bradlaugh again pressed his claim to take the oath. It was denied, and he was requested to withdraw. He declared the order contrary to law, and refused to obey it, and for this was taken into custody. The case excited great public interest, and many meetings were held on the subject, some of which were in sympathy with Mr. Bradlaugh, and others with the Parliamentary majority. On the 2d of July Mr. Gladstone moved a resolution declaring that every person returned as a member of the House of Commons, who may claim to be a person for the time being by law permitted to make a solemn affirmation instead of taking an oath, should henceforth—notwithstanding so much of the resolution adopted by the House on June 22d as relates to affirmation—be permitted without question to make and subscribe a solemn affirmation in the form prescribed by the Parliamentary Oaths Act of 1866, as amended by the Promissory Oaths Act of 1868, subject to any liability by statutes. The resolution was adopted by a vote of 303 to 249, and was made a standing order. Mr. Bradlaugh made the affirmation and took his seat on the next day.

In the opening speech of his canvass at Edinburgh, March 17th, Mr. Gladstone attributed to the Emperor of Austria a disparaging remark concerning himself which his Majesty was said to have made to Sir Henry Elliot, describing Mr. Gladstone as a man who did not approve the foreign policy of Austria, and whom he therefore did not desire to see in power. Mr. Gladstone then reviewed the foreign policy of Austria, saying: "Austria has ever been the unflinching foe of freedom in every country in Europe. . . . There is not an instance, there is not a spot on the whole map where you can lay your finger and say, 'There Austria did good.' I do not of course abandon the hope of improvement in the future; but we must look to the past and to the present for the guidance of our judgments. At this moment, and in the Congress of Berlin, Austria resisted the extension of freedom, and did not promote it." Sir Henry Elliot telegraphed from Vienna, March 22d, that Mr. Gladstone had entirely misrepresented a casual remark

the Emperor had made to him, and the Baron Haymerle, the Austrian Premier, was most anxious that there should be a contradiction in Parliament, or through the press, of the language attributed to his Majesty. In another dispatch the ambassador said that the language attributed to the Emperor bore no resemblance to that which he had really used, and that he had merely made a casual remark on the bitter hostility to Austria lately exhibited by Mr. Gladstone, and added that he hoped nothing would occur to disturb the cordial relations existing between the two countries. Mr. Gladstone after coming into office, May 4th, addressed a letter to Count Károlyi, the Austrian ambassador, saying that he had resolved that he would not, as a Minister, repeat or defend in argument polemical language in regard to foreign powers which he had used individually, when in a position of greater freedom and less responsibility; that he regretted ever having seemed to impute to his Imperial Majesty language which he did not use; that he had no hostile disposition toward any country, and had always wished well to Austria in the performance of the arduous task of consolidating the empire, and felt a cordial respect for the efforts of the Emperor; but that grave apprehensions had been excited in his mind, on evidence which was, indeed, secondary but not hostile, and was the best at his command, "lest Austria should play a part in the Balkan Peninsula hostile to the freedom of the emancipated populations, and to the reasonable and warranted hopes of the subjects of the Sultan." "Your Excellency," Mr. Gladstone continued, "is now good enough to assure me that your Government has no desire whatever to extend or add to the rights it has acquired under the Treaty of Berlin, and that any such extension would be actually prejudicial to Austro-Hungary. Permit me at once to state to your Excellency that, had I been in possession of such an assurance, as I am now able to receive, I never would have uttered any one of the words which your Excellency justly describes as of a painful and wounding character." The publication of this letter, the spontaneous act of the Government, was, it was said, much appreciated at Vienna. The comments of the German papers upon it were various; but the "Cologne Gazette," while considering it humiliating to England, said that it must not be overlooked that the new British Premier indirectly pledged Austria not to cross the frontiers drawn by the Treaty of Berlin. The correspondence was the subject of a discussion in the House of Lords, May 21st, in which Mr. Gladstone's language and act were sharply criticised by several Conservative peers. The Duke of Argyll replied that, while he regretted the speech of Mr. Gladstone, the fears which the Premier had expressed were entertained by a large number of persons at the time. The subject was then dropped.

The Parliament met after adjournment, for

the dispatch of business, May 20th. The Queen's message was read by the Lord Chancellor. In it her Majesty said:

The cordial relations which I hold with all the other powers of Europe will, I trust, enable me to promote in concert with them the early and complete fulfillment of the Treaty of Berlin with respect to effectual reforms and equal laws in Turkey, as well as to such territorial questions as have not yet been settled in conformity with the provisions of that treaty. I regard such a fulfillment as essential for the avoidance of further complications in the East.

In accordance with this view, I have deemed it expedient to dispatch an ambassador extraordinary to the court of the Sultan.

On the last occasion of my addressing you I expressed my hope that the measures adopted in Afghanistan would lead to a speedy settlement of that country. Since that period, the gallantry of my troops has continued to be conspicuous, and the labors of my Government in India have been unremitting. But I have to lament that the end in view has not yet been attained. My efforts will, however, be unceasingly directed toward the pacification of Afghanistan, and toward the establishment of such institutions as may be found best fitted to secure the independence of its people, and to restore their friendly relations with my Indian Empire.

The condition of Indian finance, as it has recently been made known to me, has required my special attention. I have directed that you shall be supplied with the fullest information upon this weighty subject.

I invite your careful notice to the important questions of policy connected with the future of South Africa. I have continued to commend to the favorable consideration of the authorities and of the people in the various settlements the projects of confederation. In maintaining my supremacy over the Transvaal, with its diversified population, I desire both to make provision for the security of the indigenous races, and to extend to the European settlers institutions based on large and liberal principles of self-government.

The Queen then made a reference to signs which indicated some revival of trade, but which had not been attended with any abatement in the depression of the revenue, and continued:

The Peace Preservation Act for Ireland expires on the 1st of June. You will not be asked to renew it. My desire to avoid the evils of exceptional legislation in abridgment of liberty would not induce me to forego in any degree the performance of the first duty of every Government in providing for the security of life and property. But, while determined to fulfill this sacred obligation, I am persuaded that the loyalty and good sense of my Irish subjects will justify me in relying on the provisions of the ordinary law, firmly administered, for the maintenance of peace and order.

The provisions enacted before the dissolution of the late Parliament for the mitigation of distress in Ireland have been serviceable for that important end. The question of the sufficiency of the advances already authorized by Parliament is under my consideration.

A measure will at an early day be submitted to you for putting an end to the controversies which have arisen with respect to burials in churchyards and cemeteries.

It will be necessary to ask you to renew the act for secret voting.

Among the chief subjects which will be brought under your notice, as time may permit, will be bills for giving more effectual protection to the occupiers of land against injury from ground-game, for determining on a just principle the liabilities of employers for accidents sustained by workmen, and for the extension of the borough franchise in Ireland.

The address to the Crown was moved in the House of Lords by Lord Elgin and seconded

by Lord Sandhurst. The Duke of Marlborough regretted the determination not to renew the Peace Preservation Act in Ireland, and said that he considered that nothing had occurred to justify the Government in their resolve. Lord Spencer held, upon a general review of the position of Ireland, that the Government were fully justified in the policy they had adopted. Lord Beaconsfield said that the declarations contained in the royal message as to the policy of the Government partook rather of an official than of a polemical character. He wished to know the precise nature of those active measures which they were told would be taken by her Majesty's Ministers in respect to the Treaty of Berlin. It would also be satisfactory to know, he said, what were the precise instructions given to the special ambassador at Constantinople, because, if he were invested with powers of an unlimited character, he might involve the country in a war without any one being actually responsible for such an event. He had no hesitation in expressing his conviction that, if the policy of the late Viceroy of India were carried out in relation to Afghanistan, it would result in a speedy and satisfactory settlement of the question of that country. Lord Granville vindicated the Irish policy of the Government, which, he said, they had carefully considered, and of which they were prepared to accept the responsibility. He was not alarmed about foreign affairs, but was conscious that there were points which would require great care in their management if serious complications were to be avoided. The object of the dispatch of the special embassy to Constantinople was to secure the fulfilment of certain conditions of the Treaty of Berlin, in relation to which the remonstrances of Sir H. Layard had long been neglected. The state of things with reference to the obligations of Turkey under the Treaty of Berlin was most unsatisfactory, and her Majesty's Government were satisfied that a better position of affairs could be brought about only by the united action of Europe. The address was moved in the House of Commons by Mr. Grey, and seconded by Mr. Mason. Sir Stafford Northcote declared that the Conservative party would support in opposition the policy it had maintained in office. The general tone of her Majesty's speech was of such a character that he could agree in the principles on which the Government intended to proceed. In accepting the Treaty of Berlin as the starting-point for the consideration of foreign relations, they were taking the wise, the only safe course for the country to adopt. The House ought to be more fully informed as to the nature and meaning of the appointment of Mr. Goschen as special ambassador to Constantinople; and he wanted to know what one of the speakers for the Government meant in speaking of "putting pressure" upon the Porte. Mr. Gladstone said that Mr. Goschen would have the powers of an ordinary ambassador. The Treaty of Ber-

lin gave the Government the right to insist upon the fulfillment of its stipulations; but Ministers were too well informed of the gravity of the question to come to a conclusion to put pressure upon the Porte until they were in full possession of all the circumstances which should regulate their conduct. A circular dispatch had been addressed to all the signatories to the Treaty of Berlin on the necessity of urging the execution of the unfulfilled stipulations of that instrument; but it was not intended to lay the dispatch on the table until it had borne its natural fruit in the adoption by other powers of a view conformable to that which her Majesty's Government entertained. In allowing the Peace Preservation Act for Ireland to expire, the Ministers were fully sensible of the heavy responsibility which must rest upon either the renewal or the abandonment of exceptional legislation of the sort.

Mr. Gladstone informed the House of Commons, May 27th, that Mr. Goschen, the special agent of the Government at Constantinople, had been instructed to inquire into the expediency of dispatching agents to the disturbed parts of Roumelia and Bulgaria, to obtain information in regard to the alleged persecutions of Mohammedans, which might help the Government in deciding upon the course it should take. On the next day, Mr. Gladstone acknowledged that in one of his public addresses he had spoken of the Anglo-Turkish Convention as "insane," and added that he could not retract the language, but he would not repeat it, because a repetition of it could only have the effect of disparaging an instrument as to which the country was not free to act. Sir Charles Dilke repeated an assurance that had been given by Lord Salisbury in 1878, that the country was under no engagements to foreign powers for the future, except those that were before the House, but he declined to state whether or not any diplomatic engagements which were not known to the House had been negotiated with any foreign power within the last five years. Secret agreements, he said, were sometimes necessary to meet the convenience of foreign powers, but the Ministry deprecated them.

Lord Camperdown called attention in the House of Lords, June 7th, to the finances of Cyprus. He designated the claim of the Turkish Government to the receipt of revenues from the island as a species of black-mail, declared the financial position of Cyprus intolerable, and remarked that in justice to its people no agreement to pay tribute should have been made. Lord Salisbury suggested that while the Government had imposed no additional obligation to Turkey upon the Cyprites, it had, by increasing their trade and commerce fourfold, considerably added to their means of paying the tribute. Lord Kimberley, representing the Government, remarked, July 8th, that the Secretary for Foreign Affairs was sensible of the difficulties in connection with Cyprus, and

that the whole question in its various branches, including the tenure of the island, would have to be considered by the Government. On the 11th of June Lord Carnarvon called attention to the distressed condition of the Armenians, and recommended the appointment of a Christian Governor-General, who should have the control, for the use of his district, of all or nearly all the revenue raised in that district. Lord Granville admitted that very little had been done to ameliorate the condition of the Armenians, though several commissions had been intrusted with the duty of examining into their grievances and suggesting remedies. The carrying out of the stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin in respect of those people was one of the objects for which he was endeavoring to secure the concerted action of the powers of Europe. Lord Salisbury had little hope of the success of a concert of the powers in bringing pressure to bear upon the Porte. His remedy, which he admitted to be a slow one, would be the action of consular agents in the Turkish provinces in letting in the light of public opinion on the atrocities perpetrated in those districts, and on the misgovernment of the pashas. The only alternative he saw to this was the terrible one of the extermination of the various races of which the populations of those provinces were composed, brought about by the miseries to which they were subjected. The Duke of Argyll called attention to the fact that one of the authors of the Treaty of Berlin had virtually said that no remedy existed for the state of things in Asia Minor, and pointed out that the Porte had undertaken in the treaty to carry out without delay the reforms demanded by the condition of the Armenians. He charged the Marquis with having prevented the insertion of an article in the treaty binding the powers to act together in seeing it carried out, and said that "a part of the political mess to which the present Government had succeeded was the task of reuniting the powers for the fulfillment of the treaty of which the late Government was so proud." The Armenian question was the subject of a debate in the House of Commons, July 25th, when Mr. Gladstone remarked that the concert of Europe was a thing of which the Government took a negative rather than a positive view; the Ministers had spoken rather of the evil that had resulted from disregarding it than of the probability of its continuing in existence. This view was brought out most clearly by the Anglo-Turkish Convention, which, while it had been barren so far as reforms were concerned, had in causing jealousy and ill-feeling been most productive. To a question asked in the House of Lords, July 8th, whether the Government had come to any determination as to the steps it would take in the event of the Porte declining or neglecting to be governed by the decision of the recent Conference at Berlin, Lord Granville replied that it was not the duty of the Government in answer to hypothetical ques-

tions to describe what its policy would be in possible contingencies, and that it would not be respectful to Turkey to make the assumption implied in the question. On the 30th Lord Granville stated that her Majesty had addressed a note to the Sultan, expressing the hope that he would, even at some sacrifice, accede to the unanimous wish of Europe respecting the fulfillment of the Treaty of Berlin. On the 3d of September, Sir W. Lawson spoke in the House of Commons in favor of absolute non-intervention. He deprecated the naval demonstration against Turkey and the course of the Government in acting without consulting Parliament, and urged it to explain, before Parliament adjourned, its position with reference to the Eastern question, and especially to the naval demonstration. Lord Hartington replied that the object of the naval demonstration was to show the Porte that the powers did not mean that the Treaty of Berlin should be set at naught. On the 5th Mr. Gladstone spoke in defense of the policy of the Government with reference to Turkey, and described it as being based upon the conviction that the former policy of allowing Turkey to think that its integrity would be maintained at any cost had led to frightful oppression of its Christian subjects. Sir W. Lawson having expressed an apprehension that the Government would unduly interfere in foreign affairs, he appealed to the antecedents of the ministers as affording the strongest possible guarantees against their engaging upon adventurous courses.

Lord Hartington stated in the House of Commons, June 7th, that the instructions which had been sent to Lord Ripon respecting the war in Afghanistan related in great part to contemplated negotiations of a very difficult and delicate character. The objects of the Government were to bring the military operations in Afghanistan to a close, to keep the communications secure as long as the troops remained in the country, to restrict military operations, and to avoid further collisions with the tribes beyond the limits of the positions occupied, and also to leave behind, when the troops should have retired, something like the prospect of a stable government. All arrangements that had been entered into must be respected, but an arrangement which would make necessary the permanent occupation of Candahar by a large force would not be viewed with favor. Lord Ripon would act upon military advice, and would consider the question of retention or abandonment on its merits, political and military, without being influenced by the fact of the positions having been acquired under the Treaty of Gundamuk, a treaty which must be considered as having ceased to exist. Lord Hartington further stated, July 27th, that considerable difficulty as well as delay had occurred in the negotiations; indeed, Lord Ripon had continued them against the advice of some of his counselors, who had at one time recommended their abandonment. No formal agree-

ment had yet been made with Abdurrahman Khan; he had simply been recognized as Ameer of Cabool, and had been offered such support as he would require to establish his position. No negotiations would at present be entered into with regard to Candahar or the other matters mentioned in the Treaty of Gundamak, which the Ameer had been informed would be treated as separate and independent subjects. The Ameer would not be allowed to have foreign relations with any power except the British; and the Government would not interfere in the domestic politics of the country. In the House of Lords, August 12th, Lord Camperdown asked for the production of the papers relative to the separation of Candahar from the rest of Afghanistan, and expressed an apprehension that that measure, which had so far been attended with unfortunate results, might lead to future troubles. Lord Granville spoke of the difficulty of going into a discussion on that subject at that moment. The Secretary of State for India had authorized him to state that the papers were being prepared for presentation, but it would require very careful consideration to decide what part of the information asked for could at present be produced. On the next day, the Marquis of Hartington, having explained before the House of Commons the military situation in Afghanistan, and remarked that nothing could be more unwise than to interfere with the discretion of military officers in whom the Government had confidence, added that Abdurrahman Khan would not be expected to receive a British envoy, but that the Indian Government would be represented by a native resident.

On the occasion of bringing down her Majesty's reply to the address, Lord Carnarvon, in the House of Lords, May 21st, approved the passages in which the policy of a confederation of the South African colonies was upheld, the intention of her Majesty to maintain the supremacy of the Crown in the Transvaal was announced, and the colonies were promised institutions based on large and liberal principles of self-government. He, however, cautioned the Government against too great haste in organizing those institutions, and against a summary withdrawal of the troops from South Africa, and recommended precautions against the importation of arms, and the cultivation of friendly relations with the Orange Free State. Lord Kimberley held that, although it might have been better if the Transvaal had not been annexed, still, the annexation having been accomplished, and announcement having been made to the Dutch settlers that the measure would not be receded from, it was desirable on all grounds to make it clear that the supremacy of the Crown would be maintained there. The question of the South African colonies was a complex one, and its difficulties had not been diminished since he was before at the Colonial Office; yet he was hopeful that hereafter all of the colonies, and the Orange Free State

also, with which the Government would cultivate friendly relations, would be united in one confederation. On the next day Mr. Gladstone spoke in the House of Commons in complimentary terms of the honor and capacity of Sir Bartle Frere, her Majesty's High Commissioner in South Africa, and observed that, even if it became desirable hereafter to make a change which would involve his retirement, no step would be taken to endanger the prospect of confederation. On the 4th of August the Government stated that since confederation, the special object for the promotion of which Sir Bartle Frere had been retained in South Africa, had failed, it had come to the conclusion that he should be recalled. The Ministers did this with regret, for they could not forget the high personal qualities and distinguished services of the Commissioner.

The Duke of Marlborough inquired in the House of Lords, June 7th, what statutory powers the Government considered to be in force in Ireland which would enable the Lord Lieutenant to send an additional police force into the country for the repression of crime, and to provide for its maintenance at the expense of the locality. Lord Spencer replied that the constabulary acts gave power to repress crime and to charge localities for any outrages committed within certain areas. A bill looking to the relief of distress in Ireland by the provision of appropriations of money to be spent in various works of public improvement, etc., was introduced by the Government in June. In the debate on the second reading of this bill, June 17th, Mr. Parnell said that no measure for the relief of distress would be adequate which did not deal with the tenure in land of the country, and that the assistance which it was proposed to give would not really reach the suffering people. Mr. O'Shaughnessy held that a case had arisen for a liberal grant from imperial funds. The Attorney-General for Ireland pointed out that the main object of the bill was to carry out the policy which had been sanctioned by the late Parliament. Another bill was introduced by Mr. Forster on behalf of the Government, the object of which was to confer on the Judges of the County Courts in certain distressed districts the right to grant compensation for improvements in cases where tenants were evicted for non-payment of rent. This measure was known as the Compensation for Disturbance Bill, and was limited in its operation to the years 1880 and 1881. It was opposed on the ground that it infringed upon the rights of the landlords, and was in effect a concession to the demands of the land agitators. Its friends replied to these attacks that the Irish landlords claimed greater power than existed in England, where, unless the contract contained a clause of reentry, no tenant could be turned out of his holding, solely for non-payment of rent. Another measure, called the Fixity of Tenure Bill, the operation of which would be to extend what is

known as the Ulster tenant-right over the whole of Ireland, was introduced without the concurrence of the Government. The Government deprecated the pressing of this measure as premature and calculated to forestall its action, but declined, in the discussion upon the subject, to make any pledge as to the character of the land act which it intended to bring in at the next session. Mr. Parnell declined to support the bill, because he did not consider it sufficient for a final settlement, and also thought that the Government ought to be allowed adequate time to deal with the question involved. This bill was lost on the first division. In the discussion of the Compensation for Disturbance Bill, July 6th, Mr. Gladstone admitted the exceptional nature of the measure, but insisted that it was demanded by exceptional circumstances. It was intended to maintain, not to invade, the rights of property, and to enable the state with a clear conscience to use its power to enforce the provisions of the law. The insinuation that it was intended to conciliate the partisans of Home Rule was absurd on its face. The course which the House was asked to adopt in constituting a new exception to the land act was justified because the necessity was strong, the situation in some parts of Ireland being equivalent to civil war; because the remedy was carefully adapted and limited to the necessity; and because effectual precautions had been taken against the House being betrayed unawares into the establishment of a dangerous precedent. On the other side, the bill was declared to be a dangerous measure of confiscation. One speaker asserted that it would ruin hundreds of landlords, break up many of their homes, and reduce their families to suffering, without rendering their tenantry more happy or contented. Lord Hartington disavowed all desire to support exceptional legislation without giving the case of the landlords full investigation. Nothing, therefore, would have induced him to approve of this measure but the strong conviction which was entertained by the Irish Government, and those responsible for the peace of Ireland, that something of the sort was absolutely necessary. Mr. Forster said the Government did not intend to say that the peace of Ireland could not be preserved without this bill, but had introduced it because the Ministers wished to be able to enforce the law with a good conscience, and they believed that, if an amendment of this character were not provided, they would have to enforce a law that was not altogether just. The bill was passed to its second reading by a vote of 295 to 217, and was finally passed July 27th and carried to the House of Lords, where its second reading was moved by Lord Granville, August 3d. Lord Granville supported the measure chiefly on account of the increasing number of evictions. He urged that if the House of Lords had not changed the land act of 1870 from the form in which it passed the House of Commons, by striking out the clauses

enabling the judge, on the eviction of a tenant for non-payment of rent, to discuss how far his default had been occasioned by the rent being excessive, no such bill would have been necessary. Lord Grey protested that, even though distress existed, the landlord ought not to be deprived by the law of the means of enforcing the payment of rent, as would substantially be done if the power of eviction were suspended; denied that the landlords had been harsh, or the tenants had done their best to pay their rents; and attributed the increase of evictions to the alarm engendered by the inflammatory speeches of the land agitators. Lord Salisbury depicted land agitation in Ireland as like a wild beast, which one could no more satisfy by concession than he could keep off a tiger by giving it his hand. Lord Cairns asserted that the bill was drawn up with an ingenuity which would make inevitable a collision in every case between landlord and tenant; for the tenants, unless they were different from the rest of mankind, would be impelled to make the claim for compensation in every case. The bill, he said, offered the tenant an easy way of getting a considerable sum of money without paying his rent, and would allow him to retain his land while he was making his claim. While he opposed this bill, he was nevertheless willing to consider a measure for Irish emigration, or one for the extension of tenant-right. Lord Beaconsfield declared that the bill was a prelude to the introduction of a similar measure with reference to English land, and urged its rejection as an act "for which the country would be grateful, and posterity would be proud." The bill was refused a second reading, and was consequently rejected by a vote of 282 to 51. The total vote, 333, was the largest that had been taken in the House of Lords for several years. The bill for the relief of distress was passed in the House of Commons, July 21st, and having been approved by the House of Lords, received the royal assent August 2d.

The Government was again questioned in the House of Commons concerning its intentions with respect to Ireland, August 6th. Mr. Forster replied that, while it deeply regretted the decision of the House of Lords, the Government did not propose to introduce another bill during the present session. He hoped that no need would arise for the employment of the military for any purpose in Ireland, but at the same time it was his duty to state that the Government would protect the officers of the courts of law in the discharge of their duties, while it would also fulfill its duty with the utmost consideration for the sufferings of the poor tenants. On the 23d of August Mr. Forster stated that the Government did not think it would be necessary to ask before the prorogation of Parliament for additional powers for the preservation of peace and the better security of life and property. There was certainly much cause for anxiety in the condition of parts of

Ireland. It was not an apprehension of a rising, for absolutely no fear of a rising existed, but the anxiety was in reference to outrages on individuals. The Government did not, however, consider that the condition was at present such as to warrant asking Parliament for special powers. If it should find, in the course of the autumn and winter, that it could not rely on the existing law, it would not hesitate to call Parliament together for the purpose of securing such additional powers as would be needed to enable it to fulfill its first duty in the protection of life and property. If the outrages rendering such action necessary should have been provoked by harsh proceedings on the part of the landlords, the demand for power of coercion would be accompanied with a demand for measures to put the relations of landlord and tenant on a better footing. (See IRELAND.)

While the estimates for the civil service were under consideration in the House of Commons, August 27th, the appropriations for the Irish constabulary were opposed by the Home Rulers with arguments directed against the constitutionality of the force, against its partly military organization, its armament, and the quality of its officers. It was also asserted that the measure would be inefficient as a means for protecting life and property. Mr. Forster agreed with the Irish members in regretting the state of things that required the existence of such a force, but argued that it was absolutely necessary in the present condition of Ireland. Mr. Bright referred to the important reforms which had been effected in Ireland during the last half-century, urged the necessity of a complete reorganization of the land system, and invited the Irish members to consider whether they were not pushing a good cause too far, and to rely for the reforms which they desired in cooperation with the Liberal party led by a Liberal Government. Mr. O'Connor Power replied that it was impossible for the Irish party to coöperate with any Government which was not prepared to restore the national independence of Ireland. On the 30th of August Mr. Forster was asked by Mr. Parnell whether, in the event of a coercion act being necessary, he would still bring in a land bill. An announcement that he would, Mr. Parnell believed, would produce a strong and beneficial public opinion among the landlords. Mr. Forster replied that he was now more hopeful than ever that there would be no need for a coercion bill. With regard to other legislation, he could only repeat that, if landlords should be found to any extent committing injustice, he should inform his colleagues that he could no longer be the instrument of the law to enforce that injustice. A bill for the registration of voters in Ireland, which had been brought in by an Irish member, and was taken up by the Government and passed through the House of Commons, was rejected by the House of Lords, August 25th. The Irish members, offended by the rejection, undertook to prevent the passage

of the Appropriation Bill through the House of Commons unless a clause embodying the essential features of the Registration Bill were added to it. Mr. Forster, speaking on this question, said that a perseverance in their course of proceeding by the House of Lords might lead many men to think whether some change in the constitution of that body was not advisable and indeed necessary. The amendments proposed by the Irish members were rejected, and the Appropriation Bill was finally passed.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Stafford Northcote, made his financial statement to the House of Commons, March 11th. The revenues of the previous year had fallen short of the estimates £2,195,000, to which must be added the deficit of £1,161,000, making a total deficit of £3,356,000. The cost of the Zooloo war, £5,138,000, had been largely paid by the Imperial Government, and the question of how repayments should to a certain extent be made by the colonies was under consideration. The expenditure for the new financial year was estimated at £81,486,000, and the revenue at £81,560,000, giving a surplus of £74,000, which would be increased by the operation of the new scale of probate duties. The revenue was finally fixed at £82,260,000, and the expenditure at £82,076,000. The financial statement of the Indian Government, made in February, was unexpectedly favorable, and appeared to show a surplus. Items were afterward discovered which greatly increased the obligations of the Government, and showed that it would have to meet a deficiency larger than it would be able to cope with unaided without serious derangement to its finances. It was agreed by the British Government that this deficiency should not be imposed on the Indian Treasury alone, but should be met out of imperial funds. Lord Hartington stated in the House of Commons, in July, that the whole amount of the deficiency would be £9,000,000, and that the excess of the charges for the present year over the estimates would be £3,500,000. Mr. Gladstone explained a supplementary budget in committee, June 12th, saying that the Government had been led to consider the financial interests of the country, partly on account of circumstances which it found already in existence, but mainly in connection with other circumstances which had occurred since it came into office. The surplus which had been provided in the original budget had more than disappeared under the £200,000 of supplementary estimates which had become necessary. In addition to this the claim must be considered which might arise in connection with the Indian deficiency, concerning which, however, it was impossible at present to make any definite proposal. Among the causes for which the present Government was responsible was a proposed reduction of the wine duties in the new tariff arrangements with France, which would entail a loss of from £230,000 to £240,000 in the present and £300,-

000 in the next year; changes which were proposed in the malt-tax, causing a further loss of £1,100,000 in the present year, which could be recovered by an addition of one penny to the income-tax. On the other hand, a proposed increase and adjustment of the license duties for the sale of alcoholic liquors would bring an increase of £305,000 in the present and £350,000 in future years. The total amount of the additions to the expenditure side would be £1,533,000, and the additions to the revenue, together with the surplus of £184,000 provided by Sir Stafford Northcote, would amount to £1,914,000, leaving a revised surplus of £381,000.

A bill relating to the law of burials was introduced in the House of Lords, May 27th, by the Lord Chancellor, who remarked that the existing law on the subject was unsatisfactory, and that a speedy settlement of the questions it raised was desirable. He held that burial was a civil right of universal necessity and great importance, but that it was fettered by ecclesiastical provisions which affected a large number of her Majesty's subjects and were antagonistic to the principles of religious liberty. At present there could be no service whatever in the churchyard over the unbaptized and persons who died by their own hands, while persons who dissented from the Church of England could be buried in the churchyards with the service of the Church of England only, if their friends desired any service. The grievance to dissenters was admitted, and it was neither a small nor a diminishing one. The bill he introduced proposed that the person in charge of, or responsible for, a funeral should be at liberty to give notice that the deceased was to be buried without the service of the Church of England; that at any burial under the act all persons should have access to the churchyard or graveyard in which the same should be solemnized, and any burial might be performed, at the option of the person having charge of, or being responsible for, the same, either without any religious service or with such Christian and orderly religious service at the grave as such person should think fit. Disorder at the grave, and any attempt under the guise of a religious service to bring into contempt the Christian religion, or the religion of any denomination of Christians, were declared to be misdemeanors under the act. Clergymen were authorized to perform the burial service of the Church of England in unconsecrated grounds, and to assist in parts of the service in cases where the reading of the whole service might be a cause of scruple to them, and seem inappropriate. The bill was opposed on its second reading by the Bishop of Lincoln, who urged that as the nonconformists no longer founded churchyards, they could not claim to have the control of the churchyards taken away from the clergy of the Establishment. The Archbishop of Canterbury argued in support of the measure that the present were danger-

ous times, when systems were advocated which threatened social and family life; and in such times Christians who revered one common God could not afford to aggravate their grievances. The Archbishop was supported in the debate by the Archbishop of York and the Bishops of Bath and Wells and of London, and the bill was passed to its second reading by a vote of 126 to 101. It was amended by the addition of clauses excluding from its provisions churchyards in parishes where burying-grounds are provided, and enlarging the discretion of the clergy as to the manner in which they should perform the burial service, and was passed to its third reading June 17th. On its second reading in the House of Commons, August 12th, the bill was supported by Mr. Osborne Morgan, who said that by the common law of England, which no one had attempted to alter, every parishioner was entitled to be buried in the parish churchyard. That right was a right in no way depending upon the creed which he professed or the religion of the church to which he belonged. It was a civic and not a religious right. Throughout the country, and especially in Wales, a great grievance existed because this right had not been recognized. The speaker believed that the amendments which the House of Lords had added had a tendency to defeat the purposes of the measure, and urged that they be stricken out. The further discussion turned upon the expediency of striking out the clause requiring that the services should be "Christian"—which, it was urged, established a distinction against the Jewish and other non-Christian religions—and the possibility of scandals occurring in case any other than the authorized services of the Church of England were permitted. The second reading was granted by a vote of 258 to 79. The amendments added by the House of Lords were thrown out in committee; this action was agreed to by the House of Lords, and the bill was finally passed September 6th.

A bill for the protection of occupiers of land against the ravages of "ground-game" (hares and rabbits) was introduced by the Government in the House of Commons, May 27th. Sir W. Harcourt, who had charge of the measure, remarked that it was not intended to deal with the general question of the game laws, but only with their effect upon the relation between landlord and tenant, so far as it bore upon the rights with respect to ground-game. The bill gave the occupier of the land the concurrent and inalienable right to kill all the ground-game on his occupation, and made any contract he might agree to for waiving that right incapable of enforcement at law. It was opposed in discussion by representatives of the landed interest, chiefly with the argument that its provisions infringed upon the freedom of contract, but was passed August 27th. The House of Lords added amendments establishing a "close-time," and limiting the right to shoot to one person on the farm. These amend-

ments were rejected by the House of Commons and receded from by the House of Lords, and the bill was finally passed, September 6th.

In offering a bill for taking the census in England, July 12th, Lord Enfield in the House of Lords said that it had not been thought advisable to collect religious statistics, as the attempt would involve much expense and difficulty, and was not likely to be rewarded with a satisfactory degree of accuracy. Lord Cranbrook objected to the omission of a religious census, which was taken in connection with the census of every country in Europe, including Ireland and Scotland. Lord Bradbourne was glad that the religious element was not to be included, because he thought it was not desirable to draw fine lines between the members of the Church of England and nonconformists. The Census Bill was finally passed without any provision for compiling religious statistics. (See CENSUS.)

An act, which was passed to provide for the safe carriage of grain-cargoes, authorizes the Board of Trade to take precautions as to the manner in which cargoes of corn, rice, paddy, pulse, seeds, and nuts or nut-kernels are stowed, and gives it power to impose penalties for false statements. The object of the act is the protection of persons connected with merchant-shipping and vessels carrying the kind of cargoes described.

Another important measure which became a law was relative to the liability of employers for injuries suffered by workmen while engaged in their service. Another abolished imprisonment for debt in Scotland.

A resolution was adopted by the House of Commons, July 17th, by a vote of 171 to 116, condemning the proposed erection in Westminster Abbey of a statue to Prince Louis Napoleon, son of the late Emperor Napoleon III, to which the Dean of the abbey had consented, as inconsistent with the national character of the edifice. The resolution as originally offered contained a clause declaring the erection calculated to impair the good feeling between England and France, which was struck out. The project to erect the statue in the abbey was abandoned in consequence of this vote.

A resolution was moved by Sir Wilfred Lawson in the House of Commons, June 18th, to the effect that the power of restraining the issue or renewal of license to sell intoxicating liquors ought to be placed in the hands of the inhabitants of the district within which the license would be in force. The mover admitted that his resolution embodied a principle of the Permissive Bill which he had before advocated, but claimed that as a whole it was distinct from that measure. He further remarked that, although he was ready to consider any fair claim for compensation, he did not consider himself called upon to mention it in his resolution. Mr. Gladstone said that the Government would exercise no pressure on the subject in either way. He admitted that legis-

lation which would remove opportunities for temptation would be useful in checking drunkenness. Among the many objects pressing for legislation, he regarded the reform of the licensing laws as an essential part of the work of the present Parliament, and he hoped that the settlement of it would include a reasonable application of the principle of local option. The resolution was adopted by a vote of 229 to 203. Lord Onslow called attention in the House of Lords, July 3d, to the report of the committee of the same House which had been appointed in 1877 to inquire into the subject of intemperance. He declared himself in favor of the principle of local option, and asked the Government what it intended to do in the matter. The Bishop of Carlisle appealed to the Government to carry out the recommendations of the committee for a further restriction of the hours in which the sale of liquors should be allowed. Lord Fife replied that the Government hoped to be able to introduce a measure on the subject at no distant date.

A resolution for the abrogation of the provisions under which American cattle are slaughtered at the port of landing was offered by Mr. Arthur Arnold in the House of Commons, August 8th. The mover maintained, in support of his resolution, that the present system partook of the nature of a disguised protection, by which the English farmer and butcher were benefited at the expense of the consumer. Mr. J. Howard said that, if American cattle were subjected to restrictive legislation, it was the fault of the Americans themselves, who did not take means to prevent the spread of contagious epizootic disease. The question was not one of free trade, but of sanitary regulation. The motion was lost.

Parliament was prorogued September 8th. The Queen said in her speech:

I continue to receive assurances of the most friendly character from all foreign powers. The failure of the Sublime Porte to execute, according to its engagement, a plan which was agreed upon in April last for the determination of the Ottoman frontier lying toward Montenegro, has caused unfortunate delays in the settlement of that question, and the Treaty of Berlin has not yet taken effect in other points of importance which remained open at the commencement of the session. The Governments which were parties to that treaty have communicated to the Sultan their judgment on the means of bringing to a satisfactory settlement the Greek and Montenegrin frontier questions, on the administrative organization of the European provinces of Turkey, and on the principal reforms required in the Asiatic provinces occupied by Armenians. For the attainment of the objects in view, I continue to place reliance on the fact that the concert of Europe has been steadily maintained in regard to the Eastern question, and that the powers which signed the treaty are pressing upon the Sublime Porte, with all the authority which belongs to their united action, the measures which, in their belief, are best calculated to insure tranquillity in the East.

I have not been unmindful, during the few months which have elapsed since I last addressed you, of the considerations which I stated would guide my policy on the northwestern frontier of my Indian Empire. Measures have already been taken for the complete military evacuation of northern Afghanistan, and some

progress has been made toward the pacification and settlement of the country. A renewal of hostilities by the Afghans, under Ayoub Khan, has rendered necessary further military operations in southern Afghanistan. The prompt measures taken by the Government of India for the relief of the garrison of Candahar, and the conspicuous ability and energy displayed by my officers and troops in the execution of those measures, resulting in the brilliant victory recently gained by Sir Frederick Roberts, will, I trust, speedily bring to an honorable termination the war in that division of the country. I regret that it has not hitherto been possible to give you such information on the general state of Indian finance, and the recent miscarriages in presenting the accounts of military expenditure, as you would justly require before entering on a practical consideration of the subject. You may, however, rest assured that I shall redeem my pledge to supply you with this information at the earliest period within my power.

No advance has recently been made in the project of a South African confederation, nor could advantage arise from endeavors to press it forward, except in proportion to the favorable movement of public opinion in that portion of the empire. The general state of affairs in South Africa is, however, on the whole, satisfactory, except in Basutoland, where I trust that a moderate and conciliatory policy may allay the agitation caused by the enforcement of the Disarmament Act.

Her Majesty concluded with reference to the favorable harvest; to the "probable improvement in the condition of the people of Ireland," and to the acts passed by the Parliament, among which were named those on burials, education, the liability of employers, ground-game, the repeal of the malt duty, savings-banks, post-office money-orders, the condition of merchant seamen, and grain-cargoes.

Mr. Gladstone spoke of the course and policy of the Government on the principal questions it had to consider, at the Lord Mayor's banquet, November 9th. For Ireland, it would be the duty of the Government again to examine the land laws, and it would not scruple, if that was deemed necessary, again to call the Legislature to deal with the subject. Anxious as it was to be associated with practical improvements in the laws of the land, it recognized the duty of enforcing the law for the purposes of order as above every other duty. It must first look to the law as it stood, to ascertain what its fair and just administration meant; but the obligation incumbent upon it to protect every citizen in the enjoyment of his life and his property might under certain circumstances compel it to ask for an increase of power and authority, when it would not shrink from its duty. The struggle in South Africa was regarded as one "carried on by means of colonists, and growing out of a policy which has been the result of their counsels in the exercise of their own independent rights, yet still a struggle which we can not but watch with a close and deep anxiety." When the present administration came into office, Mr. Gladstone continued, it found an Anglo-Indian force of about 70,000 men engaged in sustaining the military operations that had been carried on in Afghanistan. It had sought to secure the independence of the people of the

country and to restore their friendly relations with the Indian Empire. It had not been able to accomplish all that was wished, but a part of the country had been restored to a more hopeful condition, and the military force engaged there had been diminished by between 20,000 and 30,000 men. Toward the solution of the Eastern question, the Government had been able to adopt the declaration and to work for the purpose which had been authentically declared on the part of the Government which it succeeded. The late Prime Minister had declared, justly, two years before, that the Treaty of Berlin was a treaty which, if fully executed, promised to confer great benefits upon Europe, and had stated, with truth and justice, that England would not be the power that would shrink from any of the obligations connected with its execution, and had expressed an expectation that, within a very short period, its several provisions would take effect. When the present Cabinet came into office, it found that many of the most important parts of the treaty still remained unfulfilled. It at once declared its intention to endeavor to secure their execution. It had not acted in the spirit of an enemy to Turkey, but as its friend, because, said Mr. Gladstone, "we endeavored to bring it to a policy by which, and by which alone, as we are convinced, it may have a promise of continued existence. . . . This we believe," he concluded, "that for the continued existence of Turkey, of the Turkish power, either to give a chance of that existence, or to justify that existence, two things are necessary: the one, the fulfillment of international engagements; and the other, that the condition of the people over whom the Ottoman power is reigning shall be rendered tolerable by good and equal law."

Lord Granville, speaking at a Liberal meeting in Hanley, November 27th, said that it was painful and discreditable that a want of security for life and property should exist in a part of Ireland; that it was impossible that such a state of things should continue; and that on the meeting of Parliament the appeal which the Government would make to it would not consist in a mere demand for extraordinary powers which might be best fitted to strengthen the hands of the administration in the particular emergency, but should be "for remedies which, while they give her Majesty's Government the fittest means for dealing with present disorder, will also prepare the way on sound principles for the future contentment of the people." In reply to attacks which had been made by Lord Salisbury, his lordship showed that the foreign policy of the Government had been consistently governed by a purpose to secure the fulfillment of the Treaty of Berlin and to maintain the concert of the powers. He believed it had been proved to be possible for the powers in the face of a question of immense importance to agree "to put in due subordination their own direct and personal interests, and unite for the purpose of bringing to bear their

influence for settling the general question." He had dealt with foreign Governments in a frank, straightforward manner. That frankness had been reciprocated, and the demeanor of the foreign representatives with whom he had come in contact had confirmed him in the opinion that "the old saw was true that 'honesty is the best policy.'"

The new session of Parliament was called to meet January 6, 1881.

An inquiry into the railway disaster of December 28, 1879, at the bridge of the North British Railway over the river Tay, Scotland, when the bridge was broken down, and the train with all the persons upon it was thrown into the river, was begun before a commission of the Board of Trade, January 3d. The investigation resulted in the presentation of two reports, both condemning the construction of the bridge, and attributing its downfall to inherent defects. The minority report, by Mr. Rothery, attributed the responsibility for faults of design in the bridge wholly, for faults of construction principally, to Sir Thomas Bouch, the engineer of the bridge. The majority report agreed as to the responsibility of Sir Thomas Bouch, but did not regard it as within the province of the court to express judgment respecting it.

Great anxiety was felt, from and after the 24th of March, respecting the safety of her Majesty's training-ship *Atlanta*, which had set sail from Portsmouth four months before, with three hundred and twenty persons on board, for a cruise in the West Indies. She was an old wooden sailing-frigate, which had been commissioned as a training-ship in 1878, and was considered by the Admiralty sound, stanch, and well officered. Vessels were sent in search of the *Atlanta*, but no clew could be found to her fate, and the Admiralty announced in the month of May that little hope was entertained that she was still afloat. An inquiry was ordered into the fitness of the vessel for the service on which she was employed, the report of which, published at the end of the year, was favorable to the soundness of the vessel.

The Annual Autumnal Congress of the Sanitary Institute of Great Britain met at Exeter, September 21st, under the presidency of Lord Fortescue. Papers were read on "The Sanitation of Ancient and Modern Times compared," on "The Sanitary Condition of the Camps in the Crimea," on "Cleansing Sewers," on "Woman as a Sanitary Reformer," on "The Application of the Teachings of Science to Modern Life," and other subjects. A resolution was passed, to be forwarded to the Minister of the United States, expressing satisfaction at the admirable manner in which the city of Memphis, Tennessee, had been drained.

The Social Science Congress met at Edinburgh, September 29th, and was opened with an address by Lord Reay, who compared the social system of the Continent with that of

England. Addresses were delivered by the Lord Advocate on "Criminal Law Administration," and by other speakers on subjects relating to the drama and education. Sir A. K. Shuttleworth read a paper in the Economy and Trade Department on charitable endowments, in which he pointed out that the income derived from existing charities was wasted and misapplied. In the Health Section, Dr. Alfred Carpenter and Dr. Little discussed the subject of the fogs in London. Mr. Hastings, M. P., spoke of the useful measures of legislation which the Congress had promoted, and expressed the belief that its deliberations would materially assist the Home Secretary in his action with reference to juvenile delinquents.

A conference of members of the Farmers' Alliance, October 18th, adopted resolutions urging the Government to pass a compulsory act for giving tenants security for capital invested in improvements, and recommending the abolition of the law of distress, and measures for securing to ratepayers their legitimate share in county government, and for a fair apportionment of local burdens between landlord and tenant.

A deputation of peers, land-owners, and occupiers called on the Local Government Board early in November, to press upon the Government the necessity of introducing legislation in the next session of Parliament, to enable local action to be taken for dealing with floods and preventing the injury caused by them. The Duke of Bedford introduced the deputation, and the Speaker of the House of Commons urged that as the question was one which affected more or less every watershed in the kingdom, it should be dealt with by a general Government measure. Mr. Dodson, of the Board, admitted the pressing character of the evil, and promised to lay the subject before his colleagues.

The House of Keys of the Isle of Man has adopted an electoral reform bill, by which the franchise is extended to women who are householders or owners of property, and a burial bill, based upon similar provisions to those of the English burial bill, but granting larger liberties to nonconformists.

GREECE, a kingdom of Southeastern Europe. Reigning King, George I, born December 24, 1845, second son of the reigning King of Denmark; elected King of the Hellenes by the National Assembly at Athens, March 18 (30), 1863; accepted the crown June 6, 1863; declared of age by a decree of the National Assembly, June 27, 1863; married October 27, 1867, to Olga, daughter of the Grand Duke Constantine of Russia, born August 22, 1851. Their children are: Constantinos, Duke of Sparta, born August 2, 1868; George, born June 24, 1869; Alexandra, born August 30, 1870; Nicholas, born January 21, 1872; Maria, born March 3, 1876; Princess Olga, who was born April 6, 1880, died a few months later.

The area is 50,123 square kilometres; the

population, according to the census of 1879, is 1,679,775.*

The movement of population was as follows:

YEARS.	Marriages.	Births, exclusive of still-births.	Deaths.	Excess of births.
1875.....	10,250	44,886	30,986	13,450
1876.....	9,758	47,248	31,088	16,165
1877.....	9,472	46,355	31,280	15,075
1878.....	8,003	44,921	30,588	14,333

In the budget for 1880 the receipts were estimated at 46,716,857 drachmas, and the expenditures at 52,655,455 drachmas (1 drachma = 19·3 cents).

The foreign debt, in 1880, amounted to 196,293,611 drachmas, and the home debt to 118,906,400 drachmas—in all, 315,200,011 drachmas.

The strength of the army on a peace footing, according to a law passed in 1877, is to be as follows:

Infantry.....	16,186
Chasseurs.....	4,032
Cavalry.....	845
Artillery.....	1,959
Engineers.....	1,104
Sanitary troops.....	800
Total.....	24,876

There is in addition a corps of gendarmes comprising 2,508 men.

According to a statement made by Minister Trikoupis, the army can be raised within twenty days to 35,000 men. The total number of men capable of bearing arms amounts to 228,649 men. The fleet in 1880 consisted of two ironclads, six screw-steamers, three schooners, two cutters, and one royal yacht; total, fourteen vessels.

The only railroad is the line connecting Athens with the Piræus, which was built in 1868, and has a length of twelve kilometres. The telegraphic lines were of a total length of 3,068 kilometres in 1878, and carried 315,771 telegrams. Of post-offices there existed 145 in 1877. The number of letters carried was 2,683,000, of postal cards 4,600, of newspapers 1,867,000.

The negotiations with Turkey concerning the territorial cession to be made to Greece, in accordance with the Treaty of Berlin, did not lead to a satisfactory result. In February, M. Delyannis, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated in the Chamber that they had failed. The claims of Greece were warmly supported by France and Italy, and the accession of the Liberal party to power in England also gave them the powerful patronage of the latter country, which even took the lead in new measures for coercing the Turks to come to terms with the Greeks. When the Turkish Government continued to yield to the joint representations made by the great powers, a

conference of plenipotentiaries met at Berlin on June 15th, which unanimously agreed upon a new line of demarkation between Turkey and Greece. By the adoption of this line, Greece would receive an accession to her territory of 8,500 square miles, with 535,000 inhabitants. The Greek Government at once accepted the decision of the Conference, and addressed a note to that effect to the powers, at the same time paying a tribute to the spirit of justice by which they had been guided. At Athens there were three days' festivities in honor of the decision of the Conference. The ancient monuments, the surrounding hills, and the city were illuminated, and enthusiastic demonstrations made before the legations of the six powers whose plenipotentiaries attended the Conference. Hundreds of telegrams were received, expressing the universal joy and gratitude of all classes of the people. As the Turkish Government showed a resolute resistance to the decision of the Conference, the King of Greece in July signed a decree ordering the mobilization of troops. The population of the districts to be ceded intimated that, if Greece would not move very soon, they would be obliged to withdraw their offers of assistance. The King personally visited the sovereigns of Russia, England, Germany, Austria, and Italy, in order to secure their further assistance in the Greco-Turkish dispute. The army was rapidly increased, and at the beginning of September 42,000 men of the active army were reported to be under arms. On September 21st the King, in opening the new session of the Chamber of Deputies, stated in his speech from the throne that the execution of the decision of the powers imposed action upon the Government, and that he was firmly resolved to effect as speedily as possible the object for which he had made great naval and military preparations. A decree was issued at the same time, ordering the formation of fifty battalions of infantry each of nine hundred and sixty men. The extraordinary reserves were to number 10,000 men, and their time of service was to be a year and a half. At a council of war held in Athens in October, under the presidency of M. Coumoundouros, it was resolved to send an army of 24,000 men against Thessaly, and another of 36,000 against Epirus. There were to be, further, 20,000 troops held in reserve. On December 4th the Prime Minister, M. Coumoundouros, stated that the Government intended to continue the military and naval preparations, so as to be able to execute the decisions arrived at by the Berlin Conference; at the same time, he would endeavor to attain this object with the help of the European concert, but would, in every case, reserve his liberty of action.

The strife of parties in the Chamber of Deputies, proceeding mostly from personal, not political, differences of opinion, continued to be as violent and unceasing as in former years. At the beginning of January, the Ministry was

* For a table showing the area and population of each of the nomarchies into which the kingdom is divided, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

reconstituted as follows: M. Coumoundouros, President of the Council and Minister of the Interior; M. Augherinos, Minister of Education; M. Papamichalopoulos, Minister of Finance; M. Delyannis, Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Valamakis, Minister of Justice; M. Bouboulis, Minister of Marine; M. Valtinos, Minister of War. On January 26th the Chamber, by 97 against 73 votes, refused to grant to the Ministry 2,500,000 drachmas of a new loan of 60,000,000 for the defrayal of current expenses. The Ministry consequently resigned, but when M. Trikoupis informed the King that the Opposition agreed that the vote did not raise a Cabinet question, the King requested M. Coumoundouros to remain in office. The Chamber subsequently voted the grant demanded by the Ministry. On March 18th M. Coumoundouros again resigned, as the Chamber adopted, by 99 votes against 93, a resolution moved by the Opposition that the budget was not adapted to the financial condition of the country, and expressly disapproved of the policy of the Government. A new Ministry was formed under the presidency of M. Trikoupis, who took the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, and for a time that of Finance also. M. Trikoupis resigned in his turn, in August, when the Chamber of Deputies elected, by 92 votes against 55, the Opposition candidate as its President, and M. Coumoundouros became once more Prime Minister.

GREEK CHURCH. The aggregate population connected with the Greek or Orthodox Eastern Church was estimated in 1880 at about 78,000,000.* It is the predominant Church in seven countries in the following order: Greece, where 98·9 per cent. of the total population belong to it; Servia, 94·5 per cent.; Roumania, 87·4 per cent.; Montenegro, 82·5 per cent.; Russia, 68·6 per cent.; Bulgaria, 67·7 per cent.; and Eastern Roumelia, 60·6 per cent. In the Austro-Hungarian monarchy it numbers about 8 per cent. of the total population.

The plan of holding a General Conference of Eastern Orthodox Bishops was discussed in several Russian and Greek newspapers. It was originally proposed by the "St. Petersburg Section of the Society of Friends of Religious Enlightenment" to the Holy Synod of Russia. The patriarchs of the East and other Orthodox bishops were to be invited to attend the consecration of the Church of the Saviour at Moscow, August 12 to September 7, 1880, and to consult together with the Russian bishops concerning many important questions relating to the Orthodox Church. As subjects well worthy of engaging the attention of the Eastern bishops were designated, in Russian papers, the Bulgarian question, the Rascolniks of Russia and the liturgical books, the general administration of the Eastern Church, the establishment of a patriarchate in Russia, and church unity. A paper of Athens, the "Threskeutike

Phone," remarked on this plan: "Doubtless a synod of representatives of all the autocephalous Orthodox Churches, with equal rights, saving only the precedence of honor reserved to the oecumenical and other patriarchs of the East, meeting from time to time at Constantinople as the first in honor of the churches, or in any other city that might be determined on, would contribute greatly to the settlement of questions of general interest, and would have in its hands the supreme administration of the whole Eastern Church."

The "Threskeutike Phone," referred to above, is the first religious newspaper of Greece. It was established at the beginning of 1880, and is edited by A. Diomedes Griacus, Professor of Theology in the University of Athens, and Ignatius Moshake, a theological instructor in the same institution. The editors are well acquainted with the literature of Western Europe, and by the establishment of the first Church newspaper, will endeavor to give to their Church an institution which has long been in a flourishing condition in the Protestant and Catholic Churches of America and Europe. Even in its first numbers it discussed several important reform questions, as the convocation of an Oecumenical Council of the Orthodox Church, and the reestablishment of a patriarchate in Russia.

An important event in the history of the Russian Church is the resignation of Count Demetrius Andreevitch Tolstoy as chief procurator of the Holy Synod. Count Tolstoy, who was made chief procurator June 3, 1865, and Minister of Public Instruction the following year, had but one predecessor who held the two offices at once, Prince Alexander Nicolaevitch Galitzin, in 1816-'17. He was the twenty-second chief procurator since the Holy Synod was established, in 1721. He is succeeded as chief procurator by the Privy-Councillor Constantine Petrovitch Pobedonostchev, who, however, will not be at the same time Minister of Public Instruction.

The "Tserkovnaia Vaistnik" says of the new procurator that some years ago the Ecclesiastical Academy of St. Petersburg counted him one of its most honored members. The St. Petersburg "Vaidomosti" says that he "is known, not only as a man of high culture and much learning, but also, in the best and fullest sense, a thorough Russian. Not long since a university professor, he has attained, in a comparatively short time, the position of a member of the Emperor's Council. In the wider sphere of duties opened up before him he has not fallen behind in literary labor. And, withal, he has occupied a position of activity and influence in the new enterprise of the volunteer fleet, which seems likely to play an important part in Russia's future. What he has done in the past is a pledge that in the new post to which he has been called he will discharge its duties, not in a merely formal way, but with an earnestness and zeal so needful at this time for the orthodox world." The Russian Church continues to be

* For detailed statistics, see "Annual Cyclopædia" of 1879.

in the widest sense of the word a state Church. The Holy Synod in 1880 caused a manifesto to be read in the western and central provinces, solemnly consigning the revolutionists to eternal punishment. "Russia being ruled by the anointed of the Lord," says the manifesto, "it is the sacred duty of every subject to obey the behests of the sovereign, and to contribute to the extermination of the rebels." An official list of the Russian episcopate for the year 1880 gives the following statistics: Of the prelates in active service, there are in Russia proper three metropolitans, thirteen archbishops, thirty-six bishops in charge of dioceses, and twenty-two assistant bishops (entitled vicar-bishops). The Exarchate of Georgia has one archbishop, two bishops, and three vicar-bishops. In America there is the bishop of the Aleutian Islands and Alaska. These, then, number in all eighty-one. There are retired, two archbishops and eleven bishops. The entire number of Russian bishops is therefore ninety-four. In Russia, with very few exceptions, the bishops, on their first entrance upon the episcopal office, serve for a few years as vicar-bishops, and are then transferred to the charge of a diocese—very rarely being, in case of survival, the successors of the bishops to whom they were assistants. The Orthodox Missionary Society for Russia, of which the Metropolitan of Russia is president, has had for years a special missionary paper, called "The Missioner." It has now been deemed best to suspend for the present the publication of a special missionary journal, and "The Missioner" has been joined to the "Moscow Diocesan Gazette."

The "Golos" of Moscow stated in January, that in the prison of Suzealya there were at that time an archbishop and two bishops of the Starobryatsi, or Old Believers, their only crime being that of having held to their faith and performed their office accordingly. One had been in prison twenty-six years, another twenty-two, and the third seventeen years.

In Turkey, the Patriarchate of Constantinople has suffered a considerable loss in its ordinary revenues in consequence of the troubled times; and the Patriarch, who is trying to improve the education of the clergy, finds himself straitened in his designs for lack of means. The Greek community in London, therefore, sent the Patriarch in 1880 a voluntary contribution of £104, that of Manchester £40, that of Marseilles 1,810 francs, and that of Vienna 1,077 francs. In Asia Minor, also, several persons have determined to pay for the education, at the Theological School of Chalde, of theological students from their own part of the country.

The Bulgarians endeavor to carry through the nationality principle in the organization of a national church as well as in the building up of a state embracing all Bulgarian districts of the Balkan Peninsula. They desire every Bulgarian, wherever he lives, to be under the jurisdiction of the Bulgarian Exarch, so that in

one and the same city there could be two Orthodox bishops, a thing quite contrary to the canons of the Orthodox Church. The Greek ecclesiastics think that a Bulgarian priest living at Constantinople ought not to be subject to any other than the œcumenical Patriarch, just as a Greek priest, living in St. Petersburg, would be subject to the Metropolitan of St. Petersburg. The Bulgarians do not want any fellowship with the Greeks, and the Greeks bitterly complain of the hostilities displayed by the Bulgarians toward them. In March, 1880, the Greek Patriarch of Constantinople directed the attention of the Porte to the outrages committed by the Bulgarian population of Eastern Roumelia toward the Greek population.

The Bishops of Bosnia and Herzegovina were officially notified by the Patriarch of Constantinople of a convention concluded between the Patriarch and the Government of Austro-Hungary. The convention was signed on April 6th at the Patriarchate in the Fanar, between the Patriarch and Count Dubski, the Austrian representative. Some difficulties were raised at first by the Porte, on account of the undetermined character of the occupation; but these were between the Porte and the Patriarch, and not between the former and the Austrian Government, and were finally overcome.

As the population connected with the Greek Church of Bosnia and Herzegovina belongs to the Serbian nationality, the occupation of the two provinces by Austria naturally awakened a wish among the Servians of Hungary for the consolidation of all the churches of the Serbian nationality under the jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Carlovitz.* The Serbian nationalists hoped in this way to obtain a strong reinforcement in their struggle against the Magyars. The central Government of Austro-Hungary was urged to avail itself of the advantages which the submission of the churches of the two provinces would have for the confirmation of the Austrian rule, and for the extension of Austrian influence on the Balkan Peninsula. The Hungarian Government of Budapest did not ignore the dangers which an increase of the Serbian element of the monarchy might involve for the predominance of the Magyars, and therefore made greater efforts than ever before to secure for the highest offices in the Serbian Church men devoted to the Hungarian interests. On December 11, 1879, the Patriarch of Carlovitz, Iratchkovits, was relieved "at his own request" from the administration of the Serbian patriarchate, and in his place the Bishop of Bacz (German Andjelits) was appointed "administrator of the Serbian patriarchate." Bishop Andjelits was regarded by the Serbian nationalists as the most devoted partisan of the Magyar Government, and it was expected that the Serbian Congress would not elect him Patriarch. Many

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" of 1879 for an historical sketch of the Serbian Church.

of the prominent Servians protested against his appointment as an illegal act, because they denied the right of the Government to appoint an administrator of the patriarchate. In October, 1880, the assemblies of the eparchies (dioceses) generally demanded the immediate convocation of the Servian Church Congress. The majority of the bishops have been gained over by the Magyar Government, and take side against the demands of the national Servian party. The Greek Church of the Roumanian nationality in the lands of the Hungarian crown has, until 1880, been on better terms with the Magyar Government. But the new elections, held in 1880, for the Roumanian Church Congress resulted in favor of the nationalists, and the Hungarian Government has now adopted the same hostile policy against the Roumanians which has for several years been pursued with regard to the Servians. The Roumanian Church Congress was to have met on October 13, 1880, at Hermannstadt. But a few days before, the Metropolitan Miron countermanded the convocation of the Church Congress, and the Roumanian nationalists generally denounce him as a tool of the Magyar Government.

In the Synod of the Municipality of Roumania, which met in November, 1880, Bishop Ghenadie, of Argesh, moved the establishment of a theological faculty, and declared his readiness to devote a considerable portion of his revenues for this purpose. The lower clergy of Roumania are generally in a deplorable condition. Their income is utterly insufficient, and they are generally destitute of theological knowledge.

Russian papers give the following statistics as to the number of persons belonging to the Orthodox Eastern Church in the western part of the United States: There are in the diocese of the Aleutian Islands and Alaska, including about 200 Slavs and Greeks at San Francisco, 11,572 members of the Eastern Church. The church-buildings are nine in number, including one at San Francisco.

The head of the Russian mission in Japan, the Rev. Nicolas Kassatkin, was, in 1880, consecrated as missionary bishop for Japan. He has been laboring in Japan as a missionary since 1861, when he was sent there for the avowed purpose of exploring the country with a view to religious propaganda. He gave eight years' preparation to this work, studying the language and manners of the country, and translating into Japanese several of the sacred books of the Russian Church. In 1869 he had, however, converted only three persons. As his confidence in the success of his work was unbounded, he returned to Russia for the purpose of soliciting the establishment in Japan of a religious mission. He obtained it, and since his return to Japan the conversions have for ten years continued to increase. In 1875 there were already in the empire 500 Orthodox-Greek Christians; a year after, more than 1,000; in 1878, 4,115; and in 1880 they numbered

more than 6,000. In the summer of 1878 there were six priests and 88 unconsecrated Japanese preachers working for the propagation of the Orthodox-Greek faith. Among the native priests, the most prominent, from his influence and the persecutions to which he has been subjected, is a converted bonze, named Paul Savabé.

GUATEMALA (REPÚBLICA DE GUATEMALA), the most westerly of the five independent states of Central America. For statistics relating to area, population, etc., reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1875. Here follows a list of the twenty-two departments into which the republic is divided, and their capitals:

DEPARTMENTS.	Capitals.
Guatemala.....	Guatemala.
Amatitlan.....	Amatitlan.
Escuintla.....	Escuintla.
Sacatepéquez.....	Antigua Guatemala.
Chimaltenango.....	Chimaltenango.
Sololá.....	Sololá.
Totonicapán.....	Totonicapán.
Suchitepéquez.....	Mazatenango.
Retalhulén.....	Retalhulén.
Quezaltenango.....	Quezaltenango.
San Marcos.....	San Marcos.
Huehuetenango.....	Huehuetenango.
Quiché.....	Santa Cruz del Quiché.
Santa Rosa.....	Cuajiniquilla.
Jutiapa.....	Jutiapa.
Jalapa.....	Jalapa.
Chiquimula.....	Chiquimula.
Zacapa.....	Zacapa.
Izabal.....	Izabal.
Alta Verapaz.....	Cobán.
Baja Verapaz.....	Salamá.
Peten.....	La Libertad, or Saculuc.

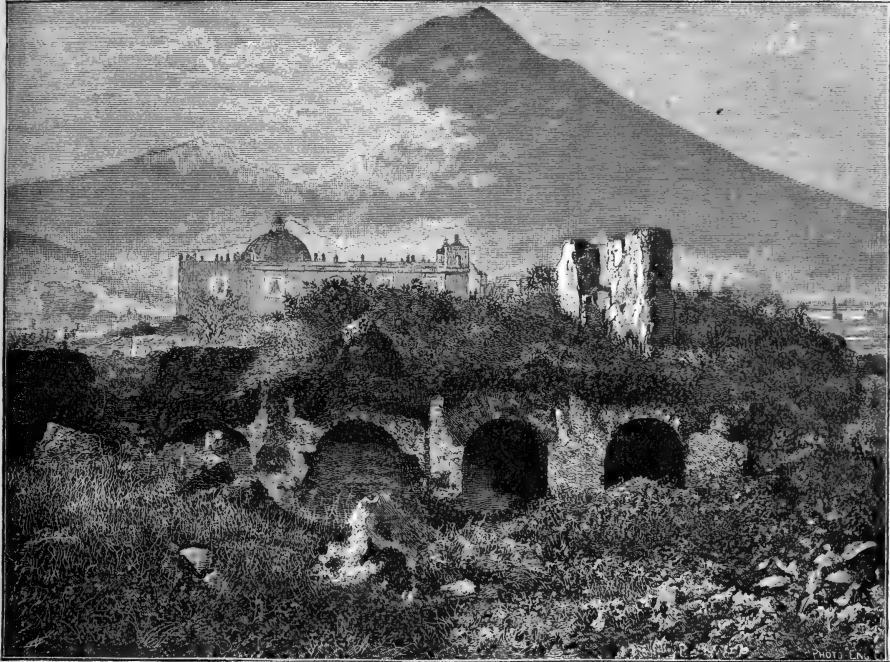
The President of the Republic is General Rufino Barrios, elected May 7, 1873, and re-elected in 1880 for a period of six years. The Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Interior and Justice, Señor Don Fernando Cruz; Foreign Affairs, Dr. L. Montúfar; War, Finance, and Public Credit, Señor Don J. M. Barrundia; Public Instruction, Señor Don Delino Sanchez; Public Works, Señor Don M. Herrera.

The Guatemala Minister to the United States is Señor Don A. Ubico, accredited in 1880; and the Consul-General (for the Union) at New York is Señor Don Jacobo Baiz.

The United States Minister (resident in Guatemala and accredited to the five Central American republics) is Dr. Cornelius A. Logan; and the United States Consul (at Guatemala City), Mr. J. F. Medina.

The armed force of the Republic comprises 3,200 men in active service, and 15,225 militia.

The finances of the country are by general report in a prosperous state. The revenue has of late years fallen little short of \$5,000,000, while the ordinary expenditures are for the most part below that limit. The total amount of the national debt on January 1, 1879, was set down at \$5,369,529. According to returns published in 1880, by the manager-general of the Treasury, the portion of the home debt redeemable by forty per cent. of the customs' receipts (import branch) had been reduced by \$66,617.85, and stood at \$1,408,578.68 on July



ANTIGUA GUATEMALA AND THE VOLCAN DE AGUA.

81st. The consolidated debt at the same date was set down at \$1,218,408.85, having increased by \$11,500.34 during the month mentioned.

The following statements relating to the commerce of Guatemala are from official returns published in 1880. The subjoined table shows the value of the imports and exports for each of the five years 1875-'79:

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
1875.....	\$2,173,573 62	\$3,217,244 66
1876.....	2,264,531 90	3,767,471 04
1877.....	2,571,677 86	3,773,183 84
1878.....	2,787,350 62	3,918,912 32
1879.....	2,929,461 50	4,605,628 77

The increase of the exports, as here seen, has been constant, and the imports have varied little, thus showing the development of producing power, and maintaining an ever-growing balance of trade in favor of the republic. The exports for 1879 were to the following countries in order of importance: United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Balize, the other Central American states, Belgium, South America, Spain, Italy; and the staples shipped were: bullion, cochineal, hides, woolsens, sugar, maize, indigo, cocoanuts, sarsaparilla, timber, Spanish beans, cacao, vanilla, skins, horses, and India-rubber. The most important of these was coffee, the value of which stood at \$4,032,269.60, against \$2,617,278.24 for 1875. The quantity of coffee exported in 1879 was 25,-

201,685 pounds; the several countries to which it was sent, and the value of the shipments respectively, having been as below:

COUNTRIES.	Values.
Great Britain.....	\$1,281,033 44
France.....	521,650 24
Germany.....	678,672 00
United States.....	1,130,812 00
Balize.....	267,075 04
Belgium.....	102,337 60
Italy.....	1,955 28
South America.....	48,017 60
Spain.....	1,186 40

Total.....\$4,032,269 60

The imports for the same year were from the sources and of the respective values expressed in the annexed tables:

COUNTRIES.	Values.
Great Britain.....	\$574,935 42
France.....	487,664 18
California.....	478,744 82
Germany.....	392,129 97
New York.....	207,437 95
China.....	145,568 59
Belgium.....	94,347 12
Spain.....	88,570 09
Japan.....	76,701 55
Cuba.....	81,818 26
Ecuador.....	24,694 17
Mexico.....	9,581 32
Italy.....	8,124 44
Nicaragua.....	8,695 66
Costa Rica.....	1,722 15
Colombia.....	1,539 67
Peru.....	1,456 40
	699 38

Total.....\$2,929,461 59
Duties.....1,501,697 84

Grand total.....\$4,431,169 13

This last item indicates an average rate of duty of over 50 per cent., the distribution of which is exhibited in the following schedule of the different articles imported, together with the values of these:

COMMODITIES.	Values.	Duties.
Provisions.....	\$386,432 78	\$158,372 10
Wines, etc.....	48,636 22	45,171 45
Manufactured goods.....	1,263,281 52	893,322 97
Wearing-apparel.....	199,465 39	145,011 88
Fancy wares.....	174,648 78	65,927 24
Raw material, and agricultural, artistic, and scientific appliances.....	821,718 88	198,505 89
Specie and precious metals...	573,623 80
Sundries.....	7,634 74	5,886 81
Total.....	\$2,929,461 56	\$1,501,697 84

On June 18, 1880, was opened to traffic the branch of the Guatemala Central Railway extending from the Pacific port of San José to

Escuintla, the occasion having been solemnized in due form, and celebrated with brilliant *fêtes*, attended by the Presidents of Guatemala, Honduras, and Salvador. It is confidently stated that the line will be completed to the capital at an early day.

Education continues to be the object of sedulous attention on the part of President Barrios, who has brought the system of public schools to its present prosperous condition. The amount expended on public instruction in 1879 was \$800,000, against \$1,440 in 1871! Education is compulsory, and parents or guardians not providing for the mental culture of their children in private schools, or by private tuition, are required to send them to the public schools. There are at present eighteen graded primary schools in the capital. Active measures are being taken for the education of the Indian population.

H

HALDEMAN, SAMUEL S., naturalist and philologist, was born of Dutch ancestry near Columbia, Pennsylvania, in 1812. He was educated at Dickinson College, Carlisle, devoting himself chiefly to the scientific course. In 1836 he was assistant to the geological survey of New Jersey; in 1837 to that of Pennsylvania. In the course of this year he discovered the *Scolithus linearis*, the earliest fossil then found. In 1851 he was Professor of Natural History in the University of Pennsylvania, and, later, Professor of Comparative Philology. At different times he held professorships in Delaware College and in the Agricultural College of that State. He wrote essays for the American Association for the Advancement of Science, American Philosophical Society, and other societies, including the Philological Association, of which he was a founder and President. He was a contributor to "Silliman's Journal," the "Literary World," the "Iconographic Cyclopædia," and "Johnson's Cyclopædia," of which he was associate editor. He wrote the zoological portion of Trego's "Geography of Pennsylvania" (1843), and Rupp's "History of Lancaster County" (1844). He was an advocate of spelling reform, and, besides several manuals of orthography, orthoëpy, and etymology, he gained in 1858, over eighteen competitors, the Trevelyan prize, by a treatise on "Analytical Orthography." He made extensive researches into Indian antiquities and "Pennsylvania Dutch." He published in 1849 "Some Points in Linguistic Ethnology," dealing with Indian dialects, and, in 1856, "Relations of the English and Chinese Languages." Besides these, he was the author of "Fresh Water Univalve Mollusca," the "Zoology of Invertebrate Animals" (1850), and other works of scientific value. He died near Columbia,

Pennsylvania, September 10th, at the age of sixty-eight.

HANCOCK, WINFIELD SCOTT, an American soldier, was born February 14, 1824, in Montgomery Square, a small village in Montgomery County, Pennsylvania. His grandfather, Richard Hancock, of Scottish birth, was one of the 2,500 impressed American seamen of the War of 1812, who were incarcerated in the Dartmoor Prison in England. His father, Benjamin Franklin Hancock, was born in Philadelphia, and when quite a young man was thrown upon his own resources for a livelihood, having displeased his guardian by not marrying in the Society of Friends. He married the daughter of a Revolutionary soldier, Elizabeth Hayworth, whose ancestry was English and Welsh. He supported himself and wife by teaching, while studying law; was admitted to the bar in 1828, and removed to Norristown, where he practiced his profession forty years, earning the reputation of a well-read, judicious, and successful lawyer.

Winfield S. Hancock and his brother Hilary B. had the combined advantages of home instruction and a course in the Norristown Academy and the public high-school, which afforded the educational facilities of the better class of academies of that day. He early evinced a decided taste for military exercises. At the age of sixteen he entered the Military Academy at West Point, having obtained his cadetship through the unsolicited influence of his father's friend, John B. Sterigere, who represented his district in Congress. Among his contemporaries as cadets in the Academy were Grant, McClellan, Reynolds, Buell, Franklin, Rosecrans, and Lyon, who afterward became distinguished generals in the Union army, and Longstreet, Pickett, and "Stonewall" Jackson,



Wm. A. Hancock

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of the Confederate service. He graduated at West Point, June 30, 1844; was brevetted second-lieutenant in the Sixth Infantry, July 1, 1844, and assigned to duty at Fort Towson, in the Indian Territory, June 18, 1846; he received his commission as second-lieutenant in a company of his regiment which was stationed on the frontier of Mexico, where the difficulties which afterward resulted in the Mexican War had already begun.

He was ordered to active service in the field in the summer of 1847, and reached his regiment at Puebla, under the command of General Pierce, in time to join the army of General Scott in its advance upon the Mexican capital. He participated in the four principal battles (Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, and Chapultepec), which resulted in the capture of the city of Mexico, and was brevetted first-lieutenant for gallant and meritorious conduct in the battles of Contreras and Churubusco. From 1848 to 1855, he was stationed at St. Louis, acting as aide-de-camp to Brigadier-General N. S. Clarke. Lieutenant Hancock was married, January 24, 1850, to Almira Russell, daughter of Samuel Russell, a merchant of St. Louis. November 7, 1855, he was appointed quartermaster with the rank of captain, and ordered to Fort Myers, Florida, where General Harney was in command of the military forces operating against the hostile Seminoles. He served under this officer during the troubles in Kansas in 1857 and 1858, and afterward accompanied his expedition to Utah, where serious complications had arisen between the Gentiles and Mormons. From 1859 to 1861 Captain Hancock was quartermaster of the Southern District of California. At the breaking out of the civil war in 1861 he asked to be relieved from duty on the Pacific coast, and transferred to more active service at the seat of war. He reported himself for duty at Washington early in September. In a letter to a friend at this time he said, "My politics are of a practical kind—the integrity of the country, the supremacy of the Federal Government, an honorable peace, or none at all." He was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers by President Lincoln, September 23, 1861, and at once bent all his energies to aid in the organization of the Army of the Potomac. During the Peninsular campaign under General McClellan he was especially conspicuous at the battles of Williamsburg and Frazier's Farm. He took an active part in the subsequent campaign in Maryland, at the battles of South Mountain and Antietam. He was assigned to the command of the First Division of the Second Army Corps, on the battle-field, during the second day's fight at Antietam, September 17, 1862. He was soon after made a major-general of volunteers, and commanded this division in the attempt to storm Marye's Heights, at the battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862. In this assault General Hancock led his men through such a fire as has rarely been encountered in warfare.

In the three days' fight at Chancellorsville in May, 1863, Hancock's division took a prominent part. While on the march through western Maryland after the invading army of General Lee, on June 25th, he was ordered by the President to assume command of the Second Army Corps. On the 27th, General Hooker asked to be relieved from the command of the Army of the Potomac; and orders from the War Department reached his headquarters near Frederick, Maryland, assigning Major-General George G. Meade to its command. On the 1st of July the report reached General Meade, who was fifteen miles distant, that there was fighting at Gettysburg, and that General Reynolds was killed. General Meade, who knew nothing of Gettysburg, sent General Hancock with orders to take immediate command of the forces and report what should be done; whether to give the enemy battle there, or fall back to the proposed line at Pipe-clay Creek. He reported that he considered Gettysburg the place to fight the coming battle. He continued in command until the arrival of General Meade. In the decisive action of July 3d he commanded on the left center, which was the main point assailed by the Confederates, and was shot from his horse. Though dangerously wounded, he remained on the field till he saw that the enemy's assault was broken, when he dispatched his aide-de-camp, Major W. G. Mitchell, with the following message: "Tell General Meade that the troops under my command have repulsed the enemy's assault, and that we have gained a great victory. The enemy is now flying in all directions in my front." General Meade returned this reply: "Say to General Hancock that I regret exceedingly that he is wounded, and that I thank him in the name of the country and for myself for the service he has rendered to-day." In a report to General Meade, after he had been carried from the field, he says that, when he left the line of battle "not a rebel was in sight upright, and if the Fifth and Sixth Corps are pressed up, the enemy will be destroyed." Disabled by his wound, he was not again on active duty until March, 1864, being meanwhile engaged in recruiting the Second Army Corps. He resumed command of this corps at the opening of the spring campaign of that year, and bore a prominent part in the battles of the Wilderness, where the fighting was almost constant from May 5th to the 26th. In the fight at Spottsylvania Court-House, where General Lee's right center formed a sharp salient, "the Angle," General Hancock on the night of the 11th moved to a position within 1,200 yards of it, and early in the morning of the 12th stormed it. His heavy column overran the Confederate pickets without firing a shot, burst through the abatis, and after a short hand-to-hand conflict inside the intrenchments captured "nearly four thousand prisoners, twenty pieces of artillery, with horses, caissons, and material complete, several thousand stand of small-arms, and up-

ward of thirty colors" (Hancock's official report). The fighting at this point was as fierce as any during the war, the battle raging furiously and incessantly along the whole line throughout the day and late into the night, General Lee making no fewer than five separate assaults in his attempts to retake the works, but without success.

In the subsequent operations of the army, at the crossing of the North Anna, the second battle of Cold Harbor, and the assault on the lines in front of Petersburg, he was active and indefatigable till the 17th of June, when his Gettysburg wound, breaking out afresh, became so inflamed and dangerous that he was compelled to go on sick-leave, but resumed his command again in ten days. The battles at Deep Bottom, Ream's Station, and of Boydton Plank-road, were conducted by him. He was appointed a brigadier-general in the regular army, August 12, 1864, "for gallant and distinguished services in the battles of the Wilderness, Spottsylvania, and Cold Harbor, and in all the operations of the army in Virginia under Lieutenant-General Grant."

On November 26th he was called to Washington to organize a veteran corps from the honorably discharged soldiers who had served two years. He continued at that duty till February 26, 1865, when he was assigned to the command of the Middle Military Division, and ordered to Winchester, Virginia, to relieve from the command of the Army of the Shenandoah General Sheridan, who started the next morning with a large force of cavalry on his expedition down the Shenandoah Valley. General Hancock now bent all his energies to organizing and equipping a force as powerful as possible from the mass at his command. His success is attested by the following extract from a dispatch from the Secretary of War: "I am very much gratified by your energy in organizing and administering the military force of your important command. Your dispatch of this evening to General Halleck vindicates my judgment in assigning you to that position, and shows that you could not in any other render service so valuable and urgent to the Government. I would be glad to have a detailed report of the force and its location, a thing I have never been able to procure. For what you have done already, you have the thanks of this Department."

After the assassination of President Lincoln, April 14, 1865, General Hancock's headquarters were transferred to Washington, and he was placed in command of the defenses of the capital. July 30th he was assigned to the command of the Middle Department, with headquarters in Baltimore. A resolution approved April 21, 1866, tenders him with other officers and soldiers the thanks of Congress, "for the skill and heroic valor which, at Gettysburg, repulsed, defeated, and drove back, broken and dispirited, the veteran army of the rebellion," and for himself, "for his gallant, meritorious, and con-

spicuous share in that great and decisive victory." July 26, 1866, he was appointed a major-general in the regular army.

August 6th General Hancock was assigned to the command of the Department of Missouri, where he conducted a successful warfare against the hostile Indians on the Plains, till relieved by General Sheridan, September 12, 1867. He was in command of the Fifth Military District, comprising Louisiana and Texas, from November, 1867, to March, 1868; the Division of the Atlantic from March, 1868, to March, 1869; and the Department of Dakota from 1869 to 1872. On the death of General George G. Meade, he was again assigned to the command of the Division of the Atlantic, November 25, 1872, his headquarters being in New York City, till 1878, when they were transferred to Governor's Island, New York Harbor.

General Hancock's name was favorably mentioned in 1868 and 1872 as a candidate for Presidential honors. He was unanimously nominated the candidate of the Democratic party in the Cincinnati Convention, June 24, 1880. On the first ballot he received 171 votes, in a convention containing 738 members, and Senator Bayard, of Delaware, 153½. The remainder of the votes were scattered among twelve candidates. On the second ballot General Hancock received 320 votes, Senator Bayard 111; and Speaker Randall, of the House of Representatives, advanced from 6 to 128½ votes. On the next ballot General Hancock received 705 votes, and the nomination was made unanimous.

HARCOURT, Sir WILLIAM GEORGE GRANVILLE VERNON, the Secretary of State for the Home Department in the new Liberal English Cabinet, was born in 1827. He is the second son of the Rev. William Harcourt, of Nuneham Park, Oxfordshire, and grandson of the late Archbishop of York. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and graduated there in honors in 1851. Three years later he was called to the bar at the Inner Temple, and in 1866 became a Queen's Counsel. He was elected Professor of International Law at Cambridge University in 1869, and was a member of the Royal Commission for amending the Neutrality Laws. He was appointed Solicitor-General in November, 1873, being knighted on his appointment, and held this office until the resignation of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry in February, 1874. He wrote various political pamphlets and letters on international law in the "Times," under the pseudonym "Historicus." He represented Oxford in the Liberal interest from 1868 to 1880. He was successful at the general election of 1880, but, when he accepted an office in the Cabinet and offered himself for a new election, he was defeated on May 8th by the Conservative candidate. On May 25th he was, however, returned for Derby, which seat Mr. Plimsoll resigned in his favor. His second wife, to whom he was married in 1876, was a daughter of the late J. L. Motley, of the United States.

HARTINGTON, SPENCER COMPTON CAVENDISH, Marquis of, the Secretary of State for India in the new Liberal English Cabinet, was born July 23, 1833, and is the eldest surviving son of William, seventh Duke of Devonshire. He graduated at Cambridge in 1854, and was made LL. D. in 1862. In 1856 he was attached to Earl Granville's special mission to Russia. (See **GRANVILLE**.) In 1857 he was returned to the House of Commons as one of the members in the Liberal interest for North Lancashire. In 1859, at the opening of the new Parliament, he moved a vote of no confidence in Lord's Derby's Government, and it was carried by 323 votes against 310. He took office as a Lord of the Admiralty in March, 1863; a month afterward became under-Secretary for War; and, when Earl Russell reconstructed his Cabinet in 1866, he received the appointment of Secretary for War. He lost his seat at the general election of 1868, but was returned soon afterward for the Radnor Boroughs, having first received the office of Postmaster-General in Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet. In 1871 he succeeded Mr. Chichester Fortescue as Secretary for Ireland, and remained in that post until the dissolution of the Cabinet in 1874. On Mr. Gladstone renouncing the leadership of the Liberal party, shortly before the assembling of the Parliament in 1875, he was unanimously chosen by the members of the opposition as their acknowledged leader in the Commons. At the general election held in 1880 he was returned both for the Radnor Boroughs and Northeast Lancashire. He chose to sit for the latter, and was reelected on his being appointed Secretary of State for India. In 1877, and again in 1879, he was elected Lord Rector for Edinburgh University. Two of Lord Hartington's brothers, Lord Frederick Charles Cavendish and Lord Edward Cavendish, are likewise Liberal members of the House of Commons, Lord Frederick representing the northern division of West Yorkshire, and Lord Edward North Derbyshire. Lord Frederick was private secretary to Earl Granville, when the latter was Lord-President of the Council, 1859-'64; to Mr. Gladstone, 1872-'73; a Lord of the Treasury, 1873-'74; and Financial Secretary to the Treasury in 1880.

HAVEN, GILBERT, was born near Boston, September 19, 1821; died January 3, 1880, at Malden, Massachusetts. He graduated at the Wesleyan University in 1846, and for two years taught Greek and Latin in Amenia Seminary, of which, in 1848, he became the principal. In 1851 he joined the New England Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and was stationed successively at Northampton, Wilbraham, Westfield, Roxbury, and Cambridge, Massachusetts. In 1861 he was appointed Chaplain of the Eighth Massachusetts Regiment, the first commissioned chaplain after the breaking out of the civil war. In 1862 he made a tour in Europe and the East; and on his return was sta-

tioned for two years as pastor in Boston. His earnest advocacy of the cause of the colored people, before and during the war, led to his appointment, in 1865, to the supervision of the interests of destitute freedmen and whites in the State of Mississippi. In 1867 he became the editor of "Zion's Herald," Boston, and continued in this office until 1872, when he was elected Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church. He was afterward assigned by the General Conference to the superintendence of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the extreme Southern States, his residence being Atlanta, Georgia. He was a persistent advocate of Protestant missions in Italy and among Spanish-speaking peoples, and in 1872-'73 visited Mexico in this cause. He published "The Pilgrim's Wallet" in 1864, and "National Sermons; Sermons, Speeches, and Letters on Slavery and its War," in 1869. A man of strong intellect and will, he was also vigorous in his prejudices.

HÉBERT, PAUL O., ex-Governor of Louisiana, was born at Bayou Goula, Iberville Parish, Louisiana, in 1818. He graduated from the Jesuit College, St. James Parish, in 1836, and went to West Point, where he graduated in 1840, in the same class with Generals Hancock, Thomas, Sherman, and other officers of distinction. He was Assistant Professor of Engineering at the Military Academy in 1841-'42. He was employed in the construction of the Western Passes of the mouth of the Mississippi until 1845, when he resigned and was appointed Chief Engineer of the State of Louisiana. This office he held until the Mexican War, when he was reappointed to the United States Army, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel of the Fourteenth Infantry. He was at the battle of Contreras, at the storming of Chapultepec, and at the taking of the city of Mexico. He was brevetted colonel for gallant conduct at Molino del Rey. In 1848 the army was disbanded, and Colonel Hébert returned to his plantation at Bayou Goula. In 1851 he went as commissioner to France. In 1852 he was a member of the Convention which framed a new Constitution for Louisiana. He was Governor of the State from January 1, 1853, to January 1, 1856. One of the notable appointments of his term was that of General W. T. Sherman as President of the Louisiana Military Academy. In 1861 he was appointed one of the five brigadier-generals in the Provisional Confederate Army, the others being Robert E. Lee, Albert Sidney Johnston, Beauregard, and Magruder. He was in command of the trans-Mississippi Department until relieved by General Magruder, when he took charge of the defenses at Galveston. Very shortly after the surrender, Governor Hébert applied for the removal of his disabilities. He was then appointed on the Board of State Engineers. In 1873 President Grant appointed him Commissioner of Engineers for the Mississippi Levee. He died in New Orleans, August 29th.

HERING, Dr. CONSTANTINE, President of the American Institute of Homœopathy, was born in Oschatz, Germany, January 1, 1800. He was educated at the University of Leipsic and at the Surgical Academy of Dresden. He was engaged to write a book confuting homœopathy. In order to do this, he read Hahnemann's works, and he finally became a convert to the doctrine "*similia similibus curantur*." He sought out Hahnemann, studied under him, and became his personal friend. He had filled the position of Instructor in Mathematics and Natural Sciences in Berckmann's Institute, Dresden, and the King sent him to Surinam to make a zoological collection. He practiced medicine for a time in Paramaribo, and then sailed to Philadelphia, arriving there in January, 1833. He was head of the Homœopathic School, the first of its kind established anywhere. From 1845 to 1869 he was Professor of Institutes and Materia Medica in the Philadelphia College of Homœopathy. He edited the "American Journal of Homœopathic Materia Medica." He published many works, including "Condensed Materia Medica," "Guiding Symptoms and Analytical Therapeutics," and "Hering's Domestic Physician." He developed many of Hahnemann's theories, and ranks only second to him with the members of his school. He died in Philadelphia, July 23d.

HOME HYGIENE. *Baths and Bathing*.—The use of the bath in some form has been common to all races, in all ages. Homer, in the "Odyssey," has left a vivid description of the several baths taken by Ulysses at his principal halting-places, while pursuing his zigzag journey from the grotto of Calypso to his native Ithaca, and from those descriptions we may conclude that the method in use by the ancient Greeks was not materially different from that in use at the present day. The water was heated in a brass basin, upon a tripod over a fire, and thence poured into a larger basin or vase of brass or marble to temper the water therein contained. Cold water was rarely used, although sea-bathing was common, not only as a means of cleansing and refreshing the body after fatigue, but as a remedy in disease, and persons who lived at a distance from the sea were frequently removed thither for the sake of recovering their health, mainly to "the most pleasant city Ostia, to enjoy the benefit of bathing in the sea, which is an easy and expeditious method of drying up the superfluous humors of the body." Hot baths were long known, but were indulged in only after great fatigue; the tepid bath, prepared as indicated above, being that usually employed, the Greeks considering the hot bath effeminate. During the last illness of Alexander the Great, he was bathed very frequently, having a greater reliance upon the curative virtue of the bath than in that of medicine, and finally he caused his bed to be brought near the bath, that it might be more easy of access.

The knowledge of the hot springs, or *therma*,

is not confined to the moderns, as Homer commends the fountains of Scamander for their hot water; Pindar mentions "the hot baths of the nymphs"; and Minerva or Vulcan is said to have discovered to Hercules a hot spring, in which to refresh himself after one of his labors; the famous pass of Thermopylae derives its name from the warm springs in its vicinity; the *Therma* of Sicily, near Selinus, have been known for a long period, and the grammarian Solinus in his "Polyhistor" has given a description of Bath, England. Traditional legends and mythological lore weaved a potent spell about the old *therma*, and doubtless added to their other beneficial effects upon invalids, that of powerfully stimulating the imagination. Thus it is said that the curative powers of the waters of Bath were discovered by accident, during the reign of Hudibras the son of Liel, who is alleged to have been contemporaneous with Solomon. It is related, with superabundance of detail, that the Prince Bladud, the son of Hudibras, having been driven in disgrace from the court in consequence of his leprosy, engaged himself to a swineherd, and communicated the disease to his swine. The amateur swineherd and his herd wandered about until by accident one of the animals wallowed in the warm spring at Bath and was healed, whereupon the example was followed by Prince Bladud, and the resulting cure established the efficacy of the waters for all succeeding time.

The Romans, as might be expected from the perfection of the water-supply of the city, brought the practice of bathing to its highest perfection; indeed, no modern essay upon balneology is deemed complete without a description of the Roman baths. By the term Roman baths, the public baths are meant, although bath-rooms in all grades of magnificence were common in the houses of the wealthy. (A description of the public baths of ancient Rome and Pompeii may be seen in the "American Cyclopædia," vol. ii, pages 382-384.) The *balnea pensilia* (hanging-baths) introduced by Sergius Orata, about which there has been much dispute, appear, from the directions given for their construction by the architect Vitruvius, to have been nothing more than baths supported upon pillars or arches. All Roman baths, of which there were upward of eight hundred, included the *cella frigidaria*, the cold bath-room; the *frigidarium* (the cold bath); the *cella caldaria* (the hot bath-room); the *caldarium* (the hot bath); the *cella tepidaria*, the *tepidarium*; the *sudatoria*, or sweating-rooms; *apoditeria*, or undressing-room; and the *unctuaria*, or perfuming-rooms. The bath-keeper (*balneator*) had slaves under his command (*capsarii*), who took care of the garments of the bathers, and other slaves (*aliptæ* or *unctores*) whose duty it was to rub the body of the bather with the *strigilis*, a sort of curry-comb made of horn, brass, silver, or gold, and at the conclusion of the bath to apply the oil. Air-baths were in most cases attached, statuary and bril-

liant frescoes met the eye of the bather, and libraries were commonly in the same building. Scholars composed or dictated, and poets read their compositions to the concourse gathered at the baths in the hot season. In our day, there is no civilized nation that attaches the same importance to public baths as the Romans did, and the baths are nowhere constructed with a title of the ancient splendor. The Turkish baths, perhaps, approach more nearly those of ancient Rome, and the process of bathing according to the Turkish method is simply a modification of that of the Romans. Turkish baths are now quite common in European and American cities, but they are little frequented here except by invalids.* Among all Mohammedans the bath forms an important religious ceremony, as also among the Hindoos. Bayard Taylor thus described the ceremony as practiced at Allahabad:

Several boats, containing flower-decked shrines with images of the gods, were moored on the Jumna side, the current of the Ganges being exceedingly rapid. The natives objected to our getting upon the platforms, as they were *kana*, or purified, and our touch would defile them; so we stood in the mud for a short time and witnessed the ceremony of bathing. The Hindoos always bathe with a cloth around the loins, out of respect for the goddess Gungajee.† There were about a dozen in the water, bobbing up and down, bowing their heads to the four points of the compass, and muttering invocations; others, standing on the bank, threw wreaths of yellow flowers upon the water.

Dr. Dudgeon informs us that there are numerous public baths in Peking. They are known by a lantern lighted at night and raised on a lofty pole. The buildings are damp, dirty, and filled with a rank, steamy atmosphere; there are three apartments, viz.: 1. Undressing-room. 2. Bathing-room. 3. Lounging or smoking room. The same water is used for several bathers; at any rate, it is changed but once daily, except during the hottest weather, when it is changed twice. As the Chinese dread the effect of water applied to the surface of the body, the "bath" of the better classes usually consists of "a teacupful of warm water applied with a silk handkerchief"; the public baths, therefore, are mainly used by the lower orders of people. "An ordinary bath costs a penny, but during the last month of the Chinese year, the price is raised to about three pence." In bathing, "many wash the upper half of the body who refuse to wash the lower, being afraid of the lower vapor ascending and injuring the upper." The Chinese dread of water is somewhat embarrassing to foreign practitioners of medicine, resident in China, as it is said that when called to attend Chinese patients they are obliged to eschew water-dressings, baths, fomentations, and the like, if they desire to retain the confidence of their patrons. There are several hot springs in China, much used as a resort for invalids; those near Chefoo, according to Dr. Myers, supply the baths at a

temperature of 112° to 120° Fahr. These baths are at a village (Loong-Chuen-Tang) about thirty-three miles east from Yentai. There are also hot sulphur-baths at I San Tang, fifty miles from Chefoo. The temperature of these baths is higher, being 124° Fahr., and Dr. Myers suggests that as foreigners are not well treated there, persons visiting them should take their tubs with them. There are two celebrated baths near Peking; one at Piyünze, a Buddhist temple, twelve miles from Peking. There are two springs near each other, which have been built round with marble, and inclosed in a park. The southern spring is the warmest, standing at a temperature of 120° Fahr. These baths, however, are not open to the public, being held as an imperial reservation. The public baths of Japan have been described in the "American Cyclopædia," vol. ii, page 385. The private bath is thus described by Dr. G. Henderson: "In the bottom of an ordinary wooden or metal bath-tub, a hole is cut six inches in diameter, and about an inch distant from the side; into this hole is fitted a copper cylinder closed at the bottom by a very open grating; the cylinder is contracted at the top so as to resemble somewhat a large beer-bottle; this shape increases the draught.

"The bath-tub being ready and filled with cold water, in order to heat it we have only to drop into the copper cylinder from one to two pounds of hot coals, and in half an hour the water will be raised in temperature forty or fifty degrees."

The North American Indians, when sick, have resorted to vapor-baths from time immemorial, but in health they bathe only during the warm season, and then in the rivers and lakes. The vapor-bath is made by placing some hot stones in a small lodge or tent, previously made air-tight by covering the lodge with skins or blankets; then water is poured upon the stones, and a hot steam is the result. A similar practice prevails in Lapland.

An account of the different European and American resorts for persons desiring the benefit of baths in natural mineral waters, as well as the effect of the various medicated baths as a remedial measure in disease, is foreign to the purpose of this paper; indeed, the mere enumeration of the treatises upon the subject of medical balneology would occupy nearly the entire space assigned to this article. It may not be out of place, however, to say that no person in the United States need go beyond its borders to find mineral springs of any desired composition and of any required temperature, and that the remedial effect of any particular waters can not be obtained anywhere else than at the spring, since waters prepared of identical chemical composition and temperature do not produce the same effect elsewhere. It follows, therefore, that there are other elements entering into the causation of the curative effect, such as the atmosphere of the place, its elevation and consequent barometric pressure,

* Vide "American Cyclopædia," vol. ii.

† The river deity.

the careful regulation of diet, the relaxation from business, and change of scene.

Free public baths are not as common either in Europe or America as they should be. In the city of New York there are only eight; in Brooklyn three; in Philadelphia two; in Boston twenty. There are none in Baltimore, New Orleans, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, or San Francisco. These baths are floating baths for men and boys in one compartment, and for women and girls in the other; they are usually moored near some of the public docks; in Boston they are near the bridges, which are numerous in that city; in any event, they are necessarily near one or more of the sewer outlets. When intercepting sewers shall have been established for the better purification of our great harbors, this disadvantage will be obviated. It has been alleged, not without a show of reason, that the absorption of sewage matters, by reason of the immersion of the body in the waters of our harbors, was itself more harmful than the uncleanness of the bather; but this is certainly an exaggeration; and, moreover, absorption by the skin is very slow, and the great reduction of the temperature of the body consequent upon the saline bath compensates in some measure for the evil. It is not, however, irremediable. Mr. Charles Slagg, C. E., of England, has proposed a very ingenious scheme for providing filtered-water swimming-baths in impure rivers. He proposes to place floating baths in the current of a river, "and by means of tide-wheels to utilize the motive power of the current to pump water into the bath from a well into which the river-water enters through a filter in the bottom of the vessel." This scheme is doubtless practicable, but has not been tried in this country, and the writer has seen no account of its having been tried elsewhere. The public baths have not as yet been heated, nor have any been constructed except floating baths. Dr. Bell suggested some years ago that large manufacturing establishments could easily furnish the necessary facilities for heating the water for public baths. He estimated that the waste water of a five hundred horse-power steam-engine would be sufficient to "furnish baths for twenty-six hundred persons daily, at an average temperature of 70° to 75° Fahr." It is not probable that this plan could be made available. Since the city assumes the responsibility of providing free public baths at all, it would seem eminently proper that it should provide them with the necessary appliances for accomplishing their intended purpose. The furnishing of a suitable tank, and a steam-boiler for hot water, would not appear to present an insuperable obstacle. The greatest difficulty consists in obtaining the necessary appropriation from the city treasury.

Without special discussion of the physiology of the human skin, or particular mention of the details of its anatomy, it may be stated that all living animals cast off and renew their

cutaneous appendages in some way. Reptiles cast off the entire skin each year, quadrupeds shed their hair and portions of their epidermis, the "molting" process is more or less constant in birds, crustaceans cast off their shells in whole or in part, according to species, and fishes their scales. The epidermis of man, although more gradually thrown off, is yet as constantly undergoing that process. The blood circulating through the skin is cooled by indirect contact with the air, and it parts with certain of its salts and water by means of the sweat-glands, with which it is numerously supplied; if, then, from any cause the sweat-ducts (pores) become obstructed, a local sore or a general disease is the result: a local sore if but few are obstructed, and general disease in exact and definite proportion to the number of glands involved. Numerous experiments have been made by physiologists tending to show the effect of closure of the sweat-ducts upon lower animals, by covering the skin with an impermeable coating, and death was the invariable result, the duration of life after the coating only varying according to the thoroughness of the application. Dr. Flint quotes from Lasehkwitch the case of a child who was covered with gold-leaf in order to represent an angel in the ceremonies attending the coronation of Pope Leo X. This child died a few hours after the coating had been applied. The effect of the closure of a smaller number of sweat-ducts is, as before stated, to produce a local sore, which is manifested in the form of a cutaneous eruption. It follows, then, that the application of water has a general tendency to assist the natural process of throwing off the epidermis, and, by dissolving and carrying off the perspiration, assists in keeping open the pores of the body, which, although not the only drains, are yet highly important ones. So in all ages its use has been accounted a great benefit. There are, however, thousands of human beings who do not bathe, except, perhaps, the hands and face; such persons are usually of the laboring-classes, whose perspiration is very free, sufficient in quantity to enforce its passage through the ducts, and prevent obstruction. In towns and villages throughout the United States not furnished with a general water-supply, bath-rooms are the exception, and in winter the only bath taken is a sponge or towel bath. In summer the male inhabitants of such villages usually seek the nearest lake or watercourse.

Baths are divided first, according to the medium employed, as air, vapor, sand, mud, or chemicals, etc.; second, a subdivision of the media; but, as the water-bath only is within the scope of this article, the first need not engage our attention. Water-baths are classed as plunge-baths, foot-baths, hip-baths, shower-baths, and sponge-baths; they are divided into cold baths, 42° to 70° Fahr.; tepid baths, from 72° to 82° Fahr.; warm baths, from 83° to 98° Fahr.; hot baths, from 99° to 112° Fahr. and

upward. Dr. Forbes has given a more complicated division, viz., cold, cool, temperate, tepid, warm, and hot; it is evident that such divisions are purely arbitrary, and can easily be multiplied until there are as many divisions as there are degrees upon the scale. The four divisions first named will be found to answer every practical purpose, since in reality all baths are relatively cold or hot according to the sensations of the bather, if he be in health; but even in health there is considerable variation in the temperature of the skin, and a still greater range in disease. A bath the water of which is 22° below the temperature of the skin may fairly be considered a cold bath, although as high as 75° Fahr. The cold baths used by the Romans were not usually of a very low temperature, as appears from Vitruvius, the "chill" being taken off by the fires beneath the bath-room.

The first effect of a plunge into a cold bath is that of a shock to the system; the skin hardens and contracts, and the minute blood-vessels, being compressed, are diminished in size; to this stage succeeds that of reaction, a stimulant impression upon the cutaneous nerves—the blood-vessels again dilate, a general glow appears upon the surface of the body, and this reaction continues for a longer or shorter period, according to the degree of temperature of the water in which the body was immersed. If the immersion be long-continued, and the stage of reaction passed, a general feeling of chilliness comes on, the lips become blue, the teeth may chatter, and the skin again contracts, leaving little hillocks around the point of insertion of the hairs. This appearance is commonly known as "goose-flesh."

Sea-bathing is a cold bath in mineral waters; it differs from the ordinary cold bath only in being more stimulant; the "shock" and the "reaction" are each more distinct than in a cold fresh-water bath. In surf-bathing there is a mechanical force added by the action of the waves, which still heightens the shock and the reaction.

A certain amount of exercise, as preliminary to a cold bath in fresh or salt water, is beneficial; in fact, if the heat of the body be great at the time of the plunge, the shock will be less marked and the reaction will be more lasting. The practice of waiting to "cool off" before taking the plunge in the sea is a bad one, and founded neither on experience nor reason. The ancients always used the cold bath immediately after coming from the hot, as a means of contracting the open pores, and preventing the bather from taking cold.

Delicate persons, invalids, and children under ten years of age, should not use the cold bath except by advice of a physician, and no bath should be taken immediately after a full meal, nor should it be prolonged. It may be added that, immediately upon quitting the bath, the skin should be rubbed with a towel until a ruddy, healthful glow is produced, and the bath

can not be refreshing unless this shall have been accomplished. Persons taking sea-baths should be guided by this rule, and the not uncommon habit of taking repeated baths within a few hours of each other, or that of spending the interval between the rapidly recurring baths in wet garments, can not be too pointedly condemned. Nature has shown her abhorrence of such practices, as is well attested by the blue lips, the shivering, and the bleached appearance of those following them.

The *shower*-bath, when used with cold water, is objectionable, and should only be taken in accordance with the advice of a physician.

Warm baths, as may be inferred from the statements made concerning cold baths, are at first stimulating and then relaxing in their tendency. They have been employed from time immemorial as a means of refreshing the body after fatigue, as well as for the power of solution of the various substances obtaining a lodgment on the skin, which power is greater in hot than in cold water. The oily secretion usually present on the skin is almost insoluble in cold water, but soluble in hot water. The *débris* of the epidermis, the saline products from the evaporation of the perspiration, and the impurities collected from without the body, are more easily removed. Invalids and delicate persons can bathe in warm or tepid water without injury, providing the skin be sponged with cold water immediately afterward, and then rubbed with the towel. Fleishy persons can reduce much of their superfluous weight by the protracted use of the warm bath, and it follows that persons naturally thin should not remain long in the water, but that their bath should be limited to that necessary for cleanliness. It should be remembered that thousands live without the bath, and to all appearance are reasonably healthy, and that, however valuable it may be as a factor in the problem of how to live long and comfortably, it is not an absolutely indispensable one.

Whatever form of bath be used, it is proper that it should be followed by the application of a warm oil. It is difficult to give a satisfactory reason why this practice should have been omitted after having been used by all nations for countless ages. The particular oil to be used may be according to individual preference, but olive-oil, which can easily be perfumed, would appear to be the least objectionable.

In the use of soap there is great danger of obtaining soap manufactured from diseased animal fat on the one hand, or of being so strongly alkaline as to affect the epidermis on the other. These difficulties are best avoided by the selection of soap made from olive-oil, the white castile soap being taken as the type. The construction of the bath-room and its appliances will be discussed under the head—CONSTRUCTION OF DWELLINGS.

CONSTRUCTION OF DWELLINGS. 1. *Selection of a Site*.—The selection of a healthful site for the building of a city has been deemed of the

greatest importance in all ages except our own; indeed, the ancients were especially solicitous in that regard, as is shown in the historical narratives of the laying out of ancient cities, from the founding of Lycosurus in Arcadia, as described by Pausanias, to the building of Alexandria by Dinocrates under the orders of Alexander. In Hippocrates's "Airs, Waters, and Places," the relative healthfulness of building sites is thus laid down:

"Those [cities] which lie to the rising of the sun are all likely to be more healthy than such as are turned to the north, or those exposed to the hot winds, even if there should not be a furlong between them. In the first place, both the heat and cold are more moderate. Then such waters as flow to the rising sun must necessarily be clear, soft, and delightful to drink in such a city, for the sun in rising and shining upon them purifies them by dispelling the vapors which generally prevail in the morning. The persons of the inhabitants are, for the most part, well colored and blooming. The inhabitants have clear voices, and in temper and intellect are superior to those which are exposed to the north, and all the productions of the country in like manner are better; . . . but such cities as lie to the west, and which are sheltered from winds blowing from the east, and which the hot winds and the cold winds of the north scarcely touch, must necessarily be in a very unhealthy situation: in the first place, the waters are not clear. . . . And in summer cold breezes from the east blow and dews fall; and in the latter part of the day the setting sun particularly scorches the inhabitants, and therefore they are pale and enfeebled, and are partly subject to all the aforesaid diseases, but no one is peculiar to them. Their voices are rough and hoarse, owing to the state of the air, which in such a situation is generally impure and unwholesome, for they have not the northern winds to purify it; and these winds they have are of a very humid character, such being the nature of the evening breezes" (Sydenham Society's translation, London, 1849). And Vitruvius has laid down in the clearest manner his opinion upon this subject in his work on architecture, written about twenty-five years before the Christian era: "In setting out the walls of a city, choice of a healthy situation is of the first importance; it should be on high ground, neither subject to fogs nor rains; its aspects should be neither violently hot nor intensely cold, but temperate in both respects. The neighborhood of a marshy place must be avoided; for in such a site the morning air, uniting with the fogs that rise in the neighborhood, will reach the city with the rising sun; and these fogs and mists, charged with the exhalations of the fenny animals, will diffuse an unwholesome effluvia over the bodies of the inhabitants, and render the place pestilent. A city on the seaside, exposed to the south or west, will be insalubrious, for in summer mornings a city thus

placed would be hot, and at noon it would be scorched. A city, also, with a western aspect would even at sunrise be warm, at noon hot, and in the evening of a burning temperature. Hence the constitutions of the inhabitants of such places, from such continual and excessive changes of the air, would be much vitiated. This effect is likewise produced on inanimate bodies: nobody would think of lighting his wine-cellar from the south or west, but from the north, an aspect not liable to these violent changes. In granaries whose aspects are south of the east or west, the stores are soon ruined; and provisions, as well as fruits, can not long be preserved unless kept in apartments whose aspects are north of the east or west. . . . Those who change a cold for a hot climate rarely escape sickness, but are soon carried off; whereas, on the other hand, those who pass from a hot to a cold climate, far from being injured by the change, are generally strengthened. Much care, then, should be taken so to set out the walls of a city that it may not be obnoxious to the pestilential blasts of the hot winds" (Gwilt's translation, London, 1860). The science of pathology was brought into requisition as an aid in the determination of the healthfulness of proposed sites for cities and permanent encampments. Animals were killed after they had for some time drunk the waters and fed upon the herbage grown upon the site. The livers were inspected, and if diseased the site was rejected. As the ancients were thus particular in the selection of sites for a city, it is reasonable to suppose that they were equally careful in choosing sites for their public buildings and dwellings. Vitruvius, with his usual minuteness, has left us his recommendations: "Natural consistency arises from the choice of such situations for temples as possess the advantages of salubrious air and water; more especially in the case of temples erected to Æsculapius, to Hygeia, and such other divinities as possess the power of curing diseases. For thus the sick, changing the unwholesome air and water to which they have been accustomed for those that are healthy, sooner recover; and a reliance upon the divinity will be therefore increased by proper choice of situation. Natural consistency also requires that chambers should be lighted from the east; baths and winter apartments from the southwest; picture and other galleries which require a steady light, from the north." It is proper to note that a marsh-site is not necessarily unhealthy, provided it can be thoroughly drained. Many places in America are now free from malaria that were once very miasmatic, owing to the better drainage adopted in late years. The great prairies of Illinois, that were once checkered with ponds and marshes, and very unhealthy, have, owing to the cultivation of the soil, and subsoil drainage, materially changed in character. The height at which the "ground-water" or residual moisture in the alluvium becomes station-

ary, determines in great part the healthfulness of the site, and therefore no building-site should be chosen where the ground-water is not stationary at a point lower than the proposed foundation of the new house, or where it can not be made so by drainage.

2. *Foundations.*—All loam should be removed, and the bed-stone laid down to the solid earth whenever possible. If the earth be at all damp, a drain-pipe should be laid outside the wall a few inches lower than the bed-stone, and the basement covered with four or five inches of good concrete, upon which the floor may be laid. It is obvious that the drain-pipe should not be laid so near the bed-stone as to affect the security of the wall. If the ground-water still remain in the soil near the concrete, no amount of that material will make a dry cellar; the only remedy in such a case is to lay additional pipes for ventilation which shall be connected with the kitchen or other regularly heated flue. "Damp-proof courses" of impervious bricks are frequently used to keep out the external wet from basements, but are practically useless where the moisture rises inside the foundation-walls.

3. *Walls.*—Impervious bricks should not be used for outside walls, above the ground-courses, for it is quite necessary that transudation of moisture and carbonic oxide should take place from within outward. It is, however, an excellent practice to use impervious bricks for party walls, for precisely the opposite reason. An area should be constructed about the outer wall, of greater or less extent according to the amount of space available, extending down to the level of the bed-stone. A dry-area wall has been recommended where the space is limited, but it is obvious that the "dry" area, which is really an additional wall, is itself objectionable unless ventilated at the top and bottom, and it is therefore clear that the wall would be quite as well without it. In the construction of walls the aim should be, not only to exclude the external moisture from the dwelling, but by means of the porosity of the

don, 1874) recommends that the hollow walls be constructed as shown in the cut, with Mr. Jennings's patent bonded bricks.

4. *Heating and Ventilation.*—It is not known when houses were first artificially heated; there are, however, numerous legends concerning the discovery of fire, of which one of the best is that given by Vitruvius: "A tempest, on a certain occasion, having exceedingly agitated the trees in a particular spot, the friction between some of the branches caused them to take fire; this so alarmed those in the neighborhood of the occurrence that they took to flight. Returning to the spot after the tempest had subsided, and finding the warmth which had thus been created extremely comfortable, they added fuel to the fire excited, in order to preserve the heat, and then went forth to invite others, by signs and gestures, to come and witness the discovery."

It is doubtful if the present century has added very much to the long list of inventions of heating apparatus proposed by Franklin and Rumford, with the exception of the inventions of Galton and Morin, although for many years the subject has been faithfully studied. Mr. Pepys informs us under date of February 15, 1664-'65, that he went "with Creed to Gresham College. . . . But it is a most acceptable thing to hear their discourse, and see their experiments; which were this day on fire, and how it goes out in a place where the ayre is exhausted, which they showed by an engine on purpose."

The subjects of heating and ventilation are perceived, upon reflection, to be intimately connected with each other, and are therefore properly treated of at the same time. The methods of heating dwellings, in use in America at the present time, consist of open grates or "fireplaces," furnaces, heaters, and stoves. Warm water and steam, although much used in heating public buildings, are but little used for dwellings. Parkes states that heat is communicated by radiation or convection. Heat is radiant where it is directly emitted from the flame or incandescent substance. Convective heat is that transmitted by the motion of the particles of a heated object. Radiation is accomplished by means of open fires, and convection by the various patterns of stoves and heated pipes. The open fire is at the same time the most pleasant to the eye, and that most healthful of all methods now in use. Its superiority in a sanitary point of view arises from the fact that the open fire is one of the best-known means of ventilation, and at the same time it is admitted that radiant heat is more beneficial in its effects upon the human body than the convective. The success of an open fire depends largely upon the care with which the grate and chimney have been constructed. The grate may be, and usually is, dispensed with, where wood is burned in the large fireplaces. There is great diversity in the relative velocity of air-currents in different chimneys, out of proportion to any apparent difference in their

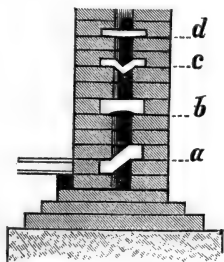


FIG. 1.—HOLLOW WALL FROM EASSIE. *a*, vamped brick; *b*, *d*, straight; *c*, rafter drip.

wall to allow the escape of internal moisture. Hollow walls are therefore recommended as fulfilling the necessary conditions. Mr. Eassie ("Sanitary Arrangements for Dwellings," Lon-

shape. The location of the house, the prevailing winds, the height of the chimney with respect to the surrounding buildings, govern the "draught" in a high degree. The direction of the air-current is quite likely to be downward in an unheated chimney. Some examinations recently made by the writer gave the following results: In a chimney with one side connected with the flue of a furnace, on a still day, there was a slight downward current of thirty-five cubic feet per minute. The current was not sufficient to turn the fan of the anemometer, when placed a few inches in front

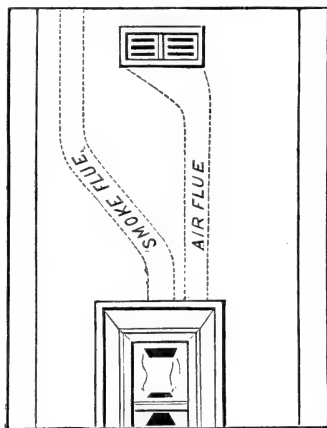


FIG. 2.—FRONT ELEVATION, SHOWING SMOKE AND AIR FLUES. (Galton.)

of the fireplace. At this time the inward current from the register alongside the chimney showed a velocity of 130 feet per minute. On a windy day the *upward* current in the same chimney was 400 cubic feet per minute. In a building in process of construction, examined March 10, 1881, an unheated chimney on the first floor showed a feeble downward current; the same chimney showed a downward current in the basement of 75 cubic feet per minute. On the first floor of the same house, a chimney which was only slightly heated (the plumber having a fire-pot in the fireplace) showed an upward current of 239 cubic feet per minute. In an adjoining building, an unheated chimney on the first floor showed a downward current of 115 cubic feet per minute, with the doors and windows open. The same chimney, with the doors and windows closed, showed a downward current of 140 cubic feet per minute. These chimneys were to all appearance precisely similar in construction, and it is evident that the direction of the current in the chimney is largely determined by the amount of heat within, and the prevailing winds without. Various forms of cowls, or hoods, have been devised to protect against downward draughts in chimneys, many of which are excellent, and should by all means be supplied to a chimney which when heated does not show an upward current of at least

130 to 200 cubic feet per minute. The amount of ventilation in an ordinary house being almost wholly dependent upon the chimney, it is therefore of the utmost importance that it should be properly constructed and finished. An open grate requires from 500 to 600 cubic feet per minute of fresh air. This is usually supplied through the crevices of the doors and windows. No other form of heating apparatus has as yet been devised which will abstract the same quantity of air from a room; it is consequently the best system of ventilation. The objections urged against it are, in the first place, the dust from the coal and ashes, and, in the second place, its greater expense. As the advantage to be derived from it is so much greater than its attendant evils, the first argument can have but little weight; and, as to its expense, it has been well said that any system of ventilation at all worthy of the name costs something, and the expense is therefore a necessary

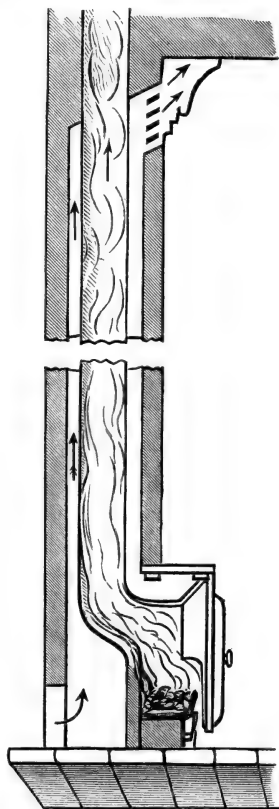


FIG. 3.—SECTION OF GALTON FIREPLACE AND CHIMNEY. (Lincoln.)

one. Should the house be provided with double sashes, and the doors be close-fitting, as is the custom in cold climates, it may be advisable to secure the entrance of a sufficient quantity of

fresh air by means of an inlet pipe extending from the outside of the building to the grate. This is usually best laid alongside of the joists on which the floor rests; but, in case the joists have a direction toward the fire, the necessary notching would weaken them too much, and Mr. Eassie has recommended that they be laid in the ceiling and descend alongside of the chimney to the grate. A valuable adjunct to the grate is a piece of Russia iron, well fitted to the upper portion, which may be in horizontal sections, to be fastened upon hinges, or so placed as to be entirely removed. This prevents the access of smoke to the room during the ignition of the fire, and also increases the vitality of the flame.

5. *Furnaces*.—The ordinary furnace is too well known to require a particular description. It consists of a cast-iron pot with a smoke-flue, and a series of air-pipes above the level of the fire-pot, the whole being surrounded with Russia or galvanized iron. The air-pipes are continuously supplied with fresh air by means of a shaft or air-box extending from the outside of the building.

As the lower portion of these furnaces is usually left open, whenever the ashes are raked from the fire, the fine ash-powder is sucked in the pipes and flues and is thence distributed through the house by means of the registers.

Alongside the hot-air pipes are usually placed cast-iron receptacles for water. These are intended to supply to the air passing out of the registers the moisture of which it has been deprived by the process of heating; this is usually imperfectly accomplished. Furthermore, the air-pipes become warped and affected by the heat, so that after a few weeks' or months' use the coal-gas, and frequently smoke, gains access to them and is thus distributed through the house. Indeed, in many city houses coal-gas is ever present in the rooms from this cause.

Parkes states that "the coal of 'average quality' gives off in combustion: 1. *Carbon*. About 1 per cent. of the coal is given off as fine carbon and charred particles. 2. *Carbonic acid*. In Manchester, Angus Smith calculated, some years ago, that 15,000 tons of carbonic acid were daily thrown out. 3. *Carbonic oxide*. The amount depends upon the perfection of combustion. 4. *Sulphur, sulphurous and sulphuric acids*. The amount of sulphur in coal varies from one half to 6 or 7 per cent. In the air of Manchester, Angus Smith found one grain of sulphuric acid in 2,106 cubic feet. 5. *Carbon bisulphide*. 6. *Ammonium sulphide or ammonium carbonate*. 7. *Sulphuretted hydrogen*. 8. *Water*."

These compounds are highly deleterious. Not only do they exhaust the oxygen of the air, by entering into new combinations, but they exert a distinct toxic effect on the human system. It should be remembered in this connection that the air-cells of the lungs are, *par excellence*, the absorption surface of

the body. Each air-cell being lined with a delicate membrane in almost direct contact with the blood, the conditions are highly favorable to the transudation of gases. The surgeon and dentist take advantage of this circumstance in producing the effect of insensibility on their patients by the almost instantaneous absorption of vapor of chloroform or ether, and, when directly absorbed, the fumes of charcoal speedily produce death. That sickness is not more frequently caused in furnace-heated houses by the products of coal-combustion, is due to the large dilution of the gaseous substance in the atmosphere of the rooms. It is obvious that great care is necessary not only in the original construction of the furnace, but in its management while in operation. Furthermore, the water-basins in the furnace need frequent replenishing, or the air of the rooms becomes speedily deprived of its moisture, and considerable suffering may be caused the inmates.

6. *Stoves*.—Of the various patterns of stoves no general or special description need be given, except, perhaps, to mention that those are the most objectionable which admit the air directly to the fire-heated iron. It has been repeatedly shown that red-hot iron allows the gases from combustion of coal to pass through it readily. Dr. Derby, of Boston, states that the injurious effect of passing air over a cast-iron surface heated with anthracite coal is due to carbonic oxide, a highly poisonous gas. The nearer the approach, therefore, to the open grate, as shown in the Franklin or Galton (modified from the Franklin) stove, the stronger the recommendation it can receive on hygienic grounds. The self-feeding or "base-burning" stoves are highly objectionable unless due care be taken to keep the vertical tube filled with coal, thus partially preventing the escape of gas. Its escape can not, however, be entirely prevented by this means.

Warm water has been but little used as a means of heating dwellings in this country, although it has been proved to be of value in various public buildings. The Barnes General Hospital at the Soldiers' Home, Washington, District of Columbia, is heated in this way.

Steam-heat has also been little used for dwellings, but it has lately been proposed to use steam on a large scale to heat an entire village or block of city houses, simultaneously supplying the steam to separate householders in such quantities as may be required. Although steam and warm-water heating are free from the objections of dust and coal-gas, they have yet to be made practicable for small householders. Furthermore, experience has shown the writer that the wood-work in the vicinity of heated steam-pipes shrinks badly, so much so as to render this a highly objectionable method of heating, unless some special measures be taken to prevent it in the location of the pipes.

Ventilation.—As regards house-ventilation in general, it is not too much to say that, in

the construction of the average dwelling, ventilation is absolutely neglected. It is even worse than if left to the care of Heaven, for, in that event, the vitiated air from the exhalations of the body, the coal-gas, and the sewer-air, would be largely diluted, if not blown away by the surrounding winds. But human ingenuity has been taxed to its utmost not only to keep in the house all the gases produced, but to actually increase their production. As a consequence, we witness the fact that no provision is made for the ventilation of bedchambers and living-rooms, except in occasional instances. Bath-rooms, closets, and the like, are rarely ventilated.

It is proper to mention in this place the necessity for ventilation of closets wherein wearing-apparel is kept. In the section on baths and bathing, mention was made of the functions of the skin as an excretory organ, and the vast amount of matters exhaled during the course of twenty-four hours. It is apparent, therefore, that the clothing worn must be more or less saturated with these exhalations, which, if not properly exposed to air-currents, take on fermentative action; and bacteria, fungi, and fermentative products result which, when inhaled, are highly deleterious. It is within the experience of almost every one that clothing packed away in a trunk, chest, or other close receptacle, on being brought to the air after confinement of a greater or less period, throws off a strong, musty odor; this may be almost entirely prevented by thorough exposure to the air, and, whenever practicable, to the sunlight. Closets, therefore, in the place of being dungeons, in the darkest portions of the house, should be well lighted, by a skylight whenever practicable, and thoroughly exposed to a current of air. This practice not only adds to the comfort of persons afterward wearing the clothing, but it prevents the entrance into the room

adjacent to the closet of stagnant air from it. There are various means of ventilating these closets; the most practicable is that by means of an air-shaft communicating directly with the outside of the building. Where the building is heated by a furnace, a register may be placed in the closet, with an opening near the ceiling for the exit of the heated air. This plan is, perhaps, the best that can be devised.

In providing for the ventilation of bedchambers and other rooms in the dwelling, if the fireplace, or Franklin or ventilating stove, be used, other exit for the air will be unnecessary except at the upper opening in the chimney-flue, and that through the fire; but, in case the householder decides to heat by means of a stove, openings for the exit of the heated and vitiated air will be necessary. It is a mooted point whether in cases of this kind the openings should be near the ceiling or near the floor, some holding that the better means of removing the vitiated air, especially that charged with carbon dioxide, is at the bottom of the room, and, as the air which is heated ascends toward the ceiling, as it cools it falls again to the floor, when that portion of the air nearest the exit of the shaft may be withdrawn. On the other hand, if the opening be near the ceiling, the current is continuous and is always in the same direction, depending for its velocity upon the amount of heat thrown out in the room. This method, therefore, will usually be found that most practicable and the best. Openings for the exit of air from a room should communicate with the outside of the building, usually to the roof, and if placed near a heated chimney (they are sometimes placed in it) the velocity of the current will be considerably increased. As, in the construction of a chimney, it is necessary to adopt means to prevent downward currents, it is also necessary to prevent them in ventilation-shafts. This is accom-

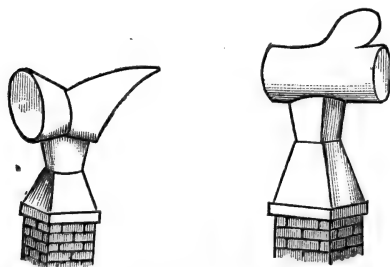
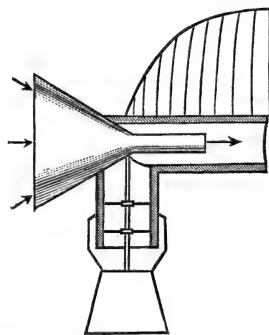


FIG. 4.—FORMS OF COWLS. (Dr. F. H. Brown.)



PECLET'S CHIMNEY-CAP. (Dr. Lincoln.)

plished by some one of the various cowls constructed to turn in each case to leeward. When the cowl is turned in this way, an aspiration-current is produced.

7. *Bath-rooms.*—In America at the present day the bath-room is the neglected room of the

household. As has been previously mentioned, in the section on "Baths and Bathing," it was the ancient Roman custom to so construct the bath-rooms as to appeal to the æsthetic senses; they were luxurious in every particular, being supplied with statuary and paintings, plants and

flowers, and the bather was regaled with music. Under such circumstances the bath was calculated to produce its full effect, soothing and quieting the system, and leading the bather to luxurious repose; but in our day the bath-room is one that the average American desires to get out of as speedily as possible, the air being tainted with sewer-gas, the room itself small, dark, and cheerless, and in winter frequently unheated. In other houses, it will be discovered that a corner of the bath-room is made the receptacle for brooms, mops, slop-buckets, etc.—a sight calculated to produce disgust instead of pleasure—and the water-closet is at another corner, on a true level with the bather's nose. Moreover, these rooms are almost wholly unventilated. These evils need only to be recognized by the builder, to enable him to provide a satisfactory remedy. The ventilation of the bath-room may be accomplished in the same way as that of other closets heretofore mentioned.

Many and various are the forms of bathtubs, and the materials of which they are made; earthenware, porcelain, galvanized iron, enameled iron, copper, and planished copper, being the materials used. Of these, the planished copper is that most used. This "planished" or tinned copper is used of different weights; in the poorer class of work, the quality is known as eight ounces—that is, weighing eight ounces to the square foot of surface. Ten, twelve, fourteen, and sixteen ounce copper is also used, the latter in the better class of houses. But slight reflection is needed to show the advantage in having the heavier weight, as, the heavier the copper, the less the liability to indentation and ultimate leakage. The bath-tub waste-pipe is usually connected to the waste-pipe from the water-closet, and a joint is made just above the trap in the sewer-pipe. This is done as an economic measure, although it would be a better sanitary principle to provide that the waste should be carried out of the building by a separate waste-pipe, and the water-closet be constructed in a different apartment. When the bath waste-pipe is connected with that from the water-closet, whatever confined and contaminated air be in the upper portion of the soil-pipe above the trap, is certain to pass backward through the bath-tub waste, and thus escape into the interior of the room. The different patterns of water-closets are very numerous, and there is not sufficient space to enumerate them here. What is known as the pan-closet is that more commonly used. This closet, while a very good one, is not, in the opinion of the writer, equal to the Demorest, or to that known as the "all-earthen" closet of Mr. Jennings. This closet is made in a single piece of earthen or delf ware, and is therefore the less likely to have attached to it the remains of fecal matter and decomposing material, and it is evident that the more perfectly the closet can be cleansed, the more completely it will fill its purpose as a san-

itary appliance. Whatever form of closet be used, the trap should be ventilated. The trap should have a separate vent-pipe communicating with the outside of the building and lead-

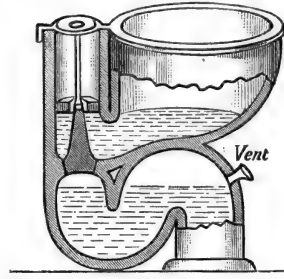


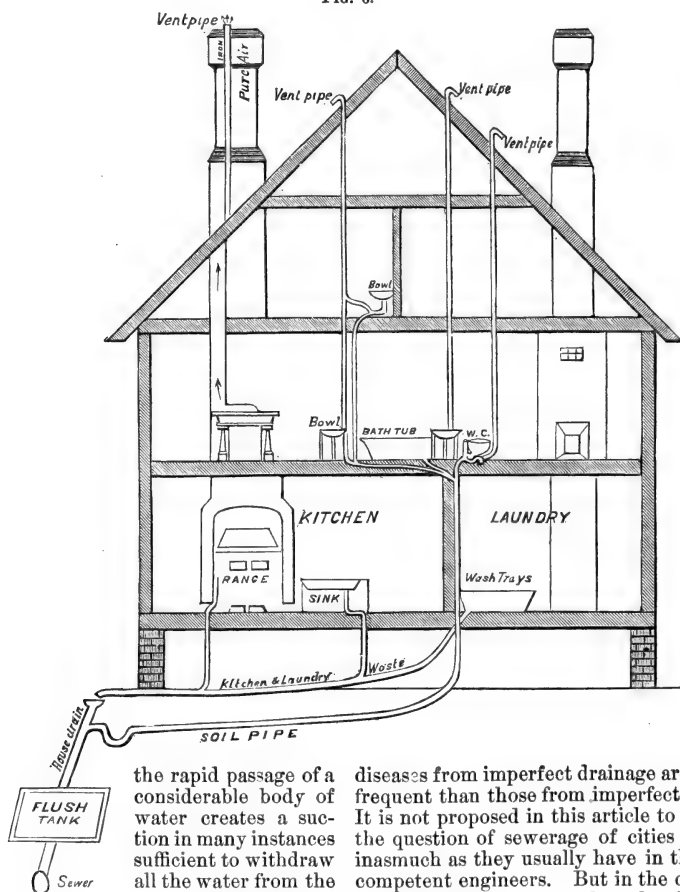
FIG. 5.—JENNINGS'S CLOSET, CLOSED.

ing above the roof. The soil-pipe should also be continued, without diminution in size, directly through the roof. These ventilation-pipes are necessary to prevent the introduction of what is known as "sewer-gas," or more properly sewer-air, a compound gaseous body mingled with atmospheric air, which is produced from the decomposition of organic and saline matters contained in sewage. Sewer air or "gas," when analyzed, is found to consist principally of carbonic acid, sulphuretted hydrogen, and ammonium sulphide, in addition to the common air. It appears, however, that the production of these gases in the larger sewers depends almost entirely upon the thoroughness with which they are ventilated and flushed, as the health of the sewer-men in London and Paris is not shown to be seriously affected by reason of their occupation. It may be considered as fairly proven that the air of house-drains is more impure than that of the larger sewers, provided the latter be ventilated. With regard to the production of typhoid fevers and other specific diseases from sewer-gas and sewer-air, it may well be doubted whether a single well-authenticated case of typhoid fever or diphtheria has ever originated from this cause, although it is presumed that the sewer-air may afford a vehicle or means of transmission of the seeds or the so-called specific "germs" of the disease. It has been proved that the small-pox poison can be transmitted to herds of cattle when feeding to the windward of infected textile fabrics. (*Aitken*.) It is therefore reasonable to suppose that the specific germs of the diseases mentioned may be carried in the same way. If, then, these specific diseases be excluded from those produced *de novo* by sewer-gas, it only remains to consider the effect of sewer-gas uncontaminated by any specific "disease-germ" or virus. In a case at Clapham, cited by Parkes, "the clearing-out of a privy produced in twenty-three children violent vomiting and purging, headache, great prostration, and violent twitching

of the muscles. Two died in twenty-four hours." These cases are clearly extreme. The common effects of the admission of sewer-gas into bedchambers and dwellings are noticed in a feeling of languor, depression of spirits, salowness of the skin, and loss of appetite, and if the cause be long continued, great debility, and finally anæmia, due to a changed condition of the blood. These effects are analogous to those produced by that indefinable poison known as "malarial"; and if the city in which the house is situated be located in a malarious district, these symptoms may indeed be referred to malaria—a convenient catch-word for all diseases of obscure origin. Sewer-air, being usually but little charged with carbonic acid, is lighter than the atmosphere, and in conse-

quence it ascends. Its ascension is materially hastened when there is pressure from behind, as is the case where sewers located on the seashore are affected by the tides. The back pressure is the important factor in forcing the sewer-air through the water-seal of the trap, and it is this which renders it necessary that the soil-pipe should be continued through the roof in order to allow its escape without bubbling through the water-seal. The trap ventilation-pipe need not be of very large size, as it is only necessary as a means of outlet for the gases escaping from the trap, the mephitic gases from the closet-bowls, and to prevent the accident known as siphoning. This accident occurs frequently in private dwellings where the soil-pipe is of small size, as

FIG. 6.



possible when the soil-pipe is continued upward, and communicates with the external air.

8. *House-Drainage.*—If it be important that the house shall be well ventilated, it is essentially important that it shall be well drained, as

diseases from imperfect drainage are even more frequent than those from imperfect ventilation. It is not proposed in this article to touch upon the question of sewerage of cities and towns, inasmuch as they usually have in their employ competent engineers. But in the construction of dwellings it is rare that the drainage receives the consideration that it should, as in building ordinary houses an architect is too rarely consulted—the plans of the building being devised by the householder himself, or by the mechanic who is to construct the work.

This is almost invariably the case in country villages, and, as might be expected, it is in villages where the drainage is most imperfect. In making the plans for the drainage of a dwelling the object should be, in the first place, to have as few openings into the house as possible; and, in the second, that all waste-pipes from sinks, water-closets, and bath-tubs should be carried out of the building at the nearest possible point of exit. The English method of breaking the connection between the waste-pipe and the house-drain is doubtless the best that can be devised, but it can not be adopted in severe winter climates, although the emanations from a drain or sewer are of a much higher temperature in winter than the surrounding air. When disconnections are made, as shown in the cut (Fig. 6), the introduction of sewer-air into the house will be absolutely prevented. By this plan the waste-pipe coming out of the house empties into a catch-basin at the head of the drain, which is covered by a small grating. The sewer-air from the drain by this method passes directly out into the atmosphere, and, becoming instantaneously diluted, is almost innocuous. This practice, however, can not extend to any waste-pipes except those from kitchen-sinks, stationary wash-stands, and bath-tubs. As the night-soil from the water-closet consists so largely of solid matter, it is desirable that it should be carried farther from the house before the connections are broken. For this reason it is proper that the drain empty into a flush-tank, that known as Field's being the most commonly used. The manner of making this connection and the construction of the flush-tank are shown in the cut (Fig. 7).

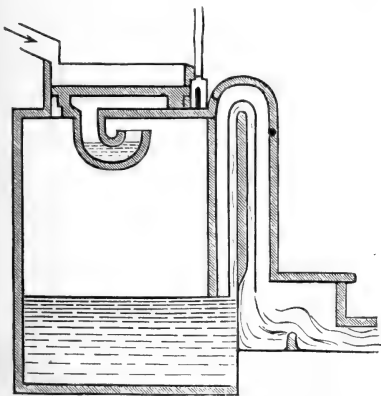


FIG. 7.—FIELD'S FLUSH-TANK. (Waring.)

It can not be too often repeated or too clearly stated that the more waste-pipes there are in a dwelling, however complicated the system of traps, and however perfect the ventilation, the greater will be the danger of contamination of the air, not only from sewer-air, but from the particles of organic matter adhering to the

sides of the different waste-pipes constantly undergoing decomposition. It is therefore apparent that bath-rooms, stationary wash-stands, and the like, should never communicate directly with the sleeping or living room.

If the connection between the waste-pipes and the house-drain be broken, the drain is less likely to become obstructed. The necessity for care in the construction of house-drains is at all times urgent, but in practice it is made to depend upon whether the householder obtain his water-supply from a well, or whether he be supplied from public water-works. In the former event the drain will usually be constructed with considerable care, but it is not common that the effect of soil contaminated and rendered poisonous by means of a broken or leaking house-drain is appreciated. In fact, there is some doubt, even in the minds of sanitarians, as to the extent of the effect produced by decomposing excrementitious matters in soil. The statistics on this point are those from the cities of Eastern Asia, where it is the practice to throw all slops and night-soil upon the surface of the earth, and leave its disposal to the care of Heaven. Some have even asserted that the death-rate from zymotic diseases was not in excess of that in European villages where the like conditions do not prevail. But mortality statistics must be furnished with greater accuracy, and the population of the cities established by a census rather than by loose "estimates," before any trustworthy conclusions can be reached. If, therefore, these assertions be left out of the account, and the experience of European nations be taken as the guide, we shall find a general and widespread belief as to the deleterious effect of these poisonous emanations. Indeed, modern sanitary procedures rest entirely on the basis that uncared-for house excreta are poisonous and dangerous to health, and all appliances are constructed with a view to removing them as far from human vicinity as possible. It is, however, to be considered that excrement allowed to decompose in the open air is less dangerous than that mixed with earth away from the air and sunlight. House-drains should be constructed of vitrified earthenware-pipe, it having been found impossible to prevent the old-fashioned square-brick drain from leaking and contaminating the soil. The size of the house-drain should be governed by the size of the waste-pipes and amount of sewage to be carried. Colonel Waring is of the opinion that these drains are usually constructed too large. If the drain be small enough so that the volume of water keeps it constantly filled, it is not liable to allow cryptogamic fungi to be attached to its sides, nor is it so liable to the production of sewer-gas. If the flush-tank be used, as is here recommended, it will be necessary that the size of the drain should correspond to the outlet of the flush-tank, and, as the flush-tank is so constructed as to be easy of access, the drain itself is unlikely

to become obstructed. If the flush-tank be not used, the lidded opercular or access pipe will be found that most convenient, as, in case of obstruction of the pipe, access can be gained

immediately to the point of obstruction. The construction of the access-pipe will be readily understood by reference to the cut.

9. *Inspection.*—The following points in ref-

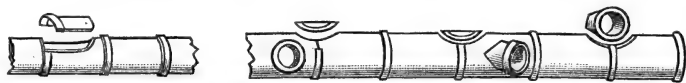


FIG. 8.—“ACCESS” PIPES.

erence to the inspection of houses suspected of being in an unsanitary condition are proper to be observed:

The inspector will note the location of the dwelling with reference to its surroundings, and the character of the soil on which the house is built. It is also to be noted whether or not the walls be damp, and whether the basement be free from odor. During the inspection of the basement, the location of the house-drain should be noted if practicable. In proceeding to the upper floors, the inspector will note any odors that may exist indicating the presence of escaping coal-gas or illuminating gas; the means of ventilation, whether natural or artificial, should also be observed. The closets should be inspected, and each stationary wash-stand, or other point for the possible entrance of sewer-air, carefully examined. If the soil-pipe extend through or above the roof, an assistant should empty half an ounce of oil of peppermint into the soil-pipe. In two or three minutes the inspector should visit the bath-room and other places where there are waste-pipes and traps, and if these be in a leaking condition the smell of the oil will soon pervade the apartment. This should in no case be done by the inspector himself, as he will then be unable to detect the presence of the oil, owing to the saturation of his garments with the effluvia. In case the soil-pipe does not extend above the roof, the oil may be placed in the house-drain just below the outlet of the soil-pipe, and the drain speedily covered over to prevent a diffusion of the perfume through the air.

In case a pipe be obstructed from any cause, the point of obstruction may be determined by the use of small canes or rattans, screwed together like the joints of a fishing-rod. A sample of the drinking-water should be taken for purposes of analysis. In case the water-supply be from a well, and there are sinks emptying into the yard, or a privy near, a gallon or two of strong brine should be thrown into them, and another visit made after two or three days, for the purpose of securing a second sample of the well-water for analysis.

10. *Drinking-Water.*—Drinking-water is obtained from wells, springs, streams, ponds, lakes, or cisterns. Wells furnish drinking-water for the major portion of the inhabitants of the earth, although among the Western civilized nations the cities and larger towns are supplied from natural streams, ponds, or lakes, by means of

aqueducts. At first sight it would appear that water which is pleasant to the taste and inoffensive to the eye, and without odor, would be that most healthful, but this does not appear to be the case. Indeed, science has not yet furnished us with a satisfactory solution of the extent to which water must be polluted in order to make it absolutely unwholesome. The Hindoos habitually drink the most disgusting water, especially those who derive their water-supply from tanks. These tanks are simply reservoirs which are filled during the rainy season, and it is stated by Dr. Simmons, in the “Chinese Customs Medical Reports,” 1880, that “the water of these tanks is used not only to quench thirst, but is said to be drunk in additional quantities as a sacred duty. At the same time the reservoir serves as a large washing-tub for clothes, no matter how dirty, or in what way soiled, as well as for personal bathing.” And we are informed by the same authority that the Hindoo “can not be made to use a latrine. In the cities he digs a hole in his habitation; in the country the fields, the hill-sides, the banks of streams or rivers. . . . Hence it is that the vicinity of towns, the banks of the watercourses, reek with filth of the worst description, which is of necessity washed into the public water-supply with every rainfall.”

Although thousands of Hindoos annually perish from epidemic diseases, yet their fruitfulness is such that it does not appear that the population has materially diminished. The water-supply of China, as compared with India, is comparatively uncontaminated, yet it is highly charged with organic matter. Many wells are cemented for a considerable distance for the purpose of keeping out the surface-drainage, but it is obvious that this is only a makeshift and does not fulfill the purpose, inasmuch as the ground-water will rise in the bottom of the well and its sides below the cemented wall. It is an almost universal custom of the Chinese to boil the water before drinking, even when tea is not drunk. Their immunity from diseases produced by bad drinking-water is attributed to this fact. Experiments have recently been made by a scientific enthusiast in Europe upon himself, by drinking ditch-water teeming with infusoria, and, as he alleges, without harmful result. It is to be remembered in this connection that an investigation of the towns and villages in civilized nations where the water-supply is derived from wells has developed the fact that the privy is usually placed within a

few feet of the well. As has been graphically described, "the householder digs two holes in the back yard; one is used for the privy-vault, the deeper one is that from which he obtains his supply of drinking-water."

So large a proportion of the human family being supplied with drinking-water more or less contaminated, without visible harm, it follows that the dangers have either been greatly overrated, or else sickness, alleged to be produced by other causes, must be attributed to bad drinking-water. That wells thus situated are contaminated, chemical analysis has abundantly proved, and as privies must continue to be used in connection with country-houses, it is better to recognize the fact of the well-water contamination and take means to prevent it. Fortunately, this is sufficiently easy to accomplish. The house-sink should be drained as before described, and the privy drained by a separate drain entirely disconnected from the house-drain. This drain should be tight and connected with the waste-water carriage, if practicable, and it is usually practicable, as suitable tanks for catching and storing rain-water can be attached to every house. The privy-drain should be laid with great care, and the joints made absolutely perfect, and, where the ground at the disposal of the householder is plenty, it should be at as great a distance from the well as is compatible with convenience. While it is not possible to fix upon the proportion of organic admixture in drinking-water which will render it absolutely poisonous, yet it is clear that any contamination is more or less injurious, and if excreta from a typhoid-fever or cholera patient are placed in conditions favorable for admixture with drinking-water, those diseases are likely to be communicated. In a recent epidemic at Caterham, England, the total number of cases was 342, and there were 21 deaths. The epidemic originated from the water supplied by the Caterham Company being contaminated with the excreta from a single typhoid-fever patient ("Marine Hospital Service Bulletin," No. 43, May 3, 1879).

A case equally in point is that of a severe outbreak of typhoid fever at Clifton, England, which was traced to the use of milk from a farm where the pump was five yards from the privy-vault. Previous to the outbreak a young lady had been carried to the farmhouse to complete her convalescence from typhoid fever ("Ibid., No. 8, August 31, 1878).

Owing to the great and increasing difficulty of preserving well-water from contamination, it is a question worthy of serious consideration whether wells ought not to be abandoned as a means of furnishing drinking-water in all countries where the rainfall is heavy enough to allow the storage of a sufficient quantity for household purposes.

In addition to the contamination of well-waters from house-slops, sinks, and privies, it is well known that the ova of many parasites

are conveyed by means of drinking-water, and this can only be prevented by boiling.

Cisterns.—In the construction of cisterns, it is necessary to take into consideration the size of the roof, with reference to the amount of water that can be furnished. Mr. Bayles ("House Drainage and Water Service," New York, 1878) has given the following rule: "To calculate the amount of water which will drain from a roof, multiply the area of the roof in feet by the average rainfall in a month in inches, and the product by .623. This gives the number of gallons which will drain from a roof in a month. With a regular consumption for domestic purposes, cistern capacity for one quarter to three eighths this amount of water will be ample. When a roof has a steep pitch, its size should be determined by the area of ground it actually covers." The city of Venice, until recently, has been cited as a city where the cisterns reached the highest type of perfection; but an additional water-supply has lately been provided, and the cisterns are not so much used as formerly. Cistern-water to be fit for drinking should be filtered, or the cistern should be so constructed as to be in itself a filter. They are usually placed in the ground, but in many cases are in the attics of houses, or a tank is constructed supported upon pillars or posts. Cisterns are commonly walled with brick, laid in hydraulic cement, and plastered smoothly on the inside with the same material. In some instances the water from the roof is received through a charcoal tank, the overflow of which empties into the main cistern. In this case the water is pumped without any additional filtration; in others the cistern is so constructed that the rain-water is obliged to pass successively through charcoal, coarse gravel, fine gravel, and sand before reaching the pump-reservoir. A method which has the merit of cheapness, and is at the same time efficient, is as follows: The cistern is finished in any desired shape and capacity, after which a wall consisting of selected soft-burned bricks is laid across one corner, if the cistern be square, or a segment if it be a circle. The rain-water is received into the larger cavity, and its gravity forces it into the smaller one directly through the bricks. This renders the filtration as perfect as can be, and at the minimum expense. The rapidity with which the water permeates and passes through the partition-wall is such that in practice it has been found that, after a short time in use, the water will stand in both reservoirs at the same level.

Public Water-Supply.—In public water-supplies the danger of contamination with organic matter is in inverse ratio to the total amount of water furnished. The experience of the Rivers' Pollution Commissioners, in England, and experiments in this country, have shown how rapidly organic filth was oxidized and rendered harmless when largely diluted. Indeed, there is as yet but little danger in America from pollution of the rivers, and it will be

many years before the population is sufficiently dense to render it a source of alarm, except in the smaller streams where the sewage emptied into them is more highly concentrated. In such cases the question of the disposal of sewage is one of great importance. This discussion, however, does not fall within the scope of this paper.

From what has been said, it will appear that the water-supply derived from large bodies of water is that most wholesome, but as the streams from which it is usually obtained are subject to periodical rise and fall, owing to the rains or drought, and in the former event contain a large amount of soil suspended in it, "settling reservoirs" are usually constructed. It is in these reservoirs that certain fresh-water algæ or aquatic plants have their origin and growth, and, when abundant, they impart a color to the water.

The effect upon the human system of vegetable organic matter deserves consideration. Professor Farlow, of Harvard University, in a recent paper on the subject (Massachusetts Board of Health Reports, 1880), states:

"Considered from a sanitary point of view, we may say that the grass-green algæ have no injurious effect upon the water in which they grow. On the contrary, we may regard their presence as an indication of its purity, for they do not grow in impure water. If almost any river or pond water, no matter how clear it appears, is placed in a covered glass jar, in a few days or weeks there will be formed a greenish expansion on the sides and at the bottom, which, on examination, will be found to consist principally of the young stages of development of some of the algæ."

Professor Farlow, while thus pronouncing in favor of the harmlessness of the grass-green algæ, is equally decided in his opinion that the bluish-green algæ which sometimes assume a purple tinge, at other times dark and almost black, are injurious in their effect upon water. Of this class he has discovered that the *Nostoc* family "are the cause of certain disagreeable conditions of our drinking-water. So long as they are living, and not excessively abundant, they produce no perceptibly bad effect on the water; but, when large quantities of them decay, they give rise to the pig-pen odor, as it is called, which has in recent years caused considerable trouble, and still more alarm."

However interesting in a botanical point of view the study of the fresh-water algæ may be, information is certainly wanting to show that they exert any deleterious or even material influence upon the health. It is, however, a matter of prudence that, when the fresh-water algæ are sufficiently numerous in any specimen of water to give off a disagreeable odor, the water should be filtered before drinking it, as either vegetable or animal organic matter while in a decomposing state must be more or less injurious to health.

It may be stated, in conclusion, that when any given specimen of drinking-water is under the ban of suspicion, it should in all cases be submitted to a chemical analysis and microscopical examination by the proper health officer of the city or village, and if it be desired in the mean time to continue the use of the water, it should be filtered, and, if necessary, boiled, previous to filtration. The various forms of filters, almost any of which are suitable for use, will be found at the first-class house-furnishing establishments.

JOHN B. HAMILTON,
Supervising Surgeon-General,
U. S. Marine Hospital Service.

HUNGARY, a kingdom of Europe, and one of the two principal divisions of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. (See AUSTRO-HUNGARY.) The Hungarian Ministry at the close of 1880 was composed as follows: President of the Ministry and Minister of the Interior, Kolomon Tisza de Borosjenő; Minister near the King's Person (*ad latus*), Baron Bela d'Orézy; Minister of Education and Worship, Augustus de Trefort; Minister for the Defense of the Country, Colonel B. Szende de Keresztes; Minister of Public Works, Paul d'Ordödy; Minister for Croatia and Slavonia, Gabriel Baron de Prónay; Minister of Justice, Dr. Theodor Pauler; Minister of Finances, Count Szapary; Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry, Baron Kemény.

The area and population of the countries of the Hungarian crown are as follows, according to the "Statistische Handbuch der österreichisch-ungarischen Monarchie":

COUNTRIES.	Square kilometres.	Population in 1876.
Hungary and Transylvania	280,480·04	13,724,442
Fiume (free city)	19·82	18,178
Croatia and Slavonia.	23,263·57	1,218,180
Military Frontier	20,332·01	693,738
Total	324,045·44	15,654,538

The movement of population was as follows in 1876 and 1877:

NUMBER OF	1876.	1877.
Marriages	154,305	178,389
Births	718,156	678,421
Deaths { inclusive of still-births. }	561,279	570,144
Excess of births	151,877	108,277

The budget for the countries belonging to the Hungarian crown for 1880, as voted by the Diet, was as follows (1 florin = 48 cents):

RECEIPTS.	Florins.
1. Direct taxes	83,964,880
2. Indirect taxes	90,769,412
3. Receipts from Government property and state institutions	23,961,080
4. Extraordinary receipts of the Ministry of Finance	13,200,787
5. Receipts of the other Ministries	21,560,252
6. Other receipts	8,700,000
Total ordinary receipts	287,156,011
Extraordinary receipts	2,427,146
Total	289,583,157

EXPENDITURES.

Florins.

1. Royal household	4,650,000
2. Royal cabinet chancery	69,492
3. Diet	1,274,741
4. Council of Ministers	308,690
5. Ministry ad latus	50,563
6. " for Croatia and Slavonia	33,880
7. " of the Interior	7,514,938
8. " of Public Defense	6,393,000
9. " of Education and Worship	4,835,437
10. " of Justice	9,949,178
11. " of Agriculture and Commerce	11,157,961
12. " of Communications	14,027,494
13. " of Finance	39,542,060
14. Administration of Croatia and Slavonia	5,353,718
15. " of Fiume	84,655
16. Pensions	8,989,446
17. Public debt	48,404,117
18. Disencumbrance of real estate	16,651,844
19. Contributions to the common expenditure of the empire	30,320,000
20. Contribution to the Austrian debt	30,320,000
21. State Court of Accounts	130,000
22. Redemption of vineyard tithes	2,264,740
23. Guaranteed interest to private railroads	10,942,000
24. Miscellaneous	1,133,745
Total ordinary expenditures	248,933,574
Extraordinary expenditures	8,094,704
Extraordinary expenditure for Bosnia	2,526,139
Total ordinary and extraordinary expenditures	259,499,403
Deficit	19,916,251

In the budget for Croatia and Slavonia for 1879 the receipts and expenditure were estimated each at 3,270,637 florins.

The public debt of Hungary at the beginning of 1878 amounted to 662,404,801 florins, exclusive of the common debt of the empire. Hungary also has a share in the public debt of Austria proper, about 30 per cent. of its amount previous to 1863. This debt is regarded as exclusively Austrian, but Hungary pays annually a fixed sum for interest and for amortization. The assets of the state were estimated in 1878 at 851,800,000 florins.

The budget for 1881, as presented toward the close of the year by the Minister of Finance, in the Diet, showed a deficit of 24,765,381 fl., for covering which 7,800,000 fl. of rente not yet issued were still available. The result of the new taxes and duties was estimated at 6,500,000 fl.; and the remaining deficit of 10,500,000 fl. was to be covered by an issue of new gold rente.

On October 18th the new session of the Delegations was opened at Pesth. On receiving the Delegations, the Emperor Francis Joseph referred to the part which his Government had taken in regard to affairs in the East, and said that, as heretofore, his Government would make it its duty to keep the monarchy out of complications, and would do its utmost for the maintenance of peace and treaty rights; but, under the circumstances, its first task would be the defense of Austro-Hungarian interests. The Hungarian Delegation elected M. Ludwig Tisza, President, and Cardinal Haynald, Vice-President. M. Tisza, in his opening speech, emphasized the necessity of affording the means of maintaining the position of the monarchy among other powers to the utmost limit of possibility. The Hungarians had to ask a number of questions relating to Bosnia and Herze-

govina, but, after the common Minister of Finance had replied to all these questions, the Hungarian Delegation adopted all the proposals of the military committee in reference to the extraordinary grants for the troops in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The sessions of the Hungarian Diet were often the scene of violent conflicts between the Government and the Opposition. The Prime Minister, Tisza, retained control of the majority, and repeated motions to express a want of confidence in the Government were defeated. On February 21st a long speech against the financial policy of the Government was made by M. Koloman Szell, the former Minister of Finance, who stated that, although he was willing to vote for the budget, he could not support a vote of confidence in the Ministry. M. Tisza, in reply, said the tasks to be undertaken by the Legislature in the immediate future were a revision of the laws relating to industry, the classification of the railways, and the establishment of railway lines of the second rank in as great a number as possible. On February 22d Count Szapary, the Minister of Finance, defended the financial bills which had been presented to the House by the Government against the attacks of the Opposition. He declared that M. Szell took too pessimistic a view of the present state of the country, which was in reality already progressing in the path of improvement.

On March 6th the Diet rejected, by 222 votes against 174, a motion of want of confidence in the Ministry. The budget law for 1880 was adopted by a large majority. In April the Lower House adopted a resolution brought forward by M. Iranyi for the introduction of civil marriages; but the second part of the motion, enunciating the principle of religious freedom, was rejected by 107 votes to 94. In the course of the debate M. Tisza said that freedom of worship already existed in Hungary, and with regard to civil marriage he expressed his intention of submitting a bill on the subject, if possible, during the current session, but said that great difficulties stood in the way of such a measure.

In November the Emperor addressed an autograph letter to M. Tisza, in which he announced that the Grand Cross of the Order of St. Stephen had been conferred upon the Premier in recognition of his eminent services, and in token of the Emperor's confidence.

The conflicts between the different nationalities into which the population of the kingdom is divided continue to be very fierce. The Magyars, although the predominant race, do not constitute more than one third of the entire population, and are almost equaled by the Slavic population, which, however, is divided into several tribes. According to A. Ficker, one of the standard writers on the ethnographic relations of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, the people of Hungary, who are estimated by him at 16,297,200, are divided with regard to their mother-tongue as follows:

Magyars	5,650,000
Germans	1,800,000
Slavs, divided into	
Slovacks, Czechs, and Moravians.....	2,000,000
Ruthenians	600,000
Croats and Servians	2,570,000
Slovens	60,000
Bulgarians	80,000
Total Slavs	5,260,000
Roumanians	2,800,000
Italians	8,000
Israelites	580,000
Gypsies	150,000
Others	15,200
Total	16,297,200

It will be seen that the Magyars, the predominant race, number only a little more than one third of the entire population. They are displaying, however, a marvelous energy in extending the prevalence of their tongue, and toward elevating it to the position of the only official language of the kingdom. This is especially the case in the Department of Public Instruction. The Minister of Public Instruction, in a speech made in the Hungarian Diet, on November 27th, declared that during the eight years of his official position he had done more for Hungarian culture and science than any of his predecessors. It is admitted by all parties in Hungary that this claim is undoubtedly true with regard to the Magyar schools. Their number is rapidly increasing, at the expense of the schools of other nationalities, especially of the German. According to the official report of the Minister of Public Instruction, for 1879, there were in that year, among the 1,644,803 pupils of public schools, 794,915 Magyars, 271,513 Germans, 205,374 Roumanians, 263,624 Slovacks, 36,716 Servians, 27,076 Croats, and 45,591 Ruthenians. Among 15,715 national schools, there were 7,179 Magyar, 953 German, 2,848 Roumanian, 1,837 Slovack, 260 Servian, 66 Croatian, 471 Ruthenian, and 2,083 were mixed. Thus, there was one Magyar school for every 110 pupils of that nationality, one Roumanian for every 80, one Servian for every 140, one Slovackian for every 150, and one German for every 300. The Germans complain that the Minister of Public Instruction avails himself of every opportunity to suppress the German national schools, and substitute Magyar schools for them. They also complain that in many cities acts of great violence were committed against their nationality. Thus in Pesth and other places the municipal councils refused to authorize the opening of a German theatre. In the Servian and Roumanian districts the Government endeavored to put at the head of the Greek Church, to which these classes of the population chiefly belong, men devoted to the Magyar tendencies, and thereby called forth a violent agitation in the Greek Church. (See GREEK CHURCH.)

A new compromise (*Ausgleich*) was brought about in 1880 between the former kingdom of Croatia and the Government of Hungary. When the reconciliation between the Imperial Government of Austria and the Magyars was

effected in 1867, Croatia, inclusive of Slavonia, was made part of the lands of the Hungarian crown. It is, accordingly, represented in both Houses of the Hungarian Diet. It has, however, a special provincial Diet which has control of all matters relating to the Departments of the Interior, of Worship and Instruction, and of Justice. At the head of the provincial administration is a "Ban," who is appointed by the Government of Hungary. The Croatian Diet consists of the Catholic Archbishop and the Bishop of the Greek Oriental Church, the Provost of Aurana, eight Obergespanns (chief magistrates of counties), the Comes of Turofolje, two counts, and 77 deputies, elected partly directly and partly indirectly. Fully 97 per cent. of the population are Croats and Servians, who really belong to the same nationality, being only distinguished by religion, the Croats belonging to the Catholic and the Servians to the Greek Church, and by the use of different alphabets in writing. The financial relations between Croatia and the Hungarian Monarchy were regulated by a compromise in 1868, which was to be renewed in 1879. As the two deputations were, however, unable to agree, the old compromise was prolonged for one year. Before the negotiations concerning a new compromise were resumed, the Hungarian Government caused the appointment of a new "Ban," Count Pejacevich, who was considered as being entirely devoted to the Magyar interest. The new "Ban" succeeded, indeed, in obtaining in August the consent of the Croatian Diet to this compromise, which was adopted by the large majority of 65 against 13. In November it was also adopted by the Hungarian Diet. Although Count Pejacevich is a devoted adherent to the Hungarian Government, he found it necessary to make important concessions to the Croatian nationalists. He officially stated in a speech made to the Croatian Diet that all attempts to Magyarize the country should be resisted, and that he would make the greatest efforts to have the former Military Frontier, which the Hungarian Government wishes to place under the direct administration of Hungary, incorporated with Croatia. The Military Frontier had, at the time of its greatest extent, before the union of some districts with Hungary had begun, a population of over 1,000,000 inhabitants, of whom more than 78 per cent. were Croats and Servians, and 15 per cent. Roumanians. A union of these people with Croatia would, of course, greatly strengthen the nationality feeling of the Croato-Servians. The outspoken nationalists in Croatia are, however, not satisfied with the demand for the incorporation of the Military Frontier, but clamor for the reconstruction of the so-called "Triune" kingdom, consisting of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, with the further annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In Dalmatia, which now forms part of Cisleithania, the Croato-Servians constitute fully 87 per cent. of the inhabitants, while in Bosnia and Herzegovina

nearly the entire population belong to the same nationality. A realization of these hopes would create a state of fully 3,600,000 inhabitants, under the absolute control of the Croato-Servian nationality, and which would not fail to be a center of gravitation for the remainder of that nationality which partly live in the principality of Servia and partly in south Hungary. At all events, there exists an irrepressible conflict between the tendencies of the Magyar and the Croato-Servian nationalities, the further progress and final solution of which will have a marked influence upon the reconstruction of Eastern Europe.

The southern part of Austria, in November, severely suffered from an earthquake which was felt as far south as Pola and Serayevo. At Agram more than 200 private houses were irreparably damaged, while two churches were in so dangerous a state that they had to be pulled down. Part of the cathedral required to be reconstructed. The palace and country-seat of the Cardinal-Archbishop of Agram, the military school, and the Government cigar-manufactory were half destroyed by the earthquake-shocks, and terrible damage was done to the farm-buildings in the neighborhood within a radius of about fourteen miles. There were no less than nine shocks felt between midnight on Monday, November 8th, and five o'clock on Tuesday morning. On Thursday, November 11th, a fresh shock of so violent a character occurred that the hall in which the Diet was assembled was severely shaken. Nearly half the population of the city fled in panic. About

five miles from Agram a number of fountains of hot water burst from the earth, but their duration was only temporary. According to an official statement made by the Burgomaster of Agram, two persons were killed and twenty-three injured. Four hundred persons were without shelter, and many of them lacked the necessaries of life.

On May 23d the statue of Count Stephen Szechenyi was unveiled at Pesth, amid the enthusiastic participation of all classes. Among those present were Archduke Joseph and other members of the royal family, the two sons of Szechenyi, and a most brilliant assembly of magnates and high functionaries of state. Count Stephen Szechenyi, who was born in 1792, and died April 8, 1860, is generally regarded as one of the greatest statesmen of Hungary. He was indefatigable and eminently successful in his labors for the material and intellectual progress of his country. He was opposed to the separation of Hungary from Austria, but aimed at a regeneration of the country chiefly through the aristocracy and in connection with Austria. When the Cabinet of Bach, of which he was a bitter opponent, ordered his house to be searched for documents which were to prove him the author of a book directed against the Ministry, he was thrown into such a state of excitement that he committed suicide. Count Emeric Szechenyi, who was appointed in 1878 Austrian ambassador at Berlin, and still represented that empire in December, 1880, is a nephew of Count Stephen. He is regarded as an intimate friend of Prince Bismarck.

I

IDE, JACOB, was born at Attleboro, Massachusetts, March 29, 1785, and died in West Medway, January 7, 1880, aged ninety-four years and nine months. He settled in West Medway as a Congregational minister in 1814, and retired from his pastorate in March, 1879. His early life was spent in hard labor upon the farm of his father, who opposed his obtaining a public education: after one year of preparation amid the interruptions of labor and teaching, he was admitted to Brown University, and graduated in 1809, at the age of twenty-four. At Andover he graduated as a theological student, and continued in the ministry for over sixty years. He was an antislavery man of decided convictions, but never violent or excessive in the expression of his opinions; on the contrary, preserved a calm demeanor and judicial balance which commanded respect and inspired confidence. In his sympathy with his unfortunate son-in-law, Torrey, he deprecated the rash measures urged by the latter for curing the evil of slavery. Even when age had enfeebled his bodily powers, the clearness of his thought and judgment survived.

ILLINOIS. The history of the public debt of Illinois commenced with the establishment of the State Bank in 1821, whose issue depreciated to 33½ cents on the dollar. The first funded loan was created in 1831 to retire these notes. To complete the Lake Michigan and Illinois River Canal, for which the State had received a grant of lands from the Government in 1827, and to carry out an extensive scheme of other public works, the second State Bank was created in 1835, and money was borrowed on the State's bonds, until in 1839 and 1840, when the State's credit was broken down and this rash policy was suddenly arrested, the debt, funded and unfunded, amounted to about \$12,000,000. From that time the struggling State directed its efforts to honestly extricating itself from its financial embarrassments. The canal was surrendered to the trustees of the bondholders, and the unfinished railroads were offered for sale. In 1848 a plan of adjustment was incorporated in a new Constitution. Arrears of interest were funded. In the year 1853 the debt was at its maximum, and amounted to about \$17,000,000. In 1857, for the first time,

interest was paid on the entire debt. From that period the process of redemption has been going on. New loans, amounting to \$2,050,000, were raised to equip soldiers for the civil war. A large portion of this war debt has been reimbursed into the State Treasury by the United States Government. At the close of 1880 the State was able to redeem the last balance of its huge debt, and in the beginning of January the entire amount of the money was in the Treasury to meet it.

The only debt now standing on the books of the Treasury is one due from the general revenue fund to the school and the college and seminary funds, amounting to \$1,165,407. This transfer originated as follows: At different times the State used, for general revenue purposes, funds which had been dedicated to the school fund, being portions of the three per cent. fund, the college and seminary land fund, and the surplus revenue of the United States, which was divided among the States in 1836. By repeated declarations the faith of the State is pledged to for ever pay for school purposes an amount equal to six per cent. per annum on the sum above stated. So long as it remains the policy of the State to make appropriations in aid of education, the existence of this nominal debt does not increase the amount to be raised by taxation, nor does its existence negative the statement that Illinois is now out of debt.

The following table, giving the amount of the public debt at different periods according to the computations of the State Auditor, shows the magnitude of the financial efforts with which the State has been able to discharge so huge a mass of liabilities in so short a time:

STATE DEBT.	
January 1, 1840.....	\$12,000,000 00
January 1, 1850.....	15,000,000 00
January 1, 1858.....	16,724,177 41
January 1, 1858.....	18,994,614 98
January 1, 1857.....	12,854,144 85
January 1, 1859.....	11,138,458 98
November 30, 1860.....	10,846,017 06
December 1, 1869.....	5,124,995 64
December 1, 1870.....	4,890,987 30
December 1, 1872.....	2,060,150 63
December 1, 1874.....	1,730,972 15
October 1, 1876.....	1,480,600 27
October 1, 1878.....	802,312 59
October 1, 1880.....	281,059 11
January 1, 1881.....	None.

The total disbursements from the Treasury for all purposes have been compiled by the Auditor from the year 1839 to January 1, 1881, and amount for the forty years to \$91,707,975, distributed among the following objects: Legislative expenses, \$4,217,086; executive, \$4,777,663; judicial, \$3,613,220; debt for public works, \$30,276,307; educational purposes, \$26,027,132; miscellaneous, \$22,803,565.

The expenditures for each of the biennial periods or single years since 1839, as stated by the Auditor, exhibiting the increase of the fiscal resources of the State, are given in the following table:

YEARS.	Total expenditures.
1840.....	\$208,743
1841-42.....	873,868
1843-44.....	332,886
1845-46.....	380,164
1847-48.....	670,449
1849-50.....	640,287
1851-52.....	1,199,908
1853-54.....	2,117,999
1855-56.....	3,687,306
1857-58.....	5,094,688
1859-60.....	5,023,061
1861-62.....	3,438,559
1863-64.....	4,568,774
1865-66.....	6,514,858
1867-68.....	7,411,056
1869.....	3,816,881
1870.....	2,994,884
1871-72.....	11,023,863
1873-74.....	8,749,312
1875-76.....	5,618,011
1877-78.....	6,561,804
1879-80.....	6,311,605
Total.....	\$91,707,975

The expenditures of the executive department have been comparatively uniform, but those of the legislative and judicial departments have been variable, both being nearly or quite trebled since the adoption of the Constitution of 1870. The largest aggregate was in 1870-'72, covering a period when the State Constitutional Convention and Legislature were in session a considerable portion of the time, and there was an increase of the public improvement debt in consequence of the enlargement of the Illinois and Michigan Canal. The total expenditures for the next two years—1872-'74—were \$8,749,312.79, being some \$300,000 in excess of the highest year during the war, when the State was equipping troops for the field. The total amount expended from the war fund is computed to amount to \$3,899,311.78; which expenditures were distributed from 1861 to 1868.

The biennial report of the State Treasurer, J. C. Smith, gives the following statements of the balance of the various funds in the State Treasury at the close of the fiscal year 1878, the revenue receipts for the two years, the disbursements for the same period, and the balance remaining October 1, 1880.

The amount of all funds in the State Treasury, October 1, 1878, was as follows:

General revenue fund.....	\$1,750,503 67
State school fund.....	275,432 77
Illinois Central Railroad fund.....	12,821 68
Illinois River Improvement fund.....	367 99
Military fund.....	7,214 88
Delinquent land-tax fund.....	881 06
Unknown and minor heirs' fund.....	6,981 22
Local bond fund.....	423,740 37
Total.....	\$2,589,398 49

The receipts from all sources from October 1, 1878, to September 30, 1880, inclusive, were as follows:

General revenue fund.....	\$3,822,146 66
State school fund.....	2,040,710 23
Illinois Central Railroad fund.....	660,467 23
Military fund.....	138,216 92
Unknown and minor heirs' fund.....	550 82
Local bond fund.....	2,291,057 23
Total.....	\$8,475,149 09
Balance October 1, 1878.....	2,589,398 49
Total receipts.....	\$11,064,547 58

The disbursements from October 1, 1878, to September 30, 1880, inclusive, were as follows:

General revenue fund.....	\$3,689,038 50
State school fund.....	2,921,240 78
Illinois Central Railroad fund.....	587,237 45
Illinois River improvement fund.....	867 99
Military fund.....	127,444 29
Unknown and minor heirs' fund.....	75 57
Local bond fund.....	2,220,478 02

Total expenditures.....	\$8,595,935 69
Balance of all funds in State Treasury October 1, 1880.....	2,468,606 89

Which balance was made up as follows:

General revenue fund.....	\$1,438,611 74
State school fund.....	816,902 22
Illinois Central Railroad fund.....	198,001 61
Military fund.....	17,987 21
Delinquent land-tax fund.....	331 06
Unknown and minor heirs' fund.....	7,433 47
Local bond fund.....	494,319 58
Total balance.....	\$2,468,606 89

The balance in the Treasury on account of the general revenue, the school fund, the Illinois Central Railroad, and the military funds, on October 1, 1878, was \$2,112,223; the receipts for the two years on account of the same, \$6,183,541; total receipts, \$8,295,765; expenditures for two years from these funds, \$6,365,989; balance, October 1, 1880, \$1,929,775. The \$281,059 bonds outstanding, called in for payment on January 1, 1881, by the proclamation of the Governor, consisted of \$103,000 refunded stock bonds, payable after 1877; \$154,459 new internal improvement interest stock, also payable in 1877 or thereafter; and \$23,600 in bonds previously called in for redemption, but not presented. The special fund derived from the gross earnings of the Illinois Central Railroad, which was reserved for the payment of the State debt, is applicable under the Constitution of 1870 to the payment of the ordinary expenses of the State government after the extinction of the debt. The \$198,001 balance in the Treasury on account of this fund was sufficient to meet the balance of the debt, and leave about \$100,000 to be turned over to the general revenue account. The amount paid into the State Treasury by the Illinois Central Railroad in accordance with the conditions of its charter, being seven per cent. of the gross earnings, in lieu of all other taxes, has been from the date of its charter, March 24, 1855, to April 30, 1880, in all \$8,104,656. Of the balance in the Treasury on October 1, 1880, \$502,104 consisted of trust funds, held for the payment of local bonds, etc., and \$1,966,502 consisted of State funds, \$1,433,611 belonging to the general revenue fund, and being applicable for the expenses of the State government. The different classes of expenses for which warrants were drawn on the Treasury, and the amounts of the same, for the two years, were as follows:

EXPENDITURES.	Amount.
Legislative.....	\$295,010 27
Executive.....	273,230 12
Judicial.....	557,994 20
Educational.....	2,273,053 76
Charitable.....	1,417,072 72
Penal and reformatory.....	568,917 28

Amount.	
Agricultural and piscicultural.....	\$43,296 50
Commerce.....	57,141 41
Military.....	215,807 80
State indebtedness.....	587,237 45
Refunding and transfer warrants.....	55,824 63
Monumental.....	13,125 00
Local bond disbursements.....	2,216,429 67
Minor heirs'.....	75 57

Total.....	\$8,533,909 88
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The estimate of the expenses from October 1, 1880, to July 1, 1881, at which date the appropriations made by the Legislature become available, is as follows: For legislative, executive, and judicial expenses, \$603,369; balance of appropriations for educational and charitable purposes, \$741,952; State debt and interest, \$290,000; miscellaneous and special appropriations, \$233,033; militia, \$13,105; total, \$1,881,461.

For a series of years back there has always been at the meeting of the Legislature a surplus in the Treasury to the credit of the revenue fund above the amount required to meet the appropriations made by the previous Legislature. The appropriations made by the last Legislature absorb this surplus and perhaps leave instead a small deficit. To pay the per diem of the members of the Assembly and the salaries of State officers, \$117,000 will have to be appropriated, to cover the deficiency of the appropriations available for these purposes up to July 1st, by the next Legislature. The surplus remaining from the Illinois Central Railroad fund, and the unexpended balances of other appropriations, will probably cover all deficits.

The Governor's estimate of the amount required to be raised by taxation during the coming two years is as follows:

FOR GENERAL STATE PURPOSES.

Legislative.....	\$272,000
Executive.....	430,000
Judicial.....	554,000

Total departments.....	\$1,256,000
Ordinary expenses and necessary repairs, and improvements of State charitable institutions.....	1,300,000
Eastern Insane Asylum—construction.....	200,000
Expenses of universities.....	125,000
Joliet Prison—working capital.....	50,000
Chester Prison—expenses and construction of Hospital for Insane Convicts.....	300,000
Canal contingent fund.....	60,000
For conveying convicts and arresting fugitives.....	90,000
Illinois National Guard.....	150,000
Printing, binding stationery, and paper for General Assembly and executive departments.....	110,000
Commission of Claims.....	5,000

Total.....	\$3,646,000
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For State school purposes:	
One million dollars per annum.....	\$2,000,000

The total assessment of taxable property as equalized by the State Board was \$784,623,550 in 1879, and \$786,616,394 in 1880, being considerably less than the assessed State valuation for the preceding two years, which was \$931,199,308 in 1877, and \$857,235,762 in 1878. The returns of taxable property laid before the Board of Equalization by the Auditor aggregated \$5,281,937 less in 1880 than in 1879.

The following table exhibits the changes in the assessment returns for the different classes of property in the year:

PROPERTY.	1879.	1880.
Personal property.....	\$151,629,968	\$165,091,710
Lands and lots.....	589,775,876	571,599,696
Railroad property.....	8,387,507	2,769,508
Total.....	\$744,742,846	\$739,460,909

The aggregate value of each item as returned by the assessors in 1880, for the whole State, is shown by the following table:

PERSONAL PROPERTY.	Assessed value.
Horses of all ages.....	\$24,229,954
Cattle of all ages.....	19,895,454
Mules and asses.....	3,461,169
Sheep.....	1,246,822
Hogs.....	4,500,864
Steam-engines.....	991,957
Pire-proof safes.....	264,265
Billiard-tables, etc.....	75,976
Carriages and wagons.....	6,406,175
Watches and clocks.....	395,114
Sewing and knitting machines.....	1,452,583
Piano-fortes.....	1,317,206
Melodeons and organs.....	667,585
Franchises.....	39,201
Annuities and royalties.....	42,100
Patent-rights.....	5,042
Steamboats, sailing-vessels, etc.....	375,436
Merchandise.....	25,548,825
Materials and manufactures.....	2,708,149
Manufacturers' tools and machinery.....	1,790,835
Agricultural tools and machinery.....	4,686,808
Plate and plated ware.....	100,056
Diamonds and jewelry.....	67,398
Monies of banks, brokers, etc.....	2,192,126
Credit of banks, brokers, etc.....	1,414,971
Monies of other than bankers, etc.....	13,014,803
Credit of other than bankers, etc.....	17,680,302
Bonds and stocks.....	946,196
Shares of capital stock of companies not of this State.....	284,471
Pawnbrokers' property.....	22,730
Property of corporations.....	542,834
Property of saloons, etc.....	379,892
Household and office property.....	12,126,917
Real-estate investments and improvements.....	327,024
Bank shares.....	3,206,051
All other personal property.....	8,062,569
Bridge property.....	15,928
Grain.....	5,454,839

RAILROAD PROPERTY.	
Class C.—Personal property.....	\$749,045
Class D.—Lands.....	776,609
Class D.—Lots.....	1,943,799

LANDS.	
Improved lands.....	\$7,320,932
Unimproved lands.....	3,178,185

TOWN AND CITY LOTS.	
Improved town and city lots.....	\$1,728,235
Unimproved town and city lots.....	176,731

The assessments of the different classes of property, as equalized by the State Board, were as follows:

Personal property.....	\$163,667,594
Lands.....	390,594,627
Lots.....	182,805,923
Total.....	\$737,071,089
Railroad property.....	2,764,030
Total.....	\$739,835,119
Railroads and equipments.....	44,001,815
Stock shares, not railroad.....	2,179,460
Grand total.....	\$756,616,394

There is an increase of about \$2,000,000 over the aggregate assessment of 1879. This comes

entirely from the railroads, which are assessed \$7,000,000 in excess of the equalization of 1879, while other property bears an aggregate assessment of \$5,000,000 less than that of 1879.

The Governor, in his inaugural address, gave the following gratifying account of the public-school system of the State:

The progress which has been made in the development of our system of popular education in the past twenty years, has placed Illinois in the very front rank among the States of the Union in this regard. It vies to-day with Massachusetts, Connecticut, and other New England States, which were but recently regarded as pioneers in the cause of popular education, in the liberality of the support given to the public schools and higher institutions of learning. A comparison of the cost of tuition per pupil in the various States, and of the aggregate sums expended for the support of schools and the erection of schoolhouses, shows that among the richer and more populous States of the Union, Illinois surpasses the great States of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana, and is only surpassed by New York and Massachusetts, whose pre-eminence in the excellence and efficiency of their common-school system have attracted the attention and elicited the admiration of the world. While the statesmen, political economists, and even the professional teachers of other lands, have been debating the question whether the masses can be educated with safety to society and the State, we have gone forward in the practical solution of the problem until it is no longer an open question.

The report of the Joliet Penitentiary shows an improved condition in the prison affairs in the last two years. The prison is almost self-supporting, and would be so if the cost of supplying clothes and money to discharged convicts were not borne by the prison authorities. The contracts for the labor of the convicts were most of them made during times of lower prices than could be obtained now; otherwise this charge also could be defrayed out of the income of the penitentiary. During the two years ending September 30, 1880, 1,575 prisoners were discharged. These were supplied with \$23,293 in money, and clothing of the value of \$9,399, together \$32,697. Of \$50,000 appropriated by the last Legislature for the ordinary expenses of the prison, only \$22,830 were used during the two years. The large proportion of prisoners who are sentenced for short terms necessitates the conclusion of less favorable contracts than could be made if the men remained longer at the service of the contractors. During the two years 487 of the convicts received were sentenced for terms of one year or less, and 336 for from one to two years. The new prison at Chester is being completed as fast as appropriations are available. The location has proved a healthy one, and is well adapted for the employment of the prison labor. Work has been commenced upon a hospital for insane convicts in connection with the Southern Prison, for which funds were appropriated by the last General Assembly. An agency for looking after and assisting discharged convicts is recommended by the Prison Commissioners, who also advise the abolition of life-sentences.

The amount appropriated for running ex-

penses of the State charitable institutions, exclusive of the Eastern Insane Hospital at Kankakee, was for the two years ending June 30, 1880, \$1,021,500. The amount of appropriations asked for by the State Board of Charities for the following two years is \$1,041,000, besides which there is a cash surplus on hand of \$100,000, and uncollected debts to the amount of \$40,000. The appropriations demanded are as follows: for the Northern Insane Hospital, \$200,000; for the Central Insane Hospital, \$194,000; for the Southern Insane Hospital, \$156,000; for the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, \$170,000; for the Institution for the Blind, \$47,000; for the Asylum for the Feeble-Minded, \$102,000; for the Soldiers' Orphans' Home, \$85,000; for the Eye and Ear Infirmary, \$32,000; for the State Reform School, \$55,000. The appropriations demanded for the State institutions for special purposes amount to \$618,220. The average cost of maintenance in the State institutions has been reduced from \$330 per capita per annum in 1874 to \$200 in 1880. The care and provision for the inmates of the Illinois insane hospitals are said to be exceptionally good, while the cost of maintenance is less than in any similar institutions in the country excepting one or two.

Governor S. M. Cullom, in his biennial message to the Legislature, contrasts the material condition of the State in the early days of its settlement with its present wealth and commercial independence. The Government land laws were less favorable than the present homestead law during the period when Illinois was devoid of transport facilities to convey its surplus products to outside markets, and were such that, while the public lands were being taken up, all the money which came into the State was paid into the land-office. Now, railroads are built in advance of settlement, and the settler receives his farm as a free gift from the nation. In the second decade of the State's existence, a system of canals and general internal improvements, many of them injudicious and over-costly, burdened the State with a heavy debt, which reduced it to an insolvent condition. It has never been sought to shake off this debt by repudiation; but all the obligations have been faithfully discharged. The growth of the State in the last decade, though not showing as high percentages of increase as in the earlier stages, has been of a healthy and permanent character. A large proportion of the gains have been of a kind which does not show on the assessment rolls, but which is manifested in the visible prosperity of the people. A great mass of mortgage indebtedness has been paid off, and real-estate titles held by non-residents have been purchased. The farming lands especially have been relieved in this way from a drain of interest and rent.

Illinois is the leading agricultural State in the Union. The marketable farm products of 1880 are estimated at over \$300,000,000. The values of the different products reported by

the Department of Agriculture were as follows:

Corn	\$38,757,039
Winter wheat	44,457,428
Hay	22,559,691
Fat hogs	22,187,461
Fat cattle	17,026,130
Pastures	14,491,114
Oats	12,558,247
Orchards	8,176,480
Irish potatoes	8,659,643
Spring wheat	2,000,732
Flax	1,579,684
Rye	1,513,587
Sorghum	1,676,630
Fat sheep	652,465
Barley	560,703
Total	\$286,205,689

To these are to be added the value of the dairy products, estimated at \$27,000,000, the value of the horses sold, and of other crops. The corn-crop of 1880 was 250,697,036 bushels, which has been exceeded only in 1879, when the crop aggregated 305,913,377 bushels; in 1875, when it was 280,000,000 bushels; and in 1877, when it was 269,899,742 bushels. The yield per acre in 1880 was 33 bushels, there having been eight more productive years in the last twenty-one: 1862, when the average yield was 40 bushels; 1872, when it was 39·8 bushels; 1871, 38·3 bushels; 1879, 38 bushels; 1865, 35·25 bushels; 1870, 35·2 bushels; 1875, 34·3 bushels; and 1868, 34 bushels. The largest yield is obtained from low lands lately reclaimed by drainage. The value of the crop of 1880 was exceeded in 1879, when the crop aggregated \$97,483,052 in value; in 1875, when it amounted to \$95,200,000; and in 1864, when the crop sold for seventy-five cents a bushel, and brought \$103,767,101. In 1860 there were 3,839,159 acres under corn, producing 115,174,770 bushels, of the aggregate value of \$48,944,277. In the last twenty-one years the area devoted to this crop has not increased steadily, but has several times diminished on account of partial failures in the crops of the preceding years to some extent, but oftener on account of superabundant crops and great reductions in the price. After the high prices of 1864 the acreage increased to 5,023,996 acres in 1865, and then gradually decreased to 3,928,742 acres in 1868; rising then pretty steadily to 8,935,411 acres in 1877. Since then the high prices of wheat have caused a large portion of the corn area to be given up to the more profitable crop. In 1878 the corn acreage was reduced to 8,672,089 acres; in 1879 to 7,918,881 acres, and in 1880 to 7,574,545 acres. The large yield of 1879 and 1880 was obtained through improved methods of culture. In 1880 dry weather, the chinch-bug, and early frosts greatly injured the crop. Owing to the drought, the quality of much of it was inferior. The average price for the twenty-one years has been thirty-nine cents a bushel. In some years the culture was attended by a net loss; but the profits, taking all the years together, have been enormous. The aggregate value of this crop for twenty-one years was \$1,372,515,323; the cost of

production, \$299,284,127; the losses in unfavorable years, \$127,081,829; the aggregate net profit, \$946,149,367.

According to the returns made to the Railroad and Warehouse Commissioners, there have been 346,74 miles of road built during 1879, making the total mileage of the State 7,917 miles, not including 1,063 miles of sidings and 314 of double track. The total length of track of the lines running through the State is 22,863 miles; their capital stock \$408,745,914, of which \$7,841,700 is held in the State, being \$638,481 less than in 1879. The average amount of stock issued per mile is \$22,257; the total indebtedness is \$759,320,460, an average per mile of \$41,147. The average cost per mile, as shown in the construction and equipment accounts, is \$40,309. The number of persons employed on the railroads is reported as 94,561; of which number 34,443 are laborers, 29,169 section-men, 4,392 brakemen, 4,940 firemen and wipers, 3,812 engineers, 3,259 conductors, 7,688 machinists, 4,437 clerks, etc. The aggregate sum reported as paid to employees is \$49,427,729. the number of men employed within the State is estimated at 40,650, and their aggregate wages and salaries \$21,250,000. The average yearly pay of different classes of employees ranges on the leading roads within the following extremes: section-men, \$243 to \$422; station-agents, \$341 to \$900; passenger engineers, \$862 to \$1,530; passenger conductors, \$721 to \$1,160. The gross earnings reported by fifty companies were \$140,949,675, of which \$34,717,367 was from passengers, and \$102,096,367 from freight. The gross earnings for 1879 of the lines running through the State were 28 per cent. smaller, and the net income 30 per cent. smaller. The gross income within the State was \$48,461,221, \$12,781,745 coming from passengers, and \$36,678,476 from freight. The operating expenses of all the roads were reported as \$77,093,738, \$14,173,695 more than in 1879. The taxes reported as paid in Illinois were \$1,607,570. The net profit was \$32,061,768. The total freight tonnage was 53,837,586 tons, against 37,193,464 in 1879; the Illinois freight, 23,297,544, against an estimated quantity of 15,621,254 carried in 1879. The passenger traffic increased in 1880 about 50 per cent. over that of 1879, which is due, it is supposed, principally to the reduction in fares. The passenger traffic amounted to over a million passengers each for ten lines. The average rate per passenger per mile was 2-5 cents on the main lines, and 2-89 cents on all lines, against 3-14 cents in 1879. The average number of cars in a train was 21½, the average number of tons of freight in a car nine. The average freight rate per ton per mile was 1-38 cents, the rate in 1879 having averaged 1-92 cent.

The Railroad Commissioners comment as follows on the increase in railroad traffic and the greatly improved financial condition of most of the roads:

The returns before us reveal the fact that the past year has been one of extraordinary activity and prosperity for railroads generally. The revival of business has given an impetus to traffic and travel hitherto unprecedented. Freight traffic has furnished the roads all that they could do, while the figures show an increase of passenger traffic in this State of 50 per cent., owing, as we believe, to the reduction of fare.

Notwithstanding the fact of lower rates, the net earnings of the leading roads in this State have nearly doubled. Many roads, in consequence of this increased income, have been enabled to build anew their shattered financial condition. Others, seriously threatened, have escaped the courts, while still others have been taken out of the hands of receivers.

The past year has also been remarkable for the many cases of consolidation of different lines of road, and the evident tendency on the part of large owners toward centralization of management. While the war among the railroad owners may not as yet have resulted in any serious injury to the rights of the people, the facility with which immense interests have been controlled with money, as we have seen, and monopolies created, naturally excites grave apprehensions. It affords an additional reason for State control and just supervision. With uniform and steady rates, under proper legal restriction, the consolidation of different organizations, upon an honest basis of *bona fide* interests, reducing the number of employees and bringing under one management divergent interests, ought to give the internal commerce of the country a quicker transit, more security and safety to passengers, and afford the people lower rates.

The long-pending test case of the Illinois Central Railroad Company *vs.* the People, in which the final decision on the constitutionality of the railroad law of 1873 was to be rendered by the Supreme Court, was ended in June by the bench of Judges affirming the judgment of the Circuit Court. The opinion was prepared by Chief-Justice Dickey, who himself dissented from the decision. Upon the decision of this case the powers of the Railroad and Warehouse Commissioners to enforce their schedule rates depended. This case was an agreed one, and has been pending a long time. In the Ruggles case the Court affirmed the constitutionality of the railroad law, but there are a number of perplexing questions in relation to the manner of executing the law, which the Railroad and Warehouse Commissioners have been hoping for years that the Supreme Court would pass upon. For instance, the law provides that a schedule of reasonable maximum rates shall be prepared by the Railroad Commissioners for each of the railroads of the State, and that such schedules shall be *prima facie* evidence in the courts that the rates fixed in them are reasonable. But the Court has failed to determine to what extent the railroad companies are bound by the rates fixed by the board, or to settle other important questions involved in the execution of the law. The suit was an action brought in the name of the people against the Illinois Central. Judgment was rendered by the Douglas County Circuit Court against the defendant, who appealed, and insisted that the count in the declaration under which judgment was given was defective. By agreement, the case was tried upon an agreed state of facts. No pleas were filed, both par-

ties submitting the case on the agreed statement of facts under that single count of the declaration. The Supreme Court decided that the count was sufficient to sustain the judgment. Judge Dickey in the written opinion said that the proofs clearly show a violation of the statute, and the only question as to the propriety of the judgment depends upon the constitutional power of the General Assembly to pass the law. He then discussed the claim that the act is a violation of a contract between the State and the corporation, the company having been granted a charter authorizing the directors to establish rates of tolls for the conveyance of persons and property, concluding the opinion as follows:

The charter of this corporation is, beyond a doubt, a contract under the adjudged cases in this and other States, by which the corporation acquires the powers and functions to transact such business in the mode prescribed, but it is the opinion of a majority of the Court that all this is, by necessary implication, subject, as all citizens are, to the legislative power of the State to define, prohibit, and punish extortion. The reasons and authorities leading to this conclusion are presented and discussed in the case of *Ruggles vs. the People*, 91 Illinois, 255, 256, and the case must be governed by that.

The railroads of group first, after holding out a long time, have all accepted the maximum passenger rate fixed by the Commissioners, charging three cents a mile, and many of the railroads have changed their freight rates to make them conform to the schedules of the Commissioners. A revision of the schedules of the Railroad and Warehouse Commissioners is in progress, to which they hope all the railroads in the State will be disposed to conform, and cease their long contention. The Commissioners state in their report that they have avoided entering into litigation with railroad companies, among other reasons because it is difficult to find parties directly interested to make charges against the railroads, while those who do complain are seldom willing to support the prosecution with the necessary evidence. In accordance with the usage in other States, the Commissioners have made it a practice to examine into complaints brought to them against railroads, and seek to obtain an amicable settlement between the parties. Their decisions in that capacity as a court of reference have established precedents for future action in similar premises, and have actuated the roads to adjust their rules and tariffs in accordance with them.

The evils which result to shippers from sudden changes in the freight tariffs, the Commissioners recommend, should be averted by an act of the Legislature requiring sixty days' notice to be published by the railroads before any rise in their tariffs can go into effect. The prohibition contained in the Constitution and laws of the State against the issuance of fictitious stock, declaring that "all stock dividends and other fictitious increase of the capital stock or indebtedness of any such corporation shall be

void," has not been effective. As shown in the statistics given above, the stock of nearly every road is largely in excess of the cost of construction. The original amount of stock first issued has in some instances been doubled, and in many largely increased. The principal way in which this is accomplished is by converting accumulated earnings, and issuing stock dividends to represent them. The effect of this is to enlarge the basis on which future dividends are to be earned at the expense of the public. The Commissioners sum up the results of their past work in the following terms:

When the present law of this State, to prevent extortion and unjust discrimination, was passed in 1873, but few States had ventured to thus respond to a popular and just demand of the people. Now, fourteen States have established Commissions with powers similar to those of this State, or have conferred like powers upon other State officers.

Since that time most of the questions at issue between the railroad corporations and the people, growing out of the doctrine of supervision and control, have been decided by our highest courts in favor of the latter.

The work thus far accomplished on behalf of the people is as remarkable as it is satisfactory, and, as hereinbefore stated, passenger rates have been reduced from three and a half and five cents per mile, to a uniform rate of three cents per mile on all the leading roads in this State. Although the returns for 1880 show a gratifying diminution of passenger rates, the saving to the people will more fully appear next year, as the reduction above mentioned was not made generally until after the time for making the returns for 1880 had expired. The amount saved to the people by the reduction of freight rates in 1880 over 1879 was \$12,530,673.

When this Commission was first organized, it was difficult to procure returns from the railroads. Many of them refused outright to make returns, or to acknowledge the right of the Commission to require them. Those that were made were meager and unsatisfactory. Now, nearly every road in the State, particularly the leading ones, readily and cheerfully respond to the calls of the board in this respect.

The railroads and their patrons are nearer arriving at an agreement as to the basis upon which rates shall be established than ever before. But, while great advancement has been thus made toward solving the question of restrictive legislation, consistent with the rights of owners and low tariffs, complicated questions, relating to rebates, poolings, through, local, and competitive rates, are constantly arising for settlement, and will continue to demand our attention and investigation.

In 1859, the first year of the official inspection of grain in Chicago, the total number of bushels inspected was 29,222,225; in 1872 the total inspection covered 139,625,887 bushels; in 1880 there were 138,896,368 bushels inspected in and 103,154,466 out, the total inspection amounting to 242,050,834 bushels. The storage capacity of the Chicago warehouses has increased from 4,090,000 bushels in 1858 to 20,000,000 bushels in 1880. There was an addition of elevator-room for 2,000,000 bushels made in 1880. The aggregate quantity of grain handled is estimated at 161,000,000 bushels in 1880, against 138,000,000 bushels in 1879, and 68,000,000 bushels in 1870. The increased receipts were in corn and oats, other cereals showing a falling off, the old stocks having

been exhausted by the grain corner of 1879. The receipts embraced 3,000,000 barrels of flour, 23,000,000 bushels of wheat, 95,000,000 bushels of corn, 22,000,000 bushels of oats, and 7,000,000 bushels of rye and barley. The shipments of 1880 aggregated 156,000,000 bushels of grain, about the same as in 1879. In nearly every article dealt in on the Produce Exchange there was a very large increase in aggregates in 1880. The sales of grass-seed were 52,000,000 pounds in 1880, against 48,000,000 pounds in 1879; of flaxseed, 188,000,000 pounds, against 118,000,000; of butter, 65,000,000, against 54,000,000 pounds. There were 5,375,000 hogs slaughtered, against 5,089,000 in 1879, in spite of strikes which lasted during the larger part of the packing season. The average capacity of the packing-houses of the city is 100,000 hogs. The pork-packing industry of Chicago has grown up since 1853, in which year the first hogs were slaughtered. The business of 1880 amounted to \$62,000,000, \$20,000,000 more than that of 1879, the aggregate weight of the year's killing amounting in 1880 to 1,100,000,000 pounds. The number of live animals received during the year included 7,000,000 hogs, 1,354,000 cattle, and 32,000 sheep; the shipments of live animals included 138,000 hogs and 860,000 cattle. The growth of Chicago was remarkable in many directions in 1880. Great numbers of new dwellings and factories were erected, and hundreds of new industries started. The bank clearings exceeded the enormous total of 1879, aggregating \$1,693,000,000.

During the two years of the administration, 741 corporations have been organized for purposes of pecuniary gain, and 359 for other objects. Of the former, 229 were manufacturing, 267 mining, 112 miscellaneous companies, and 18 were building and loan associations; of the latter, 167 were benevolent associations. Since the law of corporations went into force, in 1872, there have been 3,140 companies incorporated.

The statement of local bonds registered in accordance with the provisions of the different acts, together with the amounts paid and canceled, shows that there were outstanding, September 30, 1880, under the act of 1869, \$12,127,978.31; under the original act of 1865, \$2,015,511.62; under the amended act of 1865, \$4,096,285. There has been a large increase over the amount registered in 1877-'78, but this is because of the large amount of refunding bonds issued. The average rate of interest on the bonds registered during the past two years was 7-99 per cent., while for the preceding two years it was 8-4 per cent.

The insurance report of the Auditor of the Treasury shows that 189 insurance companies were doing business in Illinois in 1880, twenty-two having been admitted since the previous report. Of the total number, eight joint-stock and four mutual associations are Illinois companies. The amount of fire risks written in

the State in 1879 was \$479,675,409; premiums received thereon, \$4,727,080; marine and inland risks written, \$54,609,032; premiums received, \$224,976. The losses paid in the State were \$1,927,595; deducting which amount from the total premiums paid, with 80 per cent. on these for expenses, the apparent profit on the year's business amounts to \$539,143. The average premium rate charged is 93 cents on \$100; the ratio of losses to risks taken, 86 cents on \$100; to premiums, 39 cents on every dollar received. The aggregate amount of the risks written in Illinois for eleven years is \$4,919,894,698; the aggregate amount of premiums paid to the companies, \$57,149,368; the aggregate losses incurred, \$47,985,714. Of the losses incurred, \$25,763,723 fall within the year of the Chicago fire; the losses in that year were over seven and one half times as great as the amount of premiums taken in. During the five years succeeding 1871, the year of the fire, the average premiums charged exceeded \$1.30 on \$100 of risk, and three times as much was received as was paid out for losses. Leaving out the year of the great fire, the losses paid have averaged about 41 per cent. of the premiums received; including that year, about double this percentage.

The laws regulating life insurance have been complied with by 29 companies of other States, which issued 3,860 policies, amounting to \$8,898,906, in 1879; the total number of policies in force at the end of the year being 4,084, amounting to \$9,442,160. The premiums received during the year amounted to \$127,767; the losses paid, \$30,047. The Auditor has endeavored to test in the courts the claimed right of cooperative life-insurance associations of other States, organized on the plan of the assessment of members to pay death-losses, to transact business in Illinois without complying with the insurance laws. Upon threatening them with the penalties of the law, these companies have discontinued business, and none of them embraced the proposal of the Auditor to carry the question into the courts for decision on an agreed case. The Auditor denies to these organizations the character of benevolent enterprises, and defines the position taken regarding them as follows:

It is the intention of the Auditor to prevent, by all available means, those so-called cooperative insurance companies of other States from entering this State and selling to its citizens their policies or certificates of supposed insurance until the proper tribunal shall have decided that the true construction of the law will permit them to do so. This course is adopted from a sense of public duty, and is demanded by a regard for the intent and meaning of the law, and for the true interest of the people of this State, as those who are solicited are, to a large extent, without the information necessary to judge of the merits of the various schemes, and without available means of redress for wrongs.

The State Board of Health was organized in 1878. Its principal work has been the protection of the public against unqualified and incompetent medical practitioners. The number of practitioners in the State on July 1, 1878,

when the law regulating the practice of medicine went into force, was 7,400, of whom 3,600 were graduates and licentiates, and 3,800 non-graduates. The number of graduates and licentiates practicing in the State at the close of 1880 was 4,950, the number of non-graduates 1,100, making the total number practicing 1,350 less than when the law went into force. The number of certificates issued in 1880 was 610. Fraudulent medical colleges have been suppressed by the board, and a higher standard introduced in some of the legitimate schools. The diploma of no college is sufficient to secure a certificate unless it requires a college or high-school education in literature and science before entrance, and unless it obliges candidates for the doctoral degree to attend two courses of lectures on medicine and all the allied branches given in different years, together with clinical and hospital instruction and practice in the dissecting-room. Subjects to which the board is expected to extend its attention are the prevention of contagious diseases of men and animals, the study of the water-supply of cities, and general sanitation; also the collection of vital statistics. Quarantine regulations were enforced by the board to prevent the introduction of the yellow fever into Cairo.

Fish-Commissioner S. P. Bartlett, in his report, states that 251 bushels of native fry, estimated at 5,000,000 individuals, were taken from drying-up streams and ponds, where they would have perished. Bass and wall-eyed pike were sorted out and used to stock new waters, and the rest were placed in deep water.

A movement has been inaugurated which looks to the enlargement of the Illinois and Michigan Canal by the General Government to the dimensions of a ship-canal, so as to establish steamboat communication between the lakes and the Mississippi River. A convention for the furtherance of this scheme was held at Ottawa, March 18th. The importance and advantages of the improvement were described by Governor Cullom and others, and resolutions were addressed to Congress urging its speedy consideration. The enlargement of the canal has already been commenced by the construction of the Henry Lock, which was completed in 1872 at a cost of \$400,000, and the one at Copperas Creek, which was finished in 1877, at a cost of \$410,000. The two locks give ninety miles of water seven feet deep, while the depth before was not over two feet in many places. These locks are 350 by 75 feet each, and will accommodate boats 300 feet long, and of 2,000 tons burden. The cost of completing the work on the present plan, so as to furnish 226 miles of navigation to steamboats drawing six feet of water, is estimated at \$1,350,000. For the two locks already built Congress appropriated \$80,000. The establishment of ship navigation between Chicago and the Mississippi is desired chiefly as a check upon the railroad companies, affording an alternative route for the exports of the upper Mississippi

Valley and the lake-region, and of all the grain of the West, which, as well as provisions, flow to Chicago, the central market for these products. The other benefit which would come from the enlargement, would be the improvement in the sanitary condition of Chicago, affording a sufficient outlet for its sewage. It is thought that such a passage between the lakes and the Mississippi would partly supply the place of the proposed reservoirs for regulating the navigation of the Mississippi, and that the water which could be drawn from Lake Michigan through the canal would be sufficient in quantity to improve the navigation of the great river in the dry season. Another plan which has been broached is to make a great cutting as much as one thousand feet wide and twenty feet deep, which should more than answer the purpose of the reservoirs, carrying enough of the overflow of Lake Michigan into the Mississippi to add four feet to its average depth.

In the Governor's message the situation of the canal and the project for its completion by the Government are described as follows:

The demand for the enlargement of the canal and the completion of the Illinois River improvement grows more urgent every year, and it is a matter which by no means interests Illinois alone, but is of equal importance to all the States which border on the Mississippi River, and to all those which depend upon the great Valley for food-supplies. While this water-way happens to be wholly within the territory of Illinois, its improvement is not a question of local or State interest.

The State has reimbursed the city of Chicago for its advances in deepening the canal, and it is now the property of the State without incumbrance. The Constitution contains the following provision: "The Illinois and Michigan Canal shall never be sold or leased until the specific provision for the sale or lease thereof shall first have been submitted to a vote of the people of the State at a general election, and have been approved by a majority of all the votes polled at such election." I earnestly recommend that you provide for the submission to the people of the State of a proposition which will allow the canal to be turned over to the United States, on proper conditions and limitations, and that you provide for the presentation of the whole matter to our delegation in Congress and to the nation in such light as will secure early and favorable action.

Whatever special advantage may accrue to Illinois by reason of her having the canal within her borders, will be fully her due in return for the millions she has already expended on this work. The advantage to the nation resulting from connecting the lakes with the Mississippi River, the North and East with the West and South, by a water-way through which can pass the bulky products of the Mississippi Valley, will be infinitely more than the cost of such improvement.

The deepening of the canal, so as to give a steady southerly current of the waters of Lake Michigan into the Illinois River, has been of immense sanitary advantage to the city of Chicago, and its effect has been to purify the Chicago River, and in a great measure save the sources of water-supply of that great city from contamination by sewage. But, in consequence of the enormous increase of population and manufactures in Chicago, the supply of water flowing through the canal does not sufficiently dilute the sewage to make it innocuous, and the result is a serious injury to the populous districts which border on the canal in the counties of Will, Grundy, and La Salle. The evil consequences of the insufficient supply of water are most keenly felt in winter, and such representations

have been made to me by the authorities and citizens of Joliet, Lockport, and other towns, that I have caused investigation to be made by the Canal Commissioners and by the State Board of Health, whose reports on these questions will be placed before you, with suggestions as to the best means of remedying the evils complained of. It is represented to be perfectly feasible to so increase the flow of water through the present canal as to make its bed and borders healthful and pure. The subject should receive your immediate and careful consideration. There can be no discussion as to the duty of the State to see that its own property is not maintained or operated in such a condition as puts in peril the health and lives of its citizens; and that such is the present condition, in winter, at least, of the Illinois and Michigan Canal seems to be clearly established.

In the latter part of June a destructive inundation occurred along the margin of the Mississippi. The river rose over seventeen feet above low-water mark at Quincy, and still higher at some points farther up, subsiding in the beginning of July. Although not so high as the flood of 1876, when the water gauge at Quincy stood at nineteen feet above low water, or that of 1851, when it marked 22·8 feet, it was sufficient to break through the Warsaw Levee, which protects 18,000 acres, and the great Sny Levee, which redeemed 100,000 acres of rich bottom alluvium; and, opening wide crevasses, overflowed hundreds of square miles of most valuable farming-lands of the State, destroying the standing corn and great quantities of the wheat, which had just been harvested. The Sny Levee is fifty-two miles in length, beginning at a point between Quincy and Hannibal, and ending near Alton. A crevasse occurred at a point about fifteen miles below Hannibal, on the 30th of June, and three other breaks were made later. A new levee, in process of construction above Quincy, was nearly ruined. Much injury was done to railway property, and traffic was arrested. The Sny Levee was commenced in 1873, and completed in 1875, at a cost of \$650,000. It starts in Adams County and extends through Pike and into Calhoun County. The land reclaimed by it was occupied by renters almost exclusively. About one half the area was planted to corn and wheat at the time of the inundation. The soil is exceedingly fertile, the average wheat-crop being twenty-five to thirty bushels to the acre. This levee was built under the drainage act of 1871, which has been pronounced unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. This decision made the bonds which were issued for the construction of the levee void. The heaviest holder commenced a suit in the United States Court against the property-owners, seeking to make the bonds an equitable lien on the lands benefited.

A decision of the Supreme Court has established the constitutionality of the militia law of May 28, 1879. The power of Congress to provide for the organization and discipline of the militia, it was decided, is not exclusive. The act in question is not repugnant to the national militia law. The State has the right to organize such portion of its militia as may be

deemed necessary for the execution of its laws and the preservation of the peace. Such organization is not keeping troops in time of peace in the sense of the prohibitory clause of the Federal Constitution. The requirement of an oath of obedience to the Commander-in-Chief, and the provision that no militia company shall leave the State with arms without the consent of the Commander-in-Chief, the Governor, have reference to the service of the State, and do not apply when the militia are in the service of the United States. The adoption of the discipline of the United States regular army would not render the law invalid. The exemption of an active member of a company from jury service is constitutional. With regard to the provision in the law prohibiting armed men not of the militia from parading, the head-notes of the decision run as follows:

The provision of the militia law making it unlawful for any body of men, other than the regularly organized volunteer militia of this State and the troops of the United States, with an exception in favor of students in educational institutions where militia service is taught, to associate themselves together as a military company or organization, or to drill or parade with arms in any city or town in this State without the license of the Governor, is not inconsistent with any paramount law of the United States, and is a binding law.

It is a matter within the regulation, and subject to the police power of the State, to determine whether bodies of men with military organizations or otherwise, under no discipline or command by the United States, or of this State, shall be permitted to parade with arms in populous communities and in public places.

In matters pertaining to the internal peace and well-being of the State, its police powers are inalienable. It is a power coextensive with self-protection. Everything necessary for the protection, safety, and best interests of the people of the State may be done under this power. Persons and property may be subjected to all reasonable restraints and burdens for the common good.

Where mere property interests are involved, this power, like other powers of government, is subject to constitutional limitations; but where the internal peace and health of the people are concerned, the only limitations imposed are that such "regulations must have reference to the comfort, safety, and welfare of society." What will endanger the public security must, as a general rule, be left to the wisdom of the legislative department.

The question of reading the Bible in the public schools came up in the Supreme Court on appeal. A boy named McCormick, acting under the orders of his father, a Catholic, had refused to refrain from studying during the fifteen minutes devoted to the reading of the Bible, thus disobeying an order of the directors, and was expelled. The father brought an action against the teacher and the directors, and the case was decided in their favor by Judge Pillsbury, in Livingston County, whose decision was affirmed by the Supreme Court.

In the case of *McKee vs. the Germania Insurance Company*, it was ruled by Judge Zane, of Springfield, that when it is agreed by the parties to a number of cases that they will abide by the decision of one of the cases, and when but one case is tried, witness-fees and similar costs shall not be taxed more than once.

Several cases regarding the validity of city and town bonds and the enforcement of judgments against municipal corporations came up in the courts during the year. Judge Drummond, of the United States Circuit Court, decided that each of the several series of bonds of the city of Springfield were valid, the bonds amounting altogether to \$856,646. In the case of George B. Ellery *vs.* the Town of Hickory, it was pleaded by ex-Governor Palmer, counsel for the defendant, that certain railroad-construction bonds issued by the town were invalid because the Governor had signed the charter of the railroad after the adjournment of the Legislature.

Bonds issued to the Indianapolis, Bloomington and Western Railroad by Blue Ridge, Urbana, and other townships of Champaign County, were pronounced void by the United States Supreme Court. In the case of the Niantic Savings Bank *et al. vs.* the Town of Douglas *et al.* on appeal, the decision of the Effingham Circuit Court was reversed by the State Supreme Court. The lower Court had directed that certain bonds issued in aid of railroad construction should be canceled on the ground of fraud, because certain of them were owned by the bank and D. T. Littler. The Supreme Court ruled that as the bonds were regularly registered and issued, and had passed into the hands of innocent purchasers, and as the town had been benefited by the sale, it was debarred from avoiding the payment of the bonds on technical grounds, and could not be assisted by a court of equity to accomplish an inequitable act. Bonds of the town of Lincoln issued to the Havana, Mason City and Eastern Railroad, were decided legal and binding by the United States Supreme Court, and a mandamus issued to compel the town officers to levy a tax for their payment. Citizens of the town, being of the view that the bonds were invalid under the decisions of the State courts, applied for and obtained an injunction restraining the officers from levying and collecting the tax before the sitting of the Court. The bondholders thereupon procured a writ from the United States Court, citing certain citizens before it to show cause why they should not be held guilty of contempt of Court. The city of Quincy was incorporated in 1840, under a special charter, and an amendment was adopted in 1863 which limited the tax-levy to \$1.03 on \$100. In 1878 a tax was assessed under the general revenue law which amounted to 1½ cent on the dollar. On a bill of equity filed by Frederick G. Jansen and others against the county collector, praying for an injunction forbidding the collection of the excess, which was levied for the payment of interest on city bonds, it was decided by the Supreme Court on appeal that the city has no right to exceed the limitation in its charter; so that it must take advantage of the general incorporation act and change its charter if it requires to levy higher taxes, in order to meet

its liabilities and pay its expenses. A mandamus was issued by Judge Treat, in another case, brought by the holders of Mississippi and Missouri Air-Line Railroad bonds, ordering the authorities of the city to levy and collect taxes to pay overdue coupons on these bonds; and the plea of the limitation of the charter was not sustained in this case.

A batch of interesting trespass suits, known as the Levi cases, came up in the State Circuit Court at Springfield, before Judge Zane. The defendants were a United States marshal and persons who accompanied him at his request, and the plaintiffs were L. S. Ensel, Charles Seaman, and Samuel Levi, whose premises were entered, searched, and property therein was seized by defendants in virtue of a writ in bankruptcy delivered to Edward R. Coe, United States Marshal, issued by the United States Bankrupt Court upon the affidavit of G. W. Plummer, one of the defendants, attorney for Field, Leiter & Co., and other creditors of Samuel Levi, an adjudged bankrupt, averring upon belief that goods of said bankrupt had been fraudulently removed and were secreted upon the premises of Ensel and Seaman, and of another warrant authorizing the marshal to take possession of the estate of Samuel Levi. The close of the plaintiff Ensel, which was entered by the United States officer and Plummer, was a store. The Court held that such forcible entrance and seizure was in violation of the fourth amendment to the United States Constitution, requiring a warrant to particularly describe "the place to be searched or the persons or things to be seized." In this warrant the only description of the things to be seized was "goods and property of Samuel Levi." The warrant was not in the nature of a search-warrant, as none can issue in civil process. The second case was of the same nature as the first, except that it was the dwelling of Seaman which was entered, not a storehouse. The third case was that of a forcible entry into the dwelling of Samuel Levi to take possession of his property, real and personal, as directed in the bankruptcy warrant. The Court, giving to the doctrine of the inviolability of a man's home its full force, laid down the principle that no bankruptcy or other execution warrant authorizes a constable to force his way into a person's dwelling-house when the outer entrance is barred.

The validity of the section of the revenue law imposing one per cent. per month interest on delinquent taxes was affirmed by Attorney-General James K. Edsall in an opinion given in answer to inquiries of Thomas B. Needles, the Auditor of Public Accounts. He considers the one per cent. to be interest, as defined in the act, and not in the nature of a penalty, which could only be enforced by virtue of the judgment of a court; and that it is therefore collectable by ministerial officers, such as tax-collectors, and without judicial proceedings.

The Republican State Convention assembled

in Springfield, May 19th. A division of the party in Chicago caused two rival delegations to appear at the Convention from Cook County—called, from their places of meeting, the Palmer House and the Farwell Hall delegates. The former party was headed by Senator Logan, and the latter, which opposed the nomination of Grant, was led by Messrs. Medill and Farwell. The Farwell Hall delegates were not allowed a voice or a sitting in the Convention. The delegates elected to the National Convention were instructed to vote as a unit for Grant. The nominees for State officers were as follows: For Governor, Shelby M. Cullom; for Lieutenant-Governor, John M. Hamilton; for Secretary of State, Henry D. Dement; for Auditor of Public Accounts, Charles P. Swigart; for State Treasurer, Edward Rutz; for Attorney-General, James McCartney.

The following platform was adopted by the Democrats in convention:

Patriotic duty and interest demand peace and reconciliation through all the land. We pledge ourselves to the following principles:

1. No tariff for protection.
2. No third term.
3. A substantial reform of the civil service, so that Federal officers shall be the servants of the people and not of a party.
4. Equal rights to all the States, and no Federal interference with the constitutional functions of the States.
5. A constitutional currency of gold and silver, and of paper convertible into coin.
6. No more land grants to monopolies.
7. The will of the people must be supreme, and majorities must be the rule under the constitutional methods; no more such frauds as that of 1876.
8. That laws shall be enacted to protect laborers in the more prompt and certain collection of their wages.

A resolution was adopted instructing delegates to Cincinnati to favor the two-thirds rule.

At a Convention of the Prohibition party no candidates for State officers were set up, but a movement was organized to secure a majority favoring prohibition in the Legislature, and procure the adoption of an amendment in the State Constitution forbidding the manufacture or sale of intoxicants. To this end a plan of action was embodied in the resolutions adopted by the Convention. The resolutions were as follows:

Resolved, That we deem it inexpedient at this time to nominate any State or national ticket, and recommend to prohibitionists of Illinois, by voting with the old political parties to which they respectively belonged in the past, to thus secure the nomination and election of members of the Legislature of this State, this fall, pledged to submit to the legal voters of this State a constitutional amendment, to be voted upon at the general election in the fall of 1892, prohibiting the manufacture, sale, or importation of all intoxicants for beverage purposes, if the same shall be petitioned for by the voters of this State; and in pledging candidates for the Legislature to submit such amendment to the voters of this State, we accord to the candidates agreeing to submit said question to the voters of this State, in common with everybody else, the right to oppose the same by voice and vote when the question is up before the people to be voted upon, asking of them only the privilege of voting upon the question, pledging ourselves to abide by the will of the majority as legally expressed at the polls.

Resolved, That if the Senator and Representative to be elected this fall in each senatorial district of this State, or either one of them, which are nominated by the old political parties to which preference is to be given under the foregoing resolution, will not pledge themselves to the measure expressed in the foregoing resolution, that then we recommend that candidates to fill up the representation required to be elected, be nominated solely upon that issue, and leaving them free to vote with their old political parties for all the other offices to be filled at this coming election.

The State Convention of the Greenback-Labor party was held on the 28th of April. A full State ticket was nominated, as follows: Governor, A. J. Streeter; Lieutenant-Governor, Andrew B. Adair; Secretary of State, J. M. Thomson; Auditor, W. T. Ingram; Treasurer, G. W. Evans; Attorney-General, H. G. Whitlock. The platform they adopted ran as follows:

The Greenback-Labor party of Illinois, in convention assembled, adopt the following platform of principles:

1. That all money, whether metallic or paper, should be issued and its volume controlled by the Government, and not by or through banking corporations, and when so issued should be a full legal tender for all debts, public and private.
2. That the bonds of the United States should not be refunded beyond the power of the Government to call and pay them at any time, and they should be paid as rapidly as practicable. To enable the Government to meet these obligations, legal-tender currency should be substituted for the circulating notes of national banks, and that the free, unlimited coinage of gold and silver be established by law.
3. That railroad and all other public corporations should be held amenable to law, so that they shall subserve the interests of the public.
4. That the lands now owned or that may hereafter be acquired by the Government by treaty or otherwise, should not be granted to corporations or sold to speculators, but should be reserved for actual occupants, and to them in limited quantities; and in all cases where corporations to whom grants have heretofore been made have failed to comply with the terms and conditions of such grants, the lands should revert to the Government.
5. That the Government should improve all such practicable watercourses as may be necessary and feasible to utilize the great natural advantages afforded by our navigable rivers and lakes; and that the connection (by way of the Illinois River and Illinois and Michigan Canal) between the lakes and the Mississippi River is a natural necessity.

6. That there shall be a fair, free, and absolutely secret ballot, subject to no intimidation by bulldozers or employers.

7. That as labor is the source of all wealth and the foundation of all prosperity, it should be so protected as to equalize its burdens and insure a just distribution of its results; therefore, the hours of labor and sanitary condition of industrial establishments should be placed under rigid legal control; the competition of contract convict-labor abolished; a bureau of labor statistics established; factories, mines, and workshops inspected; the labor of children under fourteen years of age in factories, mines, and workshops restricted, and wages paid in cash.

We are to embody in civil government the divine right of every laborer to the results of his toil, thus enabling the toiling producers of wealth to provide themselves with the means for physical comfort and the facilities for mental, social, and spiritual culture, condemning as unworthy our civilization the barbarism which would impose upon the wealth-producers a state of perpetual drudgery as the price of bare animal existence.

An amendment to the State Constitution which was submitted to the people at the State election on the 2d day of November, was to the following effect:

In each county there shall be elected the following officers at the general election to be held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, A. D. 1882: A County Judge, County Clerk, Sheriff, and Treasurer; and at the election to be held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, A. D. 1884, a Coroner and Clerk of the Circuit Court (who may be *ex-officio* Recorder of Deeds, except in counties having sixty thousand and more inhabitants, in which counties a Recorder of Deeds shall be elected at the general election 1884). Each of said officers shall enter upon the duties of his office, respectively, on the 1st Monday of December after his election, and they shall hold their respective offices for the term of four years, and until their successors are elected and qualified: *Provided*, That no person having once been elected to the office of Sheriff or Treasurer shall be eligible to re-election to said office for four years after the expiration of the term for which he shall have been elected.

The amendment was ratified by the popular vote. Its principal object is to do away with frequent elections, and lessen their cost. It makes the term of office of the Sheriff and Treasurer uniform with the other county offices.

The November election gave the Republicans 32 Senators in the new Legislature, the Democrats 18, and the Socialists 1, making the Republican majority in the Senate 13; and in the House it gave the Republicans 83 members and the Democrats 70—a Republican majority of 13 in the House, and on joint ballot a Republican majority in the Legislature of 26. The Republican candidates for the State offices were elected.

INDIA,* a British viceroyalty in Asia. Viceroy and Governor-General of Bengal, Marquis of Ripon, appointed in 1880. Commander-in-Chief of the Army, Sir Frederick P. Haines. The Executive and Legislative Council is composed as follows: The Viceroy, the Commander-in-Chief, Sir John Strachey (appointed in

1876), Whitley Stokes (1877), A. Rivers Thompson (1878), J. Gibbs (1880), Lieutenant-General Sir D. W. Stewart (1880), and C. H. Aitchison (1880). The lieutenant-governors of the provinces are honorary members of the Council, when it meets in their respective provinces. Government Secretaries: For the Interior, C. E. Bernard; for the Finances, R. B. Chapman; for Foreign Affairs, A. C. Lyall; for Military Affairs, Colonel A. B. Johnson; for Public Works, Colonel A. Fraser; for Legislative Affairs, D. Fitzpatrick. The governors of the different provinces are as follows: Bengal, Lieutenant-Governor, Sir A. Eden (1877); Northwestern Provinces, Lieutenant-Governor, Sir G. E. W. Couper, Bart.; Punjab, Lieutenant-Governor, R. E. Egerton; Central Provinces, Chief Commissioner, J. H. Morris; British Burmah, Chief Commissioner, C. U. Aitchison; Madras, Governor-General, William Patrick Adair; Bombay, Governor-General, Sir James Fergusson (1880).

The area and population of British India, according to the census of 1872, were as follows:

PRESIDENCIES AND PROVINCES.	Square miles.	Population.
Presidency of Bengal:		
Lower Bengal.....	156,200	60,502,897
Assam.....	45,302	4,162,019
Northwest Provinces.....	103,896	42,001,486
Punjab.....	104,975	17,611,498
Central Provinces.....	84,208	8,201,519
British Burmah.....	83,556	2,747,148
Ajmeer and Mairwara.....	2,711	396,889
Berar.....	17,711	2,226,496
Mysore.....	29,325	5,055,412
Coorg.....	2,000	168,312
Presidency of Madras.....	138,856	31,672,613
“ of Bombay.....	124,102	16,849,206
Under British administration..	899,341	191,095,445
Fendatory states.....	557,938	49,203,053
Total.....	1,457,244	240,298,498

The receipts and expenditures for the years 1876-'79 were as follows:

YEARS.	Gross receipts.	EXPENDITURES.			Surplus (+) or Deficit (-).
		In India.	In England.	Total.	
1876-'77.....	£35,995,785	£14,710,800	£13,467,763	£28,178,563	- £2,182,778
1877-'78.....	58,969,301	48,464,083	14,048,850	62,512,933	- 3,543,057
1878-'79.....	63,207,694	49,092,539	14,160,764	63,163,303	+ 2,044,391

The progress of the Parliamentary elections in Great Britain was watched with great interest by both English residents and natives. The "Times of India" remarked that the interest taken in Bombay was nearly as keen as in England itself, and that for the first time, perhaps, the contest was followed almost as closely by the natives as by the Europeans. The Indian public, in fact, were more excited by the news of the results of the first two days'

polling than they were over the declaration of war against Afghanistan, or even over the commencement of hostilities between Russia and Turkey. The leading vernacular paper of the country, describing the feeling in the Eastern Presidency, said:

Even mudies' shops, where the village people generally collect for gossip, are being converted into political clubs for the nonce. Any village schoolboy who has read something about the British Constitution, and who can read the newspaper, is pressed into the service and invited to dwell on the mechanism of parliamentary government. Among English-educated natives the excitement seems to be as great and real as if they were themselves concerned in the elections. Like the British constituencies, they seem to be divided into Conservatives and Liberals. There are

* For a full account of the area and population of the different provinces, the distribution of the population according to religion and sex, and the population of cities, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1876. For late statistics on the emigration of coolies, on the public debt, on imports and exports, on movements of shipping, on railroads, posts, and telegraphs, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

among them admirers of Lord Beaconsfield and Mr. Gladstone, and the intensity of feeling is so great that we have heard instances of high words among them on this account.

Generally, the natives were inclined to favor the Liberal party. The news of the result of the elections was unpleasantly received by the English residents, for it was accompanied by a report that Lord Hartington had intimated that one of the first acts of the new administration would be to withdraw the troops from Afghanistan. The unpleasant impression wore away after authentic reports of the declarations of the Liberal leaders were received, showing that the new administration would not make an abrupt change of policy with reference to Afghanistan. Lord Lytton offered his resignation as Viceroy of India immediately on hearing of the result of the elections, and it was received at the British India Office early in April. He afterward went to Simla, and remained there, still performing the duties of a Viceroy till the new Viceroy arrived. In the constitution of the new British Government, the Marquis of Hartington was appointed Secretary of State for India, and the Marquis of Ripon was appointed Governor-General of India. The Marquis of Ripon had served in Mr. Gladstone's former Cabinet as Under-Secretary, and afterward as Secretary of State for India, and had approved himself in both positions a capable administrator and an energetic man. Some surprise was expressed at his appointment, on account of his being a Roman Catholic, because there had never been a Roman Catholic Viceroy in India, and objections were made to it at first in England on the same ground; but these were dispelled under the recognition of the fitness of his lordship in other respects for the position, and of the fact that the religious question could not be mixed in any of the relations of his office. The new Viceroy arrived at Calcutta, May 31st. On the next day he received an address from the Corporation of Bombay, in reply to which he expressed his desire to contribute to the prosperity of India, and said that it would be his utmost endeavor to bring the Afghan war to an early and honorable conclusion, in the hope that with returning peace the Government of India might again devote itself to works of internal improvement. On his way to Simla he stopped to have a private interview with the Halkar of Khandata. He arrived at Simla, June 7th, was entertained at a state dinner by Lord Lytton, the retiring Viceroy, and at once assumed office. One of his first official acts was to issue an order for the discontinuance of work on Sundays in all the departments of the Government. The Viceroy left Simla in the latter part of October for Lahore, where he arrived November 10th. On the 13th he reviewed bodies of about ten thousand troops, among which were included several regiments that had returned from Afghanistan. At the end of the review he made a long speech in which he passed a eulogium on the conduct of

the troops during the campaign in which they had been engaged, and at the close of it announced that her Majesty had been pleased to grant, in addition to the Afghan medal, six clasps for Ali Musjid, Peiwar Kotal, Charasiab, Cabool, Ahmed Khel, and Candahar, and a special decoration of a bronze star for those who had taken part in General Roberts's march to Candahar. On the 15th he invested Generals Stewart and Maude with the insignia of the Bath, and held a grand durbar, which was attended by the chiefs of the Punjab. In his address on this occasion, the Viceroy expressed his satisfaction at the signs of prosperity and progress in the Punjab, and pointed out that no such durbar as the present had been held since that held by Lord Lawrence in 1864. It would be his endeavor to walk in the footsteps and apply the principles of that officer; he could not give a better assurance than this declaration of his earnest desire to promote the prosperity and welfare of the people. A grand durbar was held at Jacobabad on the 18th, when the Khan of Kelat and the Nawab of Bhawalpoor were invested with the Grand Cross of the Star of India. The Viceroy reached Kurrachee, November 22d, and inspected the harbor and breakwaters on the next day. The municipality and Chamber of Commerce presented addresses to him, strongly urging the completion of railway communication with the Punjab, by bridging the Indus, and representing the necessity of harbor improvements and increased postal facilities. At Poonah, on the 2d of December, Lord Ripon said that it was the intention of the Government to base its educational policy on the dispatch of 1854, which he characterized as the charter of Indian education, and added that, in dealing with this question, due regard would be shown for the changed conditions which had been brought about by the progress of the age. He hoped that more would be done for the education of the masses. In reference to the native states, the Government intended to adhere to the proclamation issued on the 1st of November, 1858, by Lord Canning, declaring the Queen's supremacy throughout India, and to continue to recognize the powers defined and granted under it. It was to the advantage, not only of the native princes, but also of Great Britain, that native states should continue to exist. India wanted peace and rest, in order to devote itself to the improvement of its agriculture and commerce. Lord Ripon was attacked with a fever during his tour, which caused much anxiety for a time, and an apprehension that he would be obliged to return to England. He, however, became convalescent during December, and was able to retain his office.

The budget was laid before the Legislative Council of Calcutta, February 25th, by Sir John Strachey, who considered the results highly favorable. He represented that the accounts of the financial year 1878-'79 showed a surplus of £2,044,000, and those of the year 1879-'80

a surplus of £119,000, and that the estimate for 1880-'81 would show a surplus of £417,000. These figures, he said, were arrived at in each case after allowing for the payment from the ordinary revenue of all charges on account of the famine, the Afghan war, and the frontier railways. The total net war expenses to the end of 1880-'81 were estimated, after setting off the increased railway and telegraph revenue, at £5,750,000. The total net expenditure under the head of frontier railways during the present and the next financial years was fixed at £3,500,000. The expenditure on productive works had been £3,381,000 in 1878-'79, and £3,700,000 in 1879-'80, and would be £2,500,000 in 1880-'81, aside from the outlay on the East Indian Railway. The Council bills on India would amount during the present financial year to £15,750,000, and during the next year to £16,900,000. According to the present intention of the Government, no loans would be required during the coming year, unless unforeseen events should occur, but full powers were reserved to borrow in case of need. The closing cash balances at the end of 1879-'80 amounted to £14,193,000, and were estimated for 1880-'81 at £11,444,000. The extension of taxation to official and professional classes had been abandoned for the present, and fresh taxation was considered undesirable under existing financial circumstances. The license-tax, therefore, remained unaltered, except that all incomes below 500 rupees would be exempted; the export duties on indigo and lac were abandoned; no export duty remained on rice; no change was proposed at present in the cotton duties, but the prolonged maintenance of those duties was declared to be impossible. Notwithstanding the salt-tax had been reduced in the greater part of India, the revenue from salt, as well as the consumption of the article, had been increased. The measures with relation to the army, recommended by the Army Commission, included an estimated annual saving of £1,250,000 which was not credited in the budget. The object of the famine insurance fund had been thoroughly fulfilled. The restriction of the expenditure on productive public works to £2,500,000 had, however, checked the efforts of the Government to protect the country from famine by the construction of cheap railways and canals. The war estimates had hitherto proved and were believed to be ample for all contingencies at present contemplated. A comparison between the present total net ordinary expenditure, compared with that of twelve years back, showed, apart from the loss by exchange, only a trifling increase either in the civil or military charges.

The bill amending the license acts, the chief feature in which was the exemption of poor traders from taxation, was passed in the Legislative Council, March 2d, without opposition. General satisfaction was expressed in the Council at the condition of the finances; but some

of the members objected to charging the war expenses upon the revenues of India, and advocated a loan and the abolition of the famine taxation. The Viceroy reviewed the whole financial policy of the Government, referred especially to the success of the measures which had been adopted for the reduction of taxation, and hoped that further reductions might be effected, and the cotton duties be ultimately wholly abolished. In reply to comparisons which had been made by Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Forster of the expenditures of the last four years with those of a corresponding period under Lord Northbrook, he showed that practically no increase in the actual expenditure had been incurred, while the average net revenue in 1878-'79, and in 1879-'80, had exceeded that of 1868-'69, and of 1869-'70, by more than £6,500,000. Notwithstanding the reduced taxation, the actual charge for interest on the debt had been increased by only £2,500,000 during the last forty years; yet, during that period, five provinces with 42,000,000 people had been added to the empire, and the cost of six wars, the suppression of the mutiny, and several great famines, had had to be met. Lord Lytton denied that the proceeds of the taxes for the relief of the famine had been devoted to any other purpose, asserting that the financial object for which this taxation was proposed had been accomplished, and expressed astonishment at the charge which had been brought against the Government of concealing the real cost of the war. So far from this being the case, the Government had included under the head of the charges for the war the cost of the frontier railways and permanent telegraphs, and other similar items of expenditure. The Viceroy, all the members of the Executive Council, and Sir Ashley Eden, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, opposed the proposal to throw any part of the charges for the Afghan war upon England.

The measure decided upon by the Army Commission related to the reorganization rather than the reduction of the army, and provided for the formation of four territorial army corps: one for employment in Bengal, Assam, the Northwest Provinces, and Oude; the second for the Punjab, the trans-Indus frontier, and advanced posts; the third for Bombay, the Central Provinces, Central India, Rajpootana, and Sindh; the fourth for Madras, Hyderabad, and Burmah—each to be commanded by a lieutenant-general, with a complete staff. By their operation the Commander-in-Chief would lose his seat in the Council, and hold a position toward the office of military secretary similar to that of the Duke of Cambridge toward the British War Department, while the Viceroy would be the supreme head of the army, and the military member of the Council would be a Cabinet Minister in charge of the War Department. No local army was recommended, but a modification of the short-service system was advised, and the location of European troops

on the hills as much as possible. Native states should be induced to reduce their armies gradually, their troops should be forbidden to carry small-arms of precision, and their field-artillery be reduced to the smallest limits. The report deprecated unnecessary interference with Scindia, but recommended that the Nizam be induced gradually to curtail his forces. It advised that the civil employment of military officers be discontinued; that staff corps be gradually abolished; that the medical department be recast by separating the civil medical service from the military, and amalgamating the latter with the British Army Medical Department so as to form one list, and that volunteering be encouraged but not made compulsory on government servants.

At the beginning of May it was discovered that the cost of the Afghan war would probably exceed the estimates by at least four million pounds sterling. Minutes were appended to the dispatch of the Indian Government communicating this fact to the British Secretary for India, explaining the manner in which the estimates were framed, and the reasons for which the Military Department had believed them to be sufficient, and had officially recommended to the Finance Department to adopt them in the Indian budget. The minute declared the Military Department to be responsible for the estimates. Among the chief reasons, as stated in it, which had led to the increased expenditure, and which were unforeseen when the estimates were made, were the necessity of buying instead of merely hiring a great proportion of the means of transport required, the cost of transporting to the front provisions for six months, and the enormous increase in the price of grain and all other supplies. Higher wages had to be paid to all camp-followers on account of their dread of foreign service. It became necessary to construct works for the maintenance of the positions gained and the protection of the troops, in consequence of the prolongation of the war beyond the time anticipated. Local resources were exhausted, and the means of transport had to be frequently renewed by drafts from distant provinces of India at constantly increasing cost. The dispatch declared, however, that the condition of the finances apart from the war continued to be satisfactory, that the estimates of revenue had been realized, and that the general financial position was as good as was described in the budget statement.

An official paper was published in June, recording the offers of money and warm clothing which had been made to the Government by native chiefs and others in connection with the military operations in Afghanistan. The Maharajah and Maharani of Baroda had placed at the disposal of the Government ten thousand rupees for the support of the families of the men of the Guide corps who died in defending the residency at Cabool, in September, 1879. Maharajah Holkar had offered a sum of five thousand rupees toward the same purpose, or

toward any memorial that might be determined on in honor of the defense. The Maharajah of Bulrampur had offered one hundred thousand rupees to provide allowances for the families of native soldiers killed in action, and to be distributed in prizes among those Sepoys who had distinguished themselves for gallantry in the recent engagements. The Nawab of Rampore had offered one hundred thousand rupees to be devoted to the aid of sick and wounded soldiers, both British and native. Thakoor Pratab Rudr Singh Talukdar, in the Sitapore district, had given four hundred rupees to be applied for the benefit of the families of those killed while employed during the operations in Afghanistan. These gifts, and others of goods, were accepted by the Government, and the acknowledgments of the Viceroy were given to each donor for his generous offers and sympathy with the condition of those who had suffered in the service of their country.

A large meeting, attended by the Europeans and leading natives of the station, was held at Poona in August, in behalf of the relief fund for the widows and orphans of soldiers killed in the Afghan war. Sir James Fergusson, Governor of Bombay, praised "the healthy spirit prevailing through the native community," and said that it was with a feeling of pleasure and pride that the Government could, confident in the loyalty of the population, move forward to the front an unprecedented proportion of the troops of the Presidency.

A similar meeting at Bombay, August 18th, was attended by leading representatives of all the nationalities and religions, including the Anglican and Roman Catholic bishops, Brahmans, Mussulmans, and Parsees. The sum of fifty-four thousand rupees was subscribed.

The administration of Sir Madhara Rao, who was intrusted with the government of the state of Baroda after the deposition of the late Gaikwar and during the minority of the Maharajah, has been very successful. The administrator surrounded himself with a native staff of excellent character, and retained the confidence of the Indian Government while he secured the good opinion of the subjects of the Gaikwar. A dearth almost approaching to famine made relief operations necessary during the last year; but the public works were not abandoned, and the construction of the state railways—which were already earning four per cent.—has been pushed on. Schools are being built, and education is being extended. A complete system of judicial machinery has been established, *dacoity* has been diminished if not suppressed, the city of Baroda has been supplied with fire-engines and street-lamps, and the finances are prospering. The young Gaikwar is making satisfactory progress with his studies, which include the English, Marathi, Guzerati, and Hindoostani languages, history, political economy, arithmetic, and geography.

The Rajah of Travancore died on the 30th of May. He was one of the most enlightened

native princes, and during the twenty years of his reign had succeeded in raising Travancore to a very high position among the native states. He was succeeded by his younger brother, who had been known as the first Prince of Travancore. The dynasty of Travancore traces its descent, according to Malabar custom, in the female line, for a thousand years back. The state has an area of nearly seven thousand square miles, and a population of more than two millions. Both the late prince and the new one were versed in Sanskrit learning and accurate in the use of the English language. At the ceremony of coronation the prince delivered an inaugural address, in which he said in reference to the English: "One of my illustrious predecessors, who died in the year in which that master-architect, Clive, laid the foundation of the British Empire in the East at the field of Plassey, calling his successor to his bedside, gave him as his last words of advice: 'These Englishmen appear destined to rise to power and glory unparalleled. Be it your constant aim and endeavor to secure their friendship and support.'"

The Indian Government, intending to hand over the administration of Mysore to the Maharajah at the beginning of the next year, has taken steps to substitute natives for Europeans in most official positions.

In the course of a speech, delivered at Indore, on the occasion of a banquet given by Sir Richard Meade, the Maharajah Holkar dwelt with pride on the social and industrial development which the state had undergone in the period which had just closed. He pointed to an increased revenue, increased industry, and an increased peasant population, as the result of the revenue system set on foot nearly fifteen years before, while an extended and improved cultivation had amply repaid the liberal encouragement given by the state to cultivators, in the shape of advances for irrigation, remissions in seasons of scarcity, and advice in reference to the rotation of crops, which would yield the largest return for the smallest outlay on their lands. "Our friend Sir Richard Meade," the Maharajah continued, "had left Indore to assume the chief commissionership of Mysore, before the chimney of our cotton-mill had raised its lofty head. He will now find the mill at full work, giving occupation to numbers of my poor subjects." All of this social and industrial progress was to be attributed to the continuance of tranquillity at home, which, Holkar said, was of as vital importance to his state as to the paramount power. The preservation of peace, he added, was "the one common object, the one touch of nature which makes us kin. It binds us together with adamant bonds, in close alliance and heart-felt attachment. It is this which makes us proud of General Roberts's glorious fortnight's march into Cabool, which makes us rejoice at his repeated successes, and draws forth our prayers for a victorious termi-

nation to his campaign, which I would fain hope is not very distant." The cotton-factory of the Maharajah, which was referred to in his speech, was operated during 1878-'79 at a profit of 50,083 rupees, and turned out 71,431 pieces of cloth, weighing 432,041 pounds, and 30,863 pounds of yarn. The goods of the factory have an excellent reputation for being honestly made of good material.

The experiments which were made several years ago, for naturalizing in certain parts of India the cinchona-tree, from which the Peruvian bark is produced, have been attended with a remarkable success and beneficial results. The cultivation of these trees in the government plantations in Bengal in 1879-'80, embraced 750,000 young trees, which yielded a crop of 361,590 pounds of dry bark. A new variety of cinchona, yielding the Carthagena bark of commerce, was successfully brought into cultivation. A consignment of calisaya bark was made for sale in the London market. A saving of £40,000 had been effected in the cost of the quinine consumed in Calcutta, while the saving in former years amounted to about £80,000; making a total saving to the end of 1879 of about £120,000, or about £15,000 more than the plantations had cost from their origin, including compound interest on the outlay incurred at the rate of four per cent. per annum. The cultivation of the cinchona is regarded as highly advantageous in other economical senses, not only because it offers a new branch of industry and trade, but also because of its bearing on the traffic in opium. The opium which is consumed in China is in by far the largest degree taken as a medicine by the millions of cultivators who inhabit the low, swampy tracts of country which border the great rivers, where fevers are always present. It is believed that by reason of the immense superiority of quinine over opium as a febrifuge, if it were sufficiently abundant to come into competition with that drug, and could be sold at a reasonable price, it would supplant it. Thus, the embarrassing questions which make the suppression of the opium-trade so difficult, could be settled without causing an important disturbance to Indian industries.

An interesting debate on the affairs of India took place in the British House of Commons in February, when Sir D. Wedderburn called attention to the importance of conferring on the people of the country some measure of representation, either in the Legislative Councils or otherwise, in order that the Indian Government might have greater facilities than those at present existing for ascertaining native opinion on public questions. M. E. Stanhope, on the part of the Government, while he sympathized with the desire to extend representative institutions, pointed out that the inhabitants of India were not one people, but a conglomeration of peoples, without cohesion and without any basis for representation. Nevertheless, there were at present no less than 894 mu-

municipalities, comprising twelve million people, and the governing bodies of these municipalities contained three natives to one European. Natives also sat in the Provincial Legislative Councils. But outside the centers of population there was a vast inert mass of people who had no capacity for representation at present, and wanted nothing but to be let alone and not be overtaxed. The Central Government did all in its power to elicit native opinion as to the laws which were proposed, and would be glad, wherever it was possible, to obtain the coöperation of the natives in legislation, but it would be unwise to press on this idea of representation too fast.

Mr. W. W. Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, delivered two addresses in England on "What the English have yet to do for the Indian People." He called attention, as two of the saddest problems with which a state can be called to deal, to the poverty of the people, and the alleged inability of the Government to pay its way. With these fundamental problems yet unsolved, it might seem a delusive optimism to speak of the success of the Indian administration. The struggle for life in many parts of India was growing harder under British rule; and in many parts the population had outstripped the food-producing powers of the land. Each square mile of land in Bengal had to feed three times as many mouths in 1880 as each square mile had to feed in 1780; and each square mile of British India (excluding the outlying provinces of Assam on the frontier, and Burmah beyond the sea) had to support nearly three times as many persons as each square mile in the native states. Under the protection from wars and the ravages of epidemics, secured by British rule, the population had so increased as to threaten the bankruptcy of the soil. The deterioration applied, however, only to the over-populated provinces; and large sections of the population were rapidly advancing in wealth and comfort. But the contented classes kept silence, while the suffering classes cried out. The cultivator got a decreasing return from the exhausted land, but of that smaller return he had to pay away a larger share in the shape of rent to his landlord. The Government could do little to avert these two penalties of a population living in defiance of economic laws, but its efforts were directed toward mitigating both of them, by administrative measures looking to the increase of the food-supply, and legislative restrictions on the enhancement of rent. The weak point in the financial condition of the English in India was, not that they took more from the people than their native rulers did, but that what they took barely sufficed to defray the cost of their administration. They took less taxation from the people, and tried to give them a much better government in return. The more extended employment of natives would not only be an act of justice,

but was a financial necessity. A large saving might be expected from the reorganization of the military establishments, as proposed by the Indian Army Commission; but the speaker believed that, in addition to such savings, a steadily increasing revenue was necessary. In a country where the people were poor, the government ought to be poor, for it must either be poor or oppressive. No financial dexterity would remove these conditions, but the natives of India must themselves reform themselves; they must restrain the increase of the population to the food-producing powers of the land, and more equally distribute the pressure on the soil by migration to the less thickly inhabited provinces.

Mr. Hunter's description of the condition and prospects of the country was confirmed by the report of Mr. Caird, who was sent out by the Government of Earl Beaconsfield to examine into the causes of the frequent famines. Mr. Caird stated that the available good land in India was nearly all occupied, while the people were not able to clear the jungle-land. As a result, the produce of the country on an average of years was barely sufficient to maintain the present population and make a saving for occasional famine. The present export of rice and corn in one year was not more than ten days' consumption of the inhabitants, and scarcity deepening into famine was becoming of more frequent occurrence, while the population was all the time increasing. No means were taken to keep up the quality of the soil, and the people were becoming more estranged from their English rulers.

The troubles which broke out with the Naga tribes on the northeastern frontier in October, 1879, were continued into 1880. The Nagas, who had long been troublesome neighbors, were distinguished from most of the other hill tribes by their skill in agriculture and their readiness to adopt the appliances of civilization. They had acquired considerable knowledge in the arts of fortification and the use of arms of precision, and by reason of this advance and their intelligence had been able to make themselves capable of creating embarrassing situations when they came in conflict with the English. The Government of Assam had for some time intended to extend the sphere of its influence over the frontier tribes, and for that purpose had posted an agent at Kohima to look after the Nagas. This agent went thence to Konom, one of their strongholds, to secure a surrender of their arms, when he was attacked and driven away. They afterward marched upon Kohima, which resisted their assaults till it was relieved; after which a force of British and Manipoori troops drove them from Konom to the Barrail Hills. On the 27th of January a party of Nagas came down and committed ravages on the gardens in Cachar, killing the manager and burning the houses of one of the gardens. About two weeks afterward, they made an unsuccessful attack on the native

guard near Samaguting. The planters in north Cachar demanded protection from the Government, and a force of infantry was dispatched to the disturbed district, and arms and ammunition were furnished to the planters. The aggressive operations were also slowly pushed against the Nagas, with the result that by the end of March their stronghold had been captured, all the chiefs had surrendered and given up their arms and forts, and the operations were brought to an end.

The rebellion in the Rumpa district, which was first provoked in March, 1879, by the exactions of a native to whom the collection of the revenue had been farmed, broke out afresh in the latter months of that year, and was also protracted into 1880. Chendriah, the leader of the insurgents, fell a victim to the jealousy of another of the leaders, and was beheaded in February by his followers. The insurgents continued to be active till quiet was restored by the troops sent against them. The military were, however, withdrawn in May, when the insurgents began to collect again and attack some police posts, and the soldiers had to be sent back.

A Eurasian youth named Deesa was arrested for an attempt to assassinate Lord Lytton by firing a pistol at him on December 25, 1879, and was brought to trial before the High Court of Calcutta. Testimony was taken, and he was examined as to the soundness of his mind. He said that he felt all right and understood the charge; that he had bought a revolver in order to defend himself in case he was attacked by robbers on his way to Cuttack; that he had no recollection of firing at the Viceroy's carriage, and had no grievance against Lord Lytton or any of his suite; and that he was very sorry for what had happened. The jury found that he was of unsound mind, and he was ordered to be confined during her Majesty's pleasure.

A serious disaster took place at Naini Tal, one of the most frequented summer resorts of the country, September 18th, when a landslip occurred which destroyed a part of the Victoria Hotel, and buried several persons. Between three and four hours afterward, the whole precipitous cliff, which had been undermined by the landslip, suddenly fell while the work of extricating those who had been killed and injured by the first landslip was still in progress. The hotel and the adjacent buildings, offices, and assembly-rooms were buried, with nearly every person who was on the premises. The actual number of the killed could not be ascertained, as many of them were coolies who had come in to work. It was estimated at from one hundred and fifty to two hundred. Among them were many officers of the civil and military service, summer visitors, and residents. The disaster was occasioned by the heavy rains which had visited the country.

According to the representations of the "Brahmo Year-Book" for 1880, a new period

of vital activity has set in for the Brahmo-Somajes of Bengal since the schism of 1878. At the same time the local activity in the independent somajes of western, northern, and southern India has decidedly increased. The theistic church of India consisted in 1880 of about one hundred and thirty small churches, scattered over the country. The several churches, however, widely differ both as to the number of members in each, and as to the quality of their Brahmoism. The number of members ranges from three or four to three hundred. In some cases, a small somaj is strong in influence; in others, a large one is weak. The most prominent societies in Calcutta are the sadharan Brahmo-Somaj, which originated in the schism of 1878, and is most active in propagandist and philanthropic work; the Adi Brahmo-Somaj, the historic remnant of the original society founded by Rammohun Roy in 1830, which is conservative in its religious character, and exercises an influence by means of the personal sympathy existing between its leading members and the provincial somajes, which have advanced to a certain point beyond the current Hindooism, but are not inclined to go further; and the Brahmo-Somaj of India, of which Keshub Chunder Sen is the leader and head.

INDIANA. The total amount of the State debt on October 31, 1879, was \$4,998,178, of which \$1,093,395 was the amount of the foreign indebtedness, and \$3,904,783 that of the domestic debt. The interest-charge for 1880 amounted to \$289,465, \$3,543 less than in 1879, and \$8,571 less than in 1878. The interest on the different loans in 1880 was to the following amounts:

BONDS.	Interest.
School fund.....	\$234,286 99
Temporary loan.....	46,530 24
War loan.....	8,348 84
Internal improvement.....	300 00
Total.....	\$289,465 57

The domestic debt, about four fifths of the total published amount of the State's indebtedness, is merely nominal, the loan being held by one of the school funds of the State. Some of the internal-improvement bonds have been presented for payment during the year, and are in litigation respecting the interest to be paid upon the bonds, which are long overdue. The reduction in the public debt, shown in the lessening of the interest-charge, has been in the temporary loan, and in paying off some of the small balance of the internal-improvement loan. The temporary loan was created in consequence of extraordinary appropriations made in 1873, after the reduction of the tax-levy to five cents on \$100 by the preceding Legislature. The loan amounted to about \$910,000. The interest-charge was at first \$67,000; \$510,000 of the loan became due April 1, 1879, and \$200,000 in December of the same year. These bonds were converted into five per cents, reducing the interest-charge to \$45,500.

The accounts of the Treasury for the fiscal year 1880 are summarized in the following tables:

RECEIPTS.

Cash balance November 1, 1879:	
General fund.....	\$226,584 91
Common school fund.....	2,692 20
School revenue for tuition.....	184,632 23
College fund.....	5,332 83
College fund, excess of bids.....	302 02
College fund interest.....	105 16
Swamp-land fund.....	549 96
Fund of unclaimed estates.....	11,948 43
Sinking-fund, excess of bids.....	2,088 52
New State-House fund.....	199,315 66

Total..... \$583,751 92

Receipts to October 31, 1880:

General fund.....	\$1,477,609 92
School revenue for tuition.....	2,010,845 61
College fund.....	18,409 14
College fund, excess of bids.....	326 16
College fund interest.....	7,023 17
Swamp-land fund.....	486 56
Fund of unclaimed estates.....	2,258 56
New State-House fund.....	175,845 47
Escheated estates.....	1,865 97

Total amount of Treasurer's receipts filed during the year..... \$3,689,170 56

Deduct amount of transfer and refunding receipts filed during year..... 236,961 54

Leaves net cash receipts to the Treasury during the year..... \$3,452,209 02

Add cash balance in the Treasury, October 31, 1879..... 583,751 92

Makes total receipts, including balance, during the year..... \$4,035,960 94

WARRANTS DRAWN ON THE TREASURY DURING THE YEAR.

General fund.....	\$1,199,299 89
School revenue for tuition.....	1,993,354 26
College fund.....	10,550 00
College fund interest.....	4,498 10
Swamp-land fund.....	11 09
Fund of unclaimed estates.....	1,118 13
New State-House fund.....	177,626 70
College fund, excess of bids.....	604 04

Total amount of warrants drawn during the year..... \$3,387,057 11

Deduct amount of transfer and refunding warrants..... 236,961 54

Leaves net cash disbursements from State Treasury during the year..... \$3,150,095 57

Which, being deducted from total receipts, leaves cash in Treasury October 31, 1880. 885,865 37

The balance of cash in the Treasury on various funds was as follows at the close of the year:

General fund.....	\$504,894 94
Common school fund.....	2,692 20
Fund of school revenue for tuition.....	152,128 58
College fund.....	8,391 97
College fund interest.....	2,635 23
College fund, excess of bids.....	34 14
Swamp-land fund.....	1,028 52
Fund of unclaimed estates.....	13,088 87
Sinking-fund, excess of bids.....	2,088 52
Escheated estates.....	13,065 97
New State-House fund.....	197,584 43

Total balance..... \$885,865 37

The following is a classified statement of the expenses of the State Government for the fiscal year 1880:

CURRENT EXPENSES.

Executive.....	\$51,319 56
Benevolent institutions.....	384,759 59
Penal institutions.....	179,831 45
Judiciary.....	182,643 75
Educational institutions.....	17,500 00
Board of Agriculture, etc.....	5,100 00
Printing and stationery.....	15,321 96
Miscellaneous.....	7,804 61

Total..... \$844,285 92

SPECIFIC AND EXTRAORDINARY EXPENSES.

Interest on public debt.....	\$259,465 57
Special appropriations.....	65,545 40

Total..... \$355,013 97

Total warrants drawn on general fund..... \$1,199,299 89

The expenses of the two State-prisons have only exceeded their receipts by \$26,633 during the last two years, while the expenses of 1878 were \$39,243 in excess of the prison revenues. The cost of the judiciary has not materially changed, though a part of the expense has been thrown upon the counties by an act of the last Legislature.

There were 542 convicts in the State-prison North on the 31st of October, 1879, and 577 at the same date in 1880, 301 having been received and three returned, and 269 having been released by pardon, expiration of sentence, and otherwise. Among the incarcerated, 43 were sentenced for murder, 67 for other offenses against the person; 80 per cent. of the convicts are citizens of the United States. All are contracted for terms of from one to five years, and 508 have been employed, 50 being in service of the State, and 19 excused and off duty. During the year 45 received medical treatment, three died, and one committed suicide. The sanitary condition was good, and is shown in the smaller percentage of deaths, and in the excused list, which is lighter than in any former year. The receipts and earnings were \$74,877, and the disbursements \$73,943, leaving \$934 remaining. The cost of each convict was 36½ cents per day. The prison-buildings will accommodate 800 convicts. The average number of convicts in the Prison South during the year ending October 31, 1879, was 600, 593 at the beginning and 562 at the close, 247 having been received and 278 discharged, pardoned, and otherwise lost. The available men on contracts were 445 at 45 cents, and 50 at 30 cents. The receipts were \$76,638; the disbursements \$74,753. With an expense of \$71,875 and an average number of 600, the average cost was 32·7 cents per day, or, excluding repairs, but 31 cents per day for each convict. That each prisoner is substantially fed appears from a curious table of weights, disclosing the fact that the average of those received is 143½ pounds and of those discharged 149½ pounds. The cell-house in process of construction will accommodate 400 convicts. There were seven deaths during the year, five from diseases of the lungs.

The Female Prison had 45 convicts at the beginning of 1879, and 41 at the close, 21 having been received, 24 discharged, and one having died; and at the end of 1880 it had 48, 34 having been received. The Reformatory for Girls contained 149 inmates at the commencement of 1879, and 147 at its close; and at the close of 1880 it contained 148, 41 having been committed during the year. The estimated cost per capita is \$126 per annum. Of the expenses one half are borne by the counties.

The House of Refuge for Juvenile Offenders was opened in 1868, and has received in all 1,384 boys. There were 329 at the beginning of 1880, and 347 at the close. Of the 134 admitted during the year, 34 could neither read nor write; 80 were sent up for incorrigibility, 43 on no specific charge, and the rest for penal offenses. Of the 1,037 who have passed through, 80 per cent. have proved useful citizens. There were 13 deaths. The cost of keeping an inmate is estimated at \$100. The counties pay one half. The commissioners express the opinion that boys who have committed no crime are not fit subjects for compulsory education and reformation, and that so much of the statute as authorizes their commitment should be repealed. It appears that of the 256 admitted during the last two years, not one half were offenders. There are now eight families and six family-buildings, two being double. They can accommodate 400 boys. The net cost of the institution to the State was \$16,994 for the year.

The Hospital for the Insane began the year with 629 inmates and ended with 1,010, having admitted 914, discharged 533, and treated during the year 1,543. Of these, 262 were cured, 69 improved, 34 unimproved, 146 died, eight were discharged as not insane and six as idiotic, and eight eloped.

A department for women was opened, and soon filled by the patients who were sent from the counties; since which only acute cases have been received. The male department was not full. The average cost per capita was \$184.64 per annum. The building for women had cost \$680,000, and was not quite completed. A change in the statutes relating to insanity inquests is asked for by the hospital authorities. The Institution for Educating the Deaf and Dumb holds property of the State valued at \$490,341. The ordinary expenses for the year were \$50,005; the per capita cost, \$154.33. The Institute for the Education of the Blind has property valued at \$374,644. The current expenses for 1880 were \$25,912, or \$211.05 per capita. The enrollment was 127 pupils, 66 male and 61 female. The reports of these three benevolent institutions show a reduction in the per capita cost as given in the following table, covering twelve years, of the average daily number of patients and annual cost of maintenance:

YEAR.	No. of inmates.	Cost per capita.
1869.....	840	\$257 49
1870.....	478	256 79
1871.....	495	261 44
1872.....	455	255 64
1873.....	452	321 88
1874.....	453	324 14
1875.....	566	255 70
1876.....	603	238 99
1877.....	612	242 56
1878.....	617	199 23
1879.....	626	188 20
1880.....	896	198 84

The new State-House is paid for out of a separate fund. The total cost must not exceed

\$2,000,000. The estimate as revised is \$1,984,890. On December 31, 1880, \$378,337 had been paid out by the Board. The fund is derived from surplus revenues and from delinquent taxes. The building is expected to be completed in 1882, and ready for use the following year. On the death of Architect May, Adolph Scherer was appointed supervising architect. The corner stone was laid on September 28th. Governor Porter insists in his inaugural that it should again be uncovered, and memorials of Indiana's action in the war placed with the other records.

The Insurance Department was subjected to a legislative investigation in 1878, and from the collections of 1880, as compared with those of the two previous years, it seems to have become more efficient in collecting the taxes and fees. The fees amounted to \$24,634 in 1880, against \$12,487 in 1879, and \$14,624 in 1878; the taxes to \$51,305 in 1880, against \$21,227 in 1879, and \$36,292 in 1878. The total receipts in 1880 were \$75,940. The following is a summary of the insurance reports for the year 1879-'80: number of fire-insurance companies of other States and foreign countries doing business in Indiana, 96, of which 21 were foreign and 75 American companies; amount of premiums received, \$1,521,591; of losses paid, \$701,293; number of extra-State life companies, 30; receipts from premiums, \$935,174; losses paid, \$535,806. The State-tax collected from the fire companies amounted to \$26,103; from the life-insurance companies, \$13,622.

The first annual report of the Bureau of Statistics and Geology contains a remarkably extensive and elaborate collection of statistical data, prepared under the supervision of the chief of the bureau, John Collett; but owing to the difficulties of obtaining correct facts, and the refusal of many of the State officials to make the inquiries and reports expected of them, the volume contains usually the framework and first rough approximation of a statistical record more complete than has been attempted in other States.

The office of Mine Inspector was created by an act of the Legislature to regulate the working of mines, passed in 1879, and the appointee, Herbert H. Richards, commenced his duties on the 1st of May of that year. The first annual report states that there are 177 mines in operation in seventeen counties. The invested capital is \$1,135,562; the number of men employed, 3,459; the year's product, 1,196,490 tons of coal. The mines were found by the inspector greatly deficient with respect to ventilation and other matters. The quantity and value of the coal mined in the State reported to the Bureau of Statistics differ, to a surprising extent, from the reported amounts in the Mine Inspector's report, being over twenty times as great.

The number of school-houses in Indiana has increased from 7,403 in 1865, valued at \$3,827,-

173, to 9,647, of the value of \$11,817,954. The school-fund has grown from \$7,193,705 in 1862 to \$9,065,254; but the increase in the school population has been relatively greater, the number of children of school age being 703,558 in 1880, against 528,583 in 1862. There were 1,090 males and 957 females between the ages of ten and twenty-one reported unable to read or write. There were 359 new school-houses erected in 1880. During the year ending August 31st, the schools were in session on an average 136 days. The number of teachers employed was 13,578. The daily attendance during the year was 321,659. The number of scholars enrolled was 511,283: 265,872 white males, 237,395 white females, and 8,016 colored. The expenditures for tuition amounted to \$3,006,432; for special purposes, \$1,485,418; total expenses for the year, \$4,491,850. Of the total number of teachers, 7,731 were white males, 5,732 white females, and 15 colored. The colored schools numbered 104, graded schools 339, township graded schools 53. The pay of the male teachers in the townships varies from \$1.35 to \$2.29 a day; of the female teachers, from 93 cents to \$2.23; in the towns male teachers receive from \$1.76 to \$5.33, and female teachers from 75 cents to \$2.33; in cities male teachers receive from \$2 to \$7.50, and female teachers from \$1.65 to \$5 a day. The township libraries contain in the aggregate 241,824 books.

The Normal School was attended by 578 scholars during the year, the average enrollment having been 283 per term, 22 more than in the preceding year, and 280 having entered for the first time; 2,665 have attended since the school was established. The annual enrollment ten years ago was 135. The students come mostly from the industrial classes, and teach afterward in the common country schools. The object of the school is to give instruction in the art of teaching. The State sets apart annually a portion of the school revenue for its support as a means of making the common school system more effective, and supplying trained teachers to meet the constant demand, as one fourth of the teachers annually abandon the profession. The school expended \$13,927.96 for tuition, and \$3,551.75 on account of the incidental fund.

The expenses of the Indiana University for two years are reported as \$27,951 for 1879, and \$24,856 for 1880. The Purdue University was established with the Government land-grant for agricultural and mechanical education. It has received large donations from John Purdue, a portion of which funds have been diverted from the purpose of the trust and applied to current expenses, and must therefore be made good by the State. The University is reported to be on a sound financial basis, and is actively fulfilling its educational objects. The endowment fund amounts to \$340,000, yielding five per cent. An annual appropriation of equal amount, \$17,000, is asked for from the State.

The grants and donations are valued at \$573,000 altogether. The number of students is 203.

The Constitution of the State was adopted nearly thirty years ago. In view of the changed conditions of the commonwealth and the many important new provisions, repeals of obsolete ones, and amendments which are demanded, the Governor recommended, in his message, the calling of a constitutional convention for the revision of the organic law, to consist of fifty members chosen from the Senatorial districts. In case the Legislature does not deem it advisable to call a convention, the Governor recommends the revision of the amendments which were submitted to the people in the April election of 1880, and which were decided to have been defeated. He also recommends a further amendment to the Constitution making the tenure of all State officers four years, and making the incumbents ineligible for two consecutive terms, the elections to be held between the Presidential elections, in order to separate State from national politics. At present the terms of the Secretary of State, Auditor, and Treasurer are two years, while the Governor, the Lieutenant-Governor, and the Clerk and Reporter of the Supreme Court serve four years. Governor Porter, in his inaugural address, expressed disapproval of Governor Gray's suggestion of a constitutional convention in the following words:

I do not believe that there is a necessity for such a convention, and the people would not, in my judgment, so soon after they have emerged from the financial crisis which has crippled their means of support, patiently incur the needless but great expense incident to its assembling. The present Constitution contains an admirable provision for its own amendment without the assembling of a convention. If two successive Legislatures shall recommend a particular amendment, it shall then be submitted to the people. This avoids two extremes: the one, of not allowing the Constitution to respond by amendment, with reasonable promptness, to the deliberate will of the people; the other, of hastily placing in the Constitution improvident provisions which it would be difficult to withdraw. By the simple means provided in the Constitution itself, ample facilities are furnished for amending that instrument as such amendments may, from time to time, be deemed necessary.

The provisions of the present Constitution are, in the main, wise and satisfactory to the people; they have generally undergone interpretation by the courts, and their construction is fixed and determined. If a new Constitution shall be framed, we shall again be launched upon a sea of doubt, and be compelled to incur the expense and inconvenience which, in practice, will be found to be great, of having the meaning of its principal provisions settled by judicial construction.

At every general election for many years, sums of money, vastly greater than has ever been suspected by the people, have been expended to prevent invasions of the ballot-box by persons not authorized to vote, which need not have been expended but for the clause in our Constitution that will not allow safeguards against fraud to be established which our own experience has shown to be necessary, and the legislation of other States has provided with respect to those States.

Bad laws seldom inflict merely a single evil. Where the facilities for fraud are so considerable, the members of each party think that their opponents will perpetrate them, and the next step is too apt to be to lay schemes by which wrong may be met by kindred wrong. The

consequence of all this is that politics become embittered; that neighbors who, in their business transactions, would place implicit confidence in each other, believe that, to obtain a party advantage, they would quarter false voters, encourage repeating, and connive at a false count of the ballots, and that the young, learning and believing that fraud is perpetrated without disgrace by the most respectable persons, in that they are taught to be the most important of transactions, are not able to draw the refined distinction which would make it wrong or disgraceful to perpetrate frauds in less important ones. Thus the foundations of private virtue are sapped by tolerance given to public fraud.

The proposed amendments to the Constitution, seven in number, explained in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, were submitted to the people in the spring elections held on the first Monday in April. The number of votes cast for and against the amendments was announced by the Governor's proclamation issued April 18. A larger number of votes having been cast in their favor than against them, it was supposed that the amendments had been carried, and were a part of the Constitution. But in a case arising from a city election in May, in which the counting of the ballot of a man who had voted in accordance with the first of the amendments was contested, it was decided by the Supreme Court that the amendment had not been ratified by the people in the manner prescribed by the Constitution, and, therefore, was not a part of the organic law. The number of votes cast for the other amendments was larger than the number for the first; but the principle laid down by the Supreme Court was held to apply in the case of all of them, and was so acted upon. The Court based its decision on the tenor of the Constitutions of 1816 and 1851, and on historical evidence as to the intention of the framers of the Constitution contained in the constitutional debates. In the election of officers a plurality vote is sufficient, but in the adoption of constitutional amendments it is decided that a majority vote of the electors of the State, which the opinion, agreed in by Judges Howk, Warden, and Biddle, construes to mean a majority of the votes cast at the election, though one of them held that the majority should be ascertained from census statistics; while Judges Niblack and Scott dissented from the opinion. The conclusion of the Court on the case in point was as follows:

This Court holds that it requires at least a majority of all the votes cast at the same election to ratify a constitutional amendment. We also hold that, as the act of March 10, 1879, is defective in not providing for the count of the aggregate number of votes cast throughout the State on the day of the election, or in not providing some means to find out the whole number of votes cast, by which it might be learned what proportion the number cast in favor of the ratification bore to the whole number, there is no source from which this Court can ascertain whether the amendment received a majority of all the votes cast at the election or not. As the amendment was submitted upon the day of the general spring elections throughout the State, and as there were, by law, officers to elect at the same time in the various counties, it must be presumed that other votes than those for or against the amendment

were cast at the same time. From the peculiar ballots used in voting upon the amendment, many electors may have voted "no" and "yes" upon the question of the amendment, which votes would not be counted; such also would be counted in estimating the whole number of electors voting. It is also held that the Constitution must remain as it was before the amendment was submitted, until it shall affirmatively appear that the amendment is ratified. As it does not thus affirmatively appear, we must hold that the amendment is not ratified by a constitutional majority. The opinion, therefore, of this Court is that it requires a majority of the electors of the State to ratify an amendment to the Constitution, but that the whole number of votes cast at the election at which the amendment is submitted may be taken as the number of electors in the State.

The decision, as interpreted by the Court, did not affirm the rejection of the amendment, but a simple act of the Legislature being required for its submission to the people again for ratification. On this point the words of the opinion are as follows:

In the opinion of this Court the consequence, spoken of in argument, of this decision can at most be but a temporary inconvenience. We perceive no irregularity in the proposal of the amendment for ratification. It has simply not been ratified, and not been rejected. The vote upon it was ineffectual for want of the constitutional majority. We see no reason why the General Assembly may not resubmit the amendment to the electors of the State, under an amended act, such as experience may prove to be sufficient to present the question to the Courts if it ever should arise again.

The question of the adoption of the constitutional amendments was implicated in the politics of the State, and the decision of the Supreme Court upon it became the subject of partisan recriminations. Amendment No. 1 requires, in addition to the six months' residence in the State demanded by the Constitution as it is, a residence of sixty days in the township and of thirty days in the voting precinct as a qualification for voting. Amendments No. 2 and 1 conform the Constitution to the United States Constitutional Amendment extending the suffrage to colored citizens, and expunging the prohibition of the immigration of colored people, and are purely formal. Amendment No. 3 changes the date of the general State elections from October to November, so as to make them fall on the same day as the national elections. The other amendments, numbered 5, 6, and 9, numbers 7 and 8 having failed to pass the Legislature, relate, the first to salaries, the sixth to the reconstruction of the judicial system, and the third to the restriction of the powers of counties, cities, and towns to make debts. Governor-elect Porter, in his inaugural, spoke of the decision of the Court and the amendments in the following terms:

The amendments to the Constitution, which at the last spring election were submitted to the electors for adoption or rejection, have been held by the Supreme Court, in opposition to what, it is believed, had, previously to the decision, been the general sense of the legal profession, not to have been constitutionally adopted.

The Court, while deciding thus, took occasion to express an opinion that another submission might take place, notwithstanding the submission and vote which

have occurred, if the Legislature shall choose to provide therefor by an appropriate enactment. The Court, though not now composed entirely of the same members as when the decision was made, will, it is believed, feel constrained to accommodate itself to this suggestion, whatever view the new judges might entertain, if the question were one of first impression. I therefore earnestly recommend that a bill be speedily passed, giving the electors of the State another opportunity to pass their judgment upon these amendments.

The amendments have been the theme of frequent and careful discussion. So general is the sentiment of unbiased men in their favor, that I believe if a vote upon them could be separated from party politics, it would be nearly unanimous for their adoption.

The expediency can hardly be questioned of limiting within reasonable bounds the debts which may be contracted by cities and townships, so that taxes may not become an intolerable burden, and of fixing a limit upon the fees to be paid to officers in the populous counties, so that while they shall be adequately compensated, estates and suitors may not be burdened with needless costs, and our politics corrupted by the expenditures made in the greedy scramble to obtain office. These reforms are provided for by two of the amendments.

Another amendment is of such extreme importance that it may be regarded as almost vital to the elective franchise. When the elector places his ballot in the box, it is a hollow and preposterous ceremony if some other person, not entitled to the franchise, may neutralize his vote by a fraudulent ballot, or if some dishonest officer may substitute a false ballot for the one he has deposited, or stuff the box with fictitious ballots. Our laws do not provide—the Constitution will not allow that they shall provide—that the person who offers his ballot shall prove, even when challenged, that he has resided a single hour or minute in the county or precinct where his vote is offered. It is enough that he shall show that at the particular instant he is such a resident, and has resided in the State for six months. No registration law can be passed; the Constitution will not allow one.

The consequence of all this is, that where even the most expensive and organized vigilance is maintained, persons from other counties and other States, not entitled to vote at the precincts where they tender their ballots, often succeed in depositing fraudulent votes; and, where this vigilance is not maintained, the feeble flood-gates against fraud fly open at the first assault, and the ballot-box is deluged with fraudulent ballots.

I find upon examination that nearly all the Northern States, except Indiana, require, as a qualification to vote, a previous residence of the voter in the precinct where his vote is offered, and that hardly a less number require a registration of voters. These laws are an expression of the people of those States, founded upon experience, that such provisions are necessary to preserve the purity of the elective franchise.

The last Legislature passed an act providing for a revision and codification of the statute laws. There had been no code of the laws compiled since 1852. The Board of Revision appointed consisted of James S. Frazer, David Turpie, and John H. Stolsenburg. The revisors classified the acts contained in the fifty-one volumes of statutes according to subjects, omitting laws which are obsolete from lapse of time or disappearance of subject-matter, and giving the decisions of the courts in foot-notes. They interpolated in the text proposed amendments to the existing laws, which they also formulated into engrossed bills, to be laid before the Legislature.

The immigration of colored people into the State, chiefly from North Carolina, was made

the subject of an investigation by a committee of the United States Senate, presided over by Senator Voorhees. The extent of the immigration was variously reported at from 500 to 2,500 persons or more. They had been sadly misinformed as to the prospects of obtaining employment, and many of them suffered severe want. Messrs. New, Martindale, and other prominent Republicans, denied that the immigration had been set on foot or encouraged for the purpose of gaining a Republican majority in Indiana. General Conway, on the other hand, who has been engaged in various schemes for the improvement of the condition of the former slaves, and particularly in the exodus movement, testified that the object of gaining a political majority in Indiana had been the principal motive for diverting the stream of immigration into Indiana after the sad results of the exodus to Kansas became apparent. Lewman, Mendenhall, Mills, and others, minor Indiana politicians, also disclosed in their testimony a concerted plan for importing negro voters.

The National Greenback-Labor party assembled in convention in Indianapolis, April 28th, and nominated the following State ticket: for Governor, Richard Gregg; for Lieutenant-Governor, Thomas F. De Bruler; for Secretary of State, Jacob B. Zeagley; for Auditor, George W. Demaree; for Treasurer, John F. Ullery; for Attorney-General, John L. Miller. The following platform was adopted:

The National Greenback-Labor party of the State of Indiana, in Convention assembled, declare:

1. That the power which issues and controls the volume of a people's currency is the absolute dictator of their financial and business interests.
2. That the people are capable of managing their own financial and business interests through their National and State Governments.
3. That the delegation of that power by the Republican party to a moneyed oligarchy has precipitated upon the country the present financial and business ruin.
4. We therefore demand that the people's Government shall immediately resume the control of their currency, and issue the same directly to the people, without the aid of bank corporations, and in sufficient volume to do the business of the country on a cash basis.
5. That all currency, whether metallic or paper, should be alike full legal-tender.
6. That the producing classes of the world are now enslaved by interest-bearing debt.
7. That we are now in the midst of a revolution, having for its object the removal of this, the greatest enemy to individual liberty and national progress.
8. That the \$870,000,000 of our national debt, soon payable at the option of the Government, should be paid as soon as practicable, according to contract, in silver coin, or non-interest-bearing notes, which shall be full legal-tender currency.
9. That the whole of our bonded debt should be paid in like manner as soon as practicable.
10. That we are unalterably opposed to another dollar of bonded indebtedness, either State or national.
11. That all wealth is produced by labor, and that all class legislation against labor is infamous.
12. That every laborer has a divine right to the legitimate fruits of his own toil, and the Government should secure to him that right.
13. That the public lands should be sacredly held to furnish homes for actual cultivators.

14. That official stealing has become an unendurable burden in our political affairs.

15. That the men who take advantage of the positions of trust and honor, to which the people elevate them, to secure illegitimate gains, are unmitigated thieves, more to be abhorred than highway robbers.

16. That all such should forfeit their positions and salaries, be disfranchised, and punished as other criminals.

17. That the most rigid economy in public affairs is especially demanded by our indebted and depressed condition.

18. That the payment of the bonds in coin, originally payable in lawful money, was a gift to the bondholder, and the payment of the soldier in depreciated paper, when by contract payable in coin, was, and is, an unjust discrimination in favor of the bondholder. Therefore we demand, in justice to the soldier, that he be paid according to contract.

19. That we demand the immediate passage by Congress of a law for the equalization of soldiers' bounties.

20. That the right of suffrage is the inalienable right of every citizen of the United States.

21. We endorse and demand the passage of what is known as the "Reagan bill" on inter-State commerce, together with such other legislation as will force the transportation companies to become what the people designed them to be when they called them into existence, namely, the servants, and not the masters, of the people; aids to the development of the nation's resources, and not a power of a few men to build up an aristocracy of wealth, by crushing out all fair and honorable competition among business men.

22. That we are opposed to the importation of the Chinese servile labor.

23. That we denounce the arrest and imprisonment of American citizens for exercising the right of free speech, as one more step toward the subversion of republican institutions, and the enslavement of the people.

The Democratic State Convention met at Indianapolis on June 9th. The nominations on the State ticket were as follows: for Governor, Franklin Landers; for Lieutenant-Governor, Isaac P. Gray, who had been elected to the same office the preceding election, and had occupied the Governor's chair since the death of Governor Williams; for Secretary of State, John G. Shanklin; for Auditor, Mahlon D. Manson; for Treasurer, William Fleming; for Clerk of the Supreme Court, Gabriel Schmuck; for Reporter of the Supreme Court, A. N. Martin, the incumbent at the time; for Attorney-General, the incumbent, J. W. Woolen; for Superintendent of Public Instruction, A. C. Goodwin. On the first ballot for Governor, Landers and Gray received nearly the same number of votes, but, on the second, Landers was nominated. The platform adopted ran as follows:

1. We, the Democracy of Indiana, in Delegate Convention assembled, congratulate the Democracy of the country upon the harmony prevailing within its organization, and upon its unanimity in the purposes to cast behind it every occasion and sentiment of discord, and to stand as one man for success in 1889; and we give assurance to the Democracy of the country that, accepting the declaration of principles and purposes that may be made at Cincinnati, and the candidates who may be there chosen, we will give to them our earnest and undivided support.

2. We believe that laws should be enacted, executed, and administered only for the public good, and all class legislation, and all favoritism in the affairs of

government, should be defeated and made odious; that taxes should be levied justly, and the most rigid economy should control public expenditures; that the elections must be freed from the control of the army, and of partisan officials, in that they shall be fair and honest as they once were; and that the rightful jurisdiction of the State Courts must be restored, in all cases where it has been usurped by the Federal authority, so that justice may be administered cheaply and speedily.

3. The coin and paper money of the country should be of uniform value, and readily convertible, and should have as great purchasing power as the money of other first-class commercial countries of the world, and the paper money, like the coin, should be furnished by the United States, and should not be in excess of such quantity as will be, and remain always, at par with coin.

4. Inasmuch as the outstanding Treasury notes are no longer necessary to the Government in the use of its credit, and are useful only as money, they should be made subject to taxation, the same as other money.

As tax-payers we declare our gratification at the action of the Democratic members of Congress in reducing public expenditure, and in cutting off the allowance and payment of questionable and fraudulent claims, resulting in a saving to the Treasury of more than \$100,000,000.

5. We will stand with all our might against the aggression of the Republican leaders upon the rights of the States, made for the purpose of building up a strong central power, dangerous to the liberty of the people.

We will in all fidelity maintain the constitutional rights and powers of the United States, and as faithfully we will maintain and vindicate the rights of the States as reserved to them in the Constitution.

6. The Legislature of 1879 is entitled to honorable mention for having redeemed the pledges of the Democratic Convention of 1876 to provide by law for the comfort and safety of laborers in the mines, and for securing their wages to the persons employed by corporations, and we are in favor of such further legislation in the premises as may be necessary and proper.

We congratulate the people of the State that by the action of the Democrats of the last Legislature in basing representation on population and contiguity of territory only, the shame and taint of fraud have been removed from the apportionment of representation, and that now the people will be equally and fairly represented.

7. The people of Indiana are justly proud of their system of free schools, and will maintain them in their full force and usefulness, and to that end we must see to it that the management thereof does not become wasteful or extravagant, and that no part of the munificent fund which they have provided shall be used for sectarian or for any other purposes whatever than the support of common schools.

8. We are gratified that the Democrats in Congress have acted in respect to bounties and pensions for soldiers and their families in the spirit of justice and liberality.

9. We hold up to public detestation the conduct of the leaders in the Republican party in placing Hayes and Wheeler, by criminal practices shocking to every honest sentiment and damaging to our institutions, in offices to which they were not elected. It was an outrage upon free government, and a crime against the elective franchise that can not be forgiven, and must not be repeated, and for which the guilty parties must be driven from power and consigned to infamy. And we hold up to public detestation the conduct of the President in rewarding the guilty parties by conferring upon them high and lucrative offices. To reward crime is itself criminal.

10. During the past few years our country has been blessed in a high degree with favorable seasons, and the production of our valuable staples has been enormously in excess of our own consumption. We have sold to foreign countries many hundred millions more

than we have purchased from them; gold and silver have come to us; business confidence has been restored, and we have the hope and promise of good times again. In all this we recognize the blessing of God upon our country, and we denounce it as false and blasphemous when partisan leaders claim that this is the work of their hands, and that the people should be thankful to them and not grateful to Heaven for our returning prosperity.

11. We approve the sentiment expressed by Governor Hendricks in his letter of acceptance in 1876, that "the iniquitous cooly system, which through the agency of wealthy companies imports Chinese bondmen, establishes a species of slavery and interferes with the just reward of labor on our Pacific Coast, should be utterly abolished."

12. Our State administration is entitled to the respect and support of the people. The government of Indiana is efficiently administered, and more cheaply than that of any other State.

13. That we recognize the right of colored citizens as well as white to immigrate into Indiana, but we condemn and denounce the action of the Republican party in importing into this State pauper negroes for the sole purpose of using them as voters.

14. We hereby instruct our delegates to the National Convention at Cincinnati to present to that body the name of Thomas A. Hendricks as a candidate for President of the United States, one who has at all times faithfully maintained the cause of Democratic truth and justice acceptably to the Democracy of the whole Union, thus assuring the election of a Democratic Legislature and United States Senator in 1881, and a fresh, pure, and constitutional administration of the General Government.

15. We favor the continuance of the two-thirds rule in the National Convention, and the delegates this day chosen are hereby instructed to vote for Hon. Thomas A. Hendricks as our candidate for the Presidency, and to vote as a unit on all questions in said Convention.

One of the marshals, Claude Matthews, of the Eighth Congressional District, failed through inadvertency to comply with the law requiring him to gather and report the election returns on the fourth Monday in November. Thinking that the fourth Monday would be the last, he was a week behind the time set by law. His report was, however, embodied in the official count. A more serious difficulty resulted from the resignation of one of the Republican electors, and the substitution of another after the names had been published, and the blanks used by the county clerks in certifying the returns printed and distributed. Several of the clerks omitted to erase the name of Thomas W. Bennett, the candidate for elector for the Sixth District, who had withdrawn, and substitute the name of Benjamin S. Parker, who took his place on the ticket. Governor Gray permitted these errors to be rectified upon receiving affidavits from the clerks recertifying the certificate; but, in the case of tally-papers which contained the wrong name, the error could not be corrected.

The October election of State officers was watched with the intensest interest all over the country, because both parties shared the belief that a Republican victory would be a decisive indication of a like result in the Presidential election. The Republican candidate for Governor was elected by a plurality of 6,953, receiving 231,405 votes to 224,452 for the Dem-

ocratic and 14,881 for the Greenback candidate. The other Republican candidates were also elected. The total vote cast was 470,738. In the November election, the total vote polled was 1,856 greater, or 470,699 votes, of which the Garfield electors received 232,164, the Hancock electors 225,522, and the Weaver electors 12,986, making Garfield's plurality 6,642. In the elections for the Legislature, 10 Democratic and 15 Republican Senators, and 47 Democratic and 53 Republican Assemblymen, were elected. There is a Democratic majority of 2 in the Senate, 16 Democratic and 9 Republican Senators holding over; the Republican majority in the House being 6, and on joint ballot 4.

IOWA. The regular biennial session of the Legislature of Iowa—that of its Eighteenth General Assembly—began on the 12th of January and came to a close on the 27th of March. Two hundred and eleven acts and fourteen joint resolutions were adopted. Among the latter was one memorializing Congress to pass a law for the regulation of inter-State commerce which should prevent abuses of management, unjust discriminations, and excessive charges on the part of railways running in more than one State. An amendment of the Constitution already proposed, the effect of which is to make colored persons eligible to the Legislature, was approved, and provision made for its submission to a popular vote. A new amendment was proposed after considerable discussion, which is as follows:

SECTION 26. No person shall manufacture for sale, or sell, or keep for sale, as a beverage any intoxicating liquors whatever, including ale, wine, and beer. The General Assembly shall, by law, prescribe regulations for the enforcement of the prohibition herein contained, and shall provide suitable penalties for the violation of the provisions hereof.

Several other propositions to amend the Constitution failed to receive the necessary vote, including one conferring the right of suffrage upon women, which passed the lower house by a vote of fifty-eight to thirty-one, and was defeated in the Senate. Provision was made for submitting to a vote of the people the question of holding a convention for a general revision of the Constitution.

Among the more important acts passed was one establishing a State Board of Health, and one providing for the appointment of a Commissioner of Immigration. The Board of Health is to consist of nine members, who are to hold office seven years. The Attorney-General is to be a member *ex officio*, and one engineer and seven physicians are to be appointed by the Governor, with the approval of the Executive Council. The general supervision of public health, collection of vital statistics, and guidance of local boards are the main functions of the new organization. The Commissioner of Immigration is to be appointed by the Governor, hold office for two years, and receive a salary of \$1,200 a year in addition to expenses.

An act was also passed discontinuing the office of Register of Lands and uniting its functions with that of Secretary of State, who is allowed an additional clerk. The law in relation to capital punishment was so modified as to empower the court to pass sentence in case of a plea of guilty, but to allow the jury to name the punishment in case of conviction by their verdict. An act was passed providing for a "badge of honor" to be given by the State to every honorably discharged soldier, and every citizen of the State who served in the navy during the civil war. An act was also passed regulating the practice of pharmacy and the sale of medicines and poisons under the supervision of three Commissioners of Pharmacy to be appointed by the Governor.

The political canvass of the year opened with a convention of the Democrats at Burlington on the 7th of April, at which delegates were chosen to the National Convention of the party to be held at Cincinnati in June. Four delegates from the State at large, and two from each of the nine Congressional districts were elected, and the following report of a committee on resolutions was adopted:

The Democrats of Iowa reassert and reiterate their faith in the principles of the Democratic party as taught by the fathers of the republic; denounce the fraud and corruption of the Republican party policy; deprecate the policy tending to imperialism, evidenced by the continued usurpation of power by the few, by which monopolies are encouraged, labor and industry oppressed, and the liberties of the people threatened. The Democrats of Iowa are now, as in the past, in favor of the two-thirds rule in the National Democratic Convention in selecting candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States.

A Republican Convention for the appointment of delegates to the national gathering of the party at Chicago was held at Des Moines on the 14th of April. The resolutions adopted were as follows:

Resolved, By the Republican party of Iowa, in State Convention assembled:

1. That adhering to the principles of the Republican party, as heretofore announced by its National Conventions, we do not deem it necessary or expedient at this time to restate them in the form of a platform.

2. That we insist on the nomination of well-known Republicans, of national reputation for ability, purity, experience in public affairs, and adhesion to the principles of the Republican party, for President and Vice-President of the United States by the National Republican Convention.

3. That as Republicans of Iowa, recognizing in the Hon. James G. Blaine, of Maine, a man of tried integrity, of uncompromising loyalty and patriotism, of commanding ability, both as a leader and statesman, and as a fearless advocate of the principles which have preserved the Union and given undying luster to the party of which he is the admired representative, we take pleasure in recording the fact that he is the preference of the Republicans of Iowa for the office of President of the United States; and while we pledge ourselves to support the nominee of the Chicago Convention, we nevertheless declare it as our conviction that no other candidate will develop the enthusiasm or call out the number of votes that would be polled by the American people for James G. Blaine as the standard-bearer of the Republican party in the National contest of 1880.

4. That the delegation of this Convention to Chicago be instructed to cast the vote of Iowa as a unit, and that the delegation be further instructed to use all honorable means to secure the nomination for President of Hon. James G. Blaine.

A convention of the National Greenback-Labor party took place at Des Moines on the 19th and 20th of May, at which delegates to the National Convention were appointed, and candidates nominated for State offices, and for Presidential electors. The nominees for State offices were: G. M. Walker for Secretary of State; Matthew Farrington for Treasurer; G. V. Swevenger for Auditor; W. A. Spurrier for Attorney-General; and Thomas Hooker for Register of the Land Office. A platform was adopted, of which the following are the material declarations:

1. *Resolved*, That all currency, whether metallic or paper, necessary for the use and convenience of the people, should be issued and controlled by the Government, and not by or through the bank corporations of the country; and when so issued shall be a full legal tender for the payment of all debts, public and private.

2. *Resolved*, That so much of the interest-bearing debt of the United States as shall become redeemable in the year 1881, or prior thereto, being in amount \$782,000,000, shall not be refunded beyond the power of the Government to call in said obligations and pay them at any time, but shall be paid as rapidly as possible, and according to contract. To enable the Government to meet these obligations, the mints of the United States should be operated to their full capacity in the coining of standard silver dollars, and such other coinage as the business of the country may require.

3. *Resolved*, That as the producing classes are now enslaved by interest-bearing debt, therefore we are unalterably opposed to all bonded indebtedness.

4. *Resolved*, That the payment of the bonds in coin, originally payable in lawful money, was a gift to the bondholder, and the payment of the soldier in paper, when by contract payable in coin, was and is an unjust discrimination in favor of the bondholder; therefore we demand, in justice to the soldier, that he be paid according to contract.

5. *Resolved*, That we are opposed to the importation of Chinese semi-barbarous labor, regarding it as a paralyzing and degrading system that will, unless checked, undermine American free labor.

6. *Resolved*, That we demand the immediate passage by Congress of a law for the equalization of soldiers' bounties similar to the one vetoed by President Grant.

8. *Resolved*, That the right of suffrage, free press and speech, are the inalienable rights of every citizen of the United States.

9. *Resolved*, That we denounce the discrimination between Government clerks and Government laborers; the clerks working six hours and the laborers ten hours.

10. *Resolved*, That we are opposed to a large standing army, either National or State, in times of profound peace, eating out the substance of the people.

Resolved, That we, as the National Greenback-Labor party, know no North, no South, no East, no West.

Resolved, That all banks of issue and all monopolies must go.

The Republican Convention for making nominations was held at Des Moines on the 25th of August. The candidates agreed upon for State offices were as follows: Secretary of State, J. A. T. Hull; Treasurer, Major E. Conger;

Auditor, W. V. Lucas; Attorney-General, Smith McPherson; and Register of the Land Office, J. K. Powers. A platform was adopted which in addition to congratulations and reaffirmations contained these declarations:

5. As the ballot is the basis of citizenship and the hope of freedom, we declare that it is the sacred duty of the Republican party to not only defend and maintain the national election laws, but to provide through appropriate Congressional legislation whatever additional safeguards and protection experience may have proved to be necessary, to the end that the ballot in every State may be as sacred and safe as life and liberty.

6. The general interests of the country require that Congress shall so regulate inter-State commerce as to prevent unjust discrimination in the transportation of freight and passengers.

The Democratic nominating convention was held at Des Moines in the early part of September. The candidates selected were A. B. Keith for Secretary of State; Martin Blim for Treasurer; Charles I. Barker for Auditor; C. A. Clark for Attorney-General; and D. Dougherty for Register of the Land Office. Brief resolutions were adopted approving the platform and candidates of the National Convention, together with the following:

3. We are in favor of a judicious license law, and condemn all efforts to legislate against those natural rights which do not trespass upon those belonging to the whole community, and we applaud the action of our representatives at Des Moines in the Eighteenth General Assembly for their manly and able opposition to the attempts at sumptuary legislation made by a Republican legislature.

The choice of State officers was made on the same day with the Presidential election in November, although ordinarily the State election occurs in October.

The total vote for Presidential electors was 322,473, of which 183,927 were for the ticket of Republican candidates, 105,845 for that of the Democrats, and 32,701 for the Greenback candidate.

The vote for Secretary of State amounted to 323,128, of which Hull, the Republican candidate, received 184,166; Keith, Democrat, 105,760; Walker, Greenbacker, 32,780; Hall, Anti-Secret Society, 282; and 140 were "scattering." The Republican plurality over the Democratic vote was 79,406, while its majority over all was 45,204. The vote on the amendment of the Constitution, striking the words "free white" from the clause defining the qualifications for membership of the Legislature, was 90,237 in its favor, and 51,945 against it, so that it was ratified by a majority of 38,294. The proposition in regard to holding a convention to revise the Constitution was rejected by a majority of 14,022, the vote being 69,762 for and 85,784 against it. Republicans were elected to Congress from all the nine districts, the changes being in the sixth and seventh, where Greenbackers were chosen in 1878.

The population of Iowa by counties, as shown by the Federal census of 1880, in a return sent

by Superintendent Walker to the Secretary of State, is as follows:

Adair.....	11,199	Jefferson.....	17,473
Adams.....	11,888	Johnson.....	25,429
Allamakee.....	19,791	Jones.....	21,052
Appanoose.....	16,936	Keokuk.....	21,239
Audubon.....	7,448	Kossuth.....	6,179
Benton.....	25,888	Lee.....	84,859
Black Hawk.....	23,913	Linn.....	87,235
Boone.....	20,538	Louisa.....	13,146
Bremer.....	14,081	Lucas.....	14,580
Buchanan.....	18,547	Lyon.....	1,968
Buena Vista.....	7,537	Madison.....	17,225
Butler.....	14,298	Mahaska.....	25,201
Calhoun.....	5,595	Marion.....	25,111
Carroll.....	12,351	Marshall.....	28,752
Cass.....	16,943	Mills.....	14,185
Cedar.....	18,937	Mitchell.....	14,861
Cerro Gordo.....	11,461	Monona.....	9,035
Cherokee.....	8,240	Monroe.....	18,719
Chickasaw.....	14,534	Montgomery.....	15,593
Clarke.....	11,512	Muscataine.....	28,168
Clay.....	4,248	O'Brien.....	4,155
Clayton.....	28,529	Osceola.....	2,219
Clinton.....	36,764	Page.....	19,667
Crawford.....	12,413	Palo Alto.....	4,181
Dallas.....	18,746	Plymouth.....	8,567
Davis.....	16,468	Pocahontas.....	8,718
Decatur.....	15,336	Polk.....	41,395
Delaware.....	17,352	Pottawattamie.....	89,546
Des Moines.....	53,099	Poweshick.....	15,986
Dickinson.....	1,901	Ringgold.....	12,035
Dubuque.....	42,997	Sac.....	8,774
Emmet.....	1,550	Scott.....	42,270
Fayette.....	22,258	Shelby.....	12,696
Floyd.....	14,677	Sioux.....	5,426
Franklin.....	10,248	Story.....	16,906
Fremont.....	17,653	Tama.....	21,585
Greene.....	12,725	Taylor.....	15,635
Grundy.....	12,639	Union.....	14,980
Guthrie.....	14,863	Van Buren.....	17,042
Hamilton.....	11,252	Wapello.....	25,282
Hancock.....	8,453	Warren.....	19,573
Hardin.....	17,808	Washington.....	20,375
Harrison.....	16,649	Wayne.....	16,127
Henry.....	29,526	Webster.....	15,950
Howard.....	10,837	Winnebago.....	4,917
Humboldt.....	5,341	Winneshek.....	23,937
Ida.....	4,382	Woodbury.....	14,997
Iowa.....	19,221	Worth.....	7,953
Jackson.....	23,771	Wright.....	5,062
Jasper.....	25,962		
Total for State.....			1,624,463

Des Moines, the capital, has risen to the rank of first in population of the cities of the State, the number of its inhabitants being 22,408. The population of Dubuque is 22,254; Davenport, 21,834; Burlington, 19,450; Council Bluffs, 18,059; Keokuk, 12,117; and Cedar Rapids, 10,104.

The total value of property in the State as assessed for taxation is \$392,557,304. The total tax for the year amounted to \$10,238,017, the average rate being twenty-six mills on the dollar. The number of miles of railroad in the State on the 15th of September was 4,977, represented by \$106,719,429 of stock, and \$82,164,510 of debt. The increase in length of track for the year preceding was 581 miles. Of the entire length 1,591 miles are laid with steel rails. The total earnings for the year ending September 15th were \$24,857,545.35, of which \$6,209,386.34 was derived from passenger traffic, and \$18,628,159.01 from freight. Operating expenses for the year amounted to \$13,982,653.77. The increase of earnings over the previous year was \$3,496,835.91, while that of operating expenses was but \$1,078,232.85. The railroads paid \$591,843.08 in taxes, which was nine per cent. of the net income. Six com-

panies control more than four fifths of the railway in Iowa, as follows:

	Miles.
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy.....	756.94
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific.....	848.90
Chicago and Northwestern.....	574.26
Illinois Central.....	492.06
Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul.....	975.99
Burlington, Cedar Rapids and Northern.....	465.71

Total..... 4,026.86

According to the records of the State Auditor's office, there are in Iowa 1,745,149 cattle, valued at \$18,445,957; 691,797 horses, valued at \$20,247,884; 356,846 sheep, valued at \$423,886; and 2,466,935 swine, valued at \$4,652,601. Real estate to the value of \$4,960,224 is exempt from taxation on account of tree-planting.

The school statistics of the year show that there were 10,590 ungraded public schools and 2,209 departments in graded schools in operation an average of 7.4 months. There were 7,254 male and 14,344 female teachers, employed at average compensation per month of \$31.16 for males, and \$26.28 for females. The number of children between the ages of five and twenty-one years was 586,456, of whom 426,937 were enrolled in the public schools. The average attendance was 259,836. The average cost of instruction per month for each pupil was \$1.56. The whole number of school-houses was 11,037, valued at \$9,227,943. The receipts and expenditures balance at \$1,390,-442.79 for the school-house fund, \$1,453,970.14 for the contingent fund, and \$4,841,872.56 for the teachers' fund.

On the 30th of September there were 378 inmates in the State Penitentiary, an increase of twenty-five for the year. The average ages of the convicts was twenty-seven years, seven months, and thirteen days; average sentence, one year, ten months, and seven days.

YEARS.	Births.	Rate to population.	Deaths.	Rate to population.	Marriages.	Rate to population.
1877.....	139,448	1 in 38.3	93,509	1 in 57.1	24,792	1 in 213
1878.....	134,117	1 in 37	99,629	1 in 56.8	25,284	1 in 210
1879.....	135,403	1 in 39.6	105,432	1 in 50.9	23,313	1 in 213

The great loss of population which Ireland has suffered from emigration will be seen from the following table:

YEARS.	No. of emigrants.
1851-1872.....	2,162,506
1873.....	90,149
1874.....	73,184
1875.....	51,462
1876.....	87,587
1877.....	83,503
1878.....	41,124
1879.....	47,065

Total from 1851-1879..... 2,541,670

The Census Commissioners of 1841 divided the dwellings of the people into four classes. The fourth class comprised all mud-cabins having only one room; the third class consisted of a better description, built from mud, but varying from two to four rooms, and windows; the second were good farm-houses, or, in towns, houses having from five to nine rooms and windows; the first class included all houses of

IRELAND, AND THE IRISH QUESTION. As Ireland is an integral part of the United Kingdom, the former volumes of the "Annual Cyclopædia" have treated of the condition and current history of Ireland under the head of Great Britain. During the year 1880 the affairs of Ireland have attracted the attention of the world to an unusual degree, and the Irish question has become one of the great complications of European politics. We therefore devote this year a special article to Ireland, giving a full account of the proceedings and the progress of the Land League, and such Irish statistics as will aid in understanding the present situation of the country.

The population of Ireland, according to the last official census of 1871, was 5,402,759. In 1861 it was 5,798,624; in 1851, 6,514,473; in 1841, 8,199,853; in 1831, 7,767,401; in 1821, when the first complete census was taken, it amounted to 6,801,827. These numbers show a decrease during the period from 1841 to 1871 of more than 2,700,000, a fact without parallel in the recent history of civilized countries. Between 1841 and 1851, the decrease amounted to 19.79 per cent. of the population; from 1851 to 1861, to 11.79 per cent.; from 1861 to 1871, to 6.67 per cent. Since 1871 the decrease has continued, though at a much less rate. At the middle of the year 1880 the population was estimated at 5,327,000.

The number of large towns in Ireland is much smaller than in England and Scotland. Among the fifty-six towns of the United Kingdom which in 1871 had a population of more than 40,000 inhabitants, only three belonged to Ireland: Dublin with 246,326 inhabitants, Belfast with 174,394, and Cork with 78,642.

The number of births, deaths, and marriages in the years 1877, 1878, 1879, were as follows:

a better description. The following table shows the house-accommodation in 1841, 1851, 1861, and 1871:

	1841.	1851.	1861.	1871.
First class.....	40,050	50,164	55,416	60,919
Second class.....	264,184	318,758	360,693	387,660
Third class.....	533,297	541,712	489,668	357,126
Fourth class.....	491,278	135,589	89,374	155,675
Total.....	1,323,889	1,046,223	995,156	961,380

The total number of persons, five years old and upward, in 1841, who were unable to read and write, was 3,766,066, or 53 per cent.; for 1851 the proportion had fallen to 47 per cent.; in 1861 it was further reduced to 39 per cent.; and in 1871 to 33 per cent., showing a decrease during the period between 1841 and 1871 of 20 per cent. Those who could read only were in the same proportion in 1861 as in 1851—20 per cent., which was an increase of 1 per cent.

only since 1841; in 1871 the percentage was 17·3; those who *write* as well as read advanced from 28 per cent. in 1841 to 33 per cent. in 1851, and 41 per cent. in 1861, being an increase between 1851 and 1861 of 8 per cent., and between 1841 and 1861 of 13 per cent. In 1871 the percentage was 49, being an

increase between 1861 and 1871 of 8 per cent., and between 1841 and 1871 of as much as 21 per cent.

The number of educational establishments, primary and superior, and the number and religious profession of pupils and students, in 1861 and 1871, are shown by the following table:

	ESTABLISHMENTS.		PUPILS.	
	1861.	1871.	1861.	1871.
<i>Primary schools:</i>				
Schools under Board of National Education.....	5,663	6,834	304,162	490,608
Church education and parochial schools.....	1,450	1,141	43,842	88,159
Schools under the Christian Brothers and other Roman Catholic communities.....	131	170	25,819	36,563
Schools under other societies or boards.....	653	702	25,128	30,234
Orphanages.....	22	36	858	1,385
Private schools.....	1,504	612	43,624	18,842
Total primary schools.....	9,423	9,495	443,433	615,785
Superior schools.....	729	574	21,674	21,225
Colleges of universities and other colleges.....	13	13	1,711	2,945
Total superior schools and colleges.....	742	587	23,385	24,170
General total.....	10,170	10,082	466,818	639,955

The number of the Irish-speaking population is rapidly decreasing, as will be seen from the following table:

	1861.	1871.
Persons who spoke Irish only.....	163,275	103,562
Persons who spoke Irish and English.....	942,261	714,313
Total persons who could speak Irish.....	1,105,536	817,875
Proportion per cent. of the population who could speak Irish.....	19·1	15·1

The country is represented in the Imperial Parliament by 28 imperial peers and 103 commoners. Of the latter class, 64 represent 32 counties; 2 Dublin University; 12 the cities and towns of Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, Belfast, and Galway; and 25 the boroughs. By an act passed in 1854, occupiers of any tenements, rated in the last poor-rate at a net annual value of £12 and upward, are entitled to vote in elections for counties, also owners of certain estates of the rated net annual value of £5. By the same act, occupiers in boroughs, rated in the last poor-rate at £8 and upward, were entitled to vote, subject to certain limitations. An act passed in 1868 reduced the £8 occupation to a rating of any amount more than £4, and introduced a new franchise, giving the right of voting to any lodger who had occupied, as sole tenant, for the twelve months preceding the 20th of July in any year, the same lodgings (being part of one and the same dwelling-house) of a clear yearly value, if let unfurnished, of £10 and upward. The polling at contested elections in counties, cities, and boroughs, is now for one day only. The number of electors on the register are 170,693 for counties, and 57,290 for cities and boroughs, exclusive of 3,548 for Dublin University.

The large majority of the population belongs

to the Roman Catholic Church. The Roman Catholic population numbered, in 1871, 4,141,933, while the Episcopalians 683,295, the Presbyterians 503,461, the Methodists 41,815, the Independents 4,485, the Baptists 4,643, the Society of Friends 3,834, the Jews 258. The Roman Catholics constituted 96·2 per cent. of the population in Connaught, 93·7 per cent. in Munster, 85·4 per cent. in Leinster, but only 48·9 per cent. in Ulster. In all Ireland they were 76·7 per cent. of the population, against 77·7 per cent. in 1861. Among the 103 Representatives of Ireland in the House of Commons, 55 were Roman Catholics. Among the 185 Irish Peers, there are 12 Roman Catholics. There is no Roman Catholic among the 28 Representative Peers for Ireland.

The Poor law came into operation in 1838, but none of the workhouses were opened for the admission of paupers till 1840. Notwithstanding the constant flow of emigration, the number of paupers relieved, both in the workhouses and out of them, was larger in 1879 than in any previous year. The number of paupers relieved in 1879, continuously or successively, was as follows:

In the workhouses.....	304,826
Out of the workhouses.....	56,426
Total relieved.....	391,252

The total Poor Relief Expenditure amounted to £847,955.

In 1870, the Irish Government obtained returns of the names of proprietors, and area and valuation of all properties in the several counties of Ireland, held in "fee," in "perpetuity," or on "long leases at chief rents," classified according to area, but omitting cities and towns. The total number of agricultural holdings was ascertained to be 608,964, and the rural population 4,286,019. From these returns the following details are given:

AREAS OF PROPERTIES.	No. of proprietors.	Total area in statute acres.	Total valuation.
20,000 acres and upward.	110	4,151,142	£1,512,594
20,000 to 10,000.....	192	2,607,719	1,174,223
10,000 to 5,000.....	440	3,071,471	1,453,697
5,000 to 2,000.....	1,246	3,872,611	1,997,202
2,000 to 1,000.....	1,773	2,474,756	1,985,551
1,000 to 500.....	2,693	1,571,171	1,193,577
500 to 300.....	2,271	854,493	591,104
300 to 200.....	1,916	471,646	345,662
200 to 100.....	2,788	408,639	334,476
100 to 50.....	2,082	152,004	144,441
50 to 25.....	1,460	52,504	62,637
Under 25 acres.....	2,377	29,056	47,187
Total.....	19,288	20,047,572	£10,182,681

The total number of ejectments executed "for non-payment of rent" was in 1878, 1,749; in 1879, 2,077; and from January 1 to June 30, 1880, 1,696. The number of families evicted for non-payment of rent was in 1877, 261; in 1878, 608; in 1879, 903; and from 1st of January to 30th of June, 1880, 995. The number of agrarian outrages was in 1878, 280; in 1879, 870.

The following statement of the number of land-proprietors, who hold in fee-simple or perpetuity, or on long leases at chief rents, is founded on a return presented to the House of Commons on the 23d of April, 1872:

CLASSIFICATION OF THE PROPRIETORS.	No. of proprietors.	Area of property in statute acres.	Annual value of property for rating.
1. Resident on or near the property.....	5,589	8,880,549	£4,718,497
2. Resident usually elsewhere in Ireland, and occasionally on the property.....	377	852,818	371,123
3. Resident elsewhere in Ireland.....	4,465	4,362,446	2,128,220
4. Proprietors resident in Ireland and their properties.....	10,431	14,095,813	£7,217,840
5. Not usually resident in Ireland, but occasionally on the property.....	180	1,363,847	£601,072
6. Barely or never resident in Ireland.....	1,443	8,145,514	1,583,041
7. Proprietors not ascertained (therefore here assumed to be non-resident).....	1,350	615,303	331,743
8. Absentee proprietors and their properties.....	2,973	5,129,169	£2,470,816
9. Proprietary institutions, public or charitable, or public companies.....	161	534,327	£234,678
10. Proprietors, or properties under 100 acres, unclassified.....	5,982	236,873	257,100
General total.....	19,547	20,046,182	£10,150,484

The Irish peerage consists of one peer of the royal blood, the Earl of Armagh, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, 2 dukes (Leinster, Abercorn), 11 marquesses (Waterford, Downshire, Donegal, Drogheda, Headfort, Sligo, Ely, Londonderry, Conyngham, Ormonde, Clanricarde), 63 earls, 38 viscounts, 67 barons; total, 185 Irish peers. Besides the peer of the royal blood, there were, in 1880, 78 Irish peers who had also British titles, and, on that account, sat and voted in the House of Lords, and 105 peers who had no seat in the House of Lords; of the latter class, 28 are elected for life as representative peers for Ireland. Among the 185 Irish peers, there are only 12 Roman Catholics, namely, the Earls Westmeath, Desmond (Earl of Denbigh, in England), Fingall, Granard, and Kenmare; the Viscounts of Gormanston, Netterville, Taaffe, and Southwell; the Barons Louth, Ffrench, and Bellew.

The chronic dissatisfaction with English law which has existed in Ireland ever since its annexation to England, and which again begins to assume so large dimensions, is now more than ever concentrating itself in a national uprising against the land laws. The race question, though it may embitter the strife, is no longer the leading feature, for the opposition of the Land League is no less directed against the old Irish families which are landholders than against those which are English. Moreover, Ireland at present has not a more unmixed race than England and Scotland, and on this account an indelible hatred of one race against the other is hardly possible any longer. Of still less

moment is the religious* question. During the last forty years many of the most prominent men of the Irish agitations have been Protestants. Thus William Smith O'Brien, the leader of the "Young Ireland" movement, was a Protestant; so was Sir John Gray, who distinguished himself by his efforts in behalf of the abolition of the State Church; so was Isaac Butt, by whose untimely death the Home Rulers lost in 1878 their most gifted leader (see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878, article Butt), and so is Parnell (see PARNELL), the chosen head of the Land-League party. As the present movement is essentially of an agrarian character, a brief review of the land laws* prevailing in Ireland will help us to understand the importance of the whole question.

There is strong reason for believing that, very early in the history of Ireland, land was held as common property, and the commons even at the present time are remnants of that communal tenure. At the time of the Norman invasion land was held under three forms of tenure: commonage land, mensal land or land connected with the land of chief magistracy, and land held by the nobility. Part of this land held by the nobles was held as demesne land, and the remainder was given over to the tenants. The demesne land was cultivated by villeins of three classes, none of which possessed any political rights. First came the

* The relation of the race and religious differences to the present Irish question is fully treated of by Dr. Sener, "Die irische Frage," in the "Augsburg Gazette," 1881, No. 29-33.

† The following outline of the history of Irish land laws is condensed from H. C. Adams, "The Irish Land Question," in the "New Englander," January, 1881.

Bothachs or Cottiers, who held a right of settlement, probably as all that remained to them of their share of communal property; a second class, the Sincleithe, the descendants of mercenaries or prisoners who "had acquired a right of settlement," possibly through the analogy of their condition to that of the Cottiers; a third class, the Fuidirs, foreigners, who might gain a right of settlement by forfeiting their rights as freemen. Service under two successive lords, however, regained for them their forfeited right. The tenants upon the remainder of the landed estates were of two kinds, called Saer Ceili and Daer Ceili—that is, free-tenant and base-tenant. The relation of the former to the noble was analogous to that of knights' service in feudal laws, and of the latter to common socage. These tenants, as well as the laborers upon the demesne land, held rights in their tenements which the common law protected against the encroachments of the nobility. Thus this right of security in tenure has for Ireland the sacredness of antiquity. Though modified by the successive conquests and settlements, the idea of property in his holding has never been entirely uprooted from the mind of the peasant. Yet previous to 1870 this idea had a practical influence only in the province of Ulster; in the three other provinces it had given way to the successive encroachments of landlords. As the legislative or statutory power was in the hands of landlords or landlord sympathizers, these encroachments had been legalized in various ways. Three acts of Parliament may be cited which took away rights from the Irish peasant which he believed himself to possess by the authority of the common law. The first provided that, should a tenant resort to legal procedure to prove unfounded the claim of a landlord, and lose his case, he should be fined twice the costs. By another act, Parliament refused to recognize the right given to the tenant by the common law, according to which a standing or growing crop was considered part of the soil, and the landlord, although holding a judgment against his tenant, could not seize it. Parliament empowered the landlord to send his helper to take possession of the field and bear away the crop when ripe. As another innovation, Parliament granted to the landlord "power of evicting his tenant for non-payment of rent, and of recovering possession of the land in cases in which he was not entitled to this remedy by the forms of his contract or by the rules of common law." Thus the Irish landlords obtained remedies unknown to those of England or Scotland. The third of the above enactments produced the greatest grievance. This, as interpreted and practiced, came to mean the right on the part of the landlord to evict a tenant at will. It was not until the time of George I that anything like eviction, even for non-payment of rent, was recognized, and to the tenant, who was now for the first time deprived of all property right in his holding, it was really con-

fiscation. A different system of land-tenure was adopted by the northern province of Ireland, which is commonly known as the Ulster Right or Ulster Custom. So far as the tenant is concerned it secured to him three rights: 1. Security of tenure as long as the rent was paid and no injurious mode of farming followed. 2. The right to sell his holding at will, together with improvements put upon the farm, to any person approved by the landlord. 3. Rent could not be determined by competition but by valuation. Under this system of tenure Ulster has become by far the most prosperous of the four provinces of Ireland. In the three other provinces "competitive rents" have been paid for generations. By that term is meant that farms were advertised and let out at the rent offered by the highest bidder. This custom placed the culture of the land in the hands of shiftless and dishonest peasants, and forced those who would be thrifty to become as shiftless as their neighbors. For a few years previous to the Gladstone Land Act of 1870, the land-tenure question had been brought prominently into notice, as well by the great economic changes that were taking place as by agitation of agricultural grievances. In 1870, of the entire extent of the island, one half was given to pasture-land, nearly one fourth was bog or waste land, and a little more than one quarter under cultivation. According to Cliffe Leslie, between 1861 and 1869, 1,398,000 acres of land have gone out of cultivation, the crop-land being converted into pasture, but there had been no increase of pastoral products corresponding to the increase of pasture-land. For while in 1859 the number of horses had been 629,075, of cattle 3,815,598, and of pigs 1,265,751, there were in 1869 only 527,248 horses, 3,727,097 cattle, and 1,079,793 pigs. In about three fourths of the island, says Mr. Leslie, we find "hardly a town or village whose trade and population have not decreased in the last twenty years"; indeed, "but few which are not in a state of complete decay, in spite of the auxiliaries to town industry, mechanical, chemical, and intellectual, which those twenty years have created." This system of tenure Mr. Gladstone, in 1870, tried to reform by his Land Act. It contained two principles: 1. The recognition of the Ulster Custom as embracing the sanctity of law in Ulster, and as desirable for the whole island. 2. The recognition of the superiority of peasant proprietorship over any form of tenantry whatever, and the right of the Government to aid peasants to become holders in fee-simple. The act did not carefully define the Ulster Custom legalized by Parliament, "but the framing of an accurate definition appeared so difficult," as Mr. Gladstone afterward declared, "that it was considered best to confide that duty to the courts of law." A decision in the case of *Graham vs. Earl of Erne*, declared that custom to embody the following points: 1. "The right or custom in general of yearly tenants, or those deriving through them, to

continue in undisturbed possession so long as they act properly and pay their rents." This gave the yearly tenant a perpetual lease for good behavior, and rendered him independent of the landlord. 2. "The correlative right of the landlord periodically to raise the rent, so as to give a just, fair, and full participation in the increased value of the land, but not so as to extinguish the tenants' interest by imposing a rack-rent." As far as the sections of the Gladstone Land Act referred to Ulster, they gave to the landlords and tenants of that province entire satisfaction. Three sections of the Land Act affected particularly the provinces other than Ulster. By the third section, any tenant who is "disturbed" in his holding, may receive compensation upon quitting it; in other words, a pecuniary fine is placed on eviction. By "disturbance" any eviction caused by no fault of the tenant is understood. The non-payment of rent, as cause of eviction, would not be included under this head; eviction for the purpose of putting cultivated land into pasture-land would be judged a disturbance. By the fourth section, the tenant is secured compensation for improvements which he or his predecessors in title may have made. Previously the landlord had, at the close of any tenancy, considered himself entitled to all improvements made on the land except recognized fixtures. This is one of the most important sections of the Land Act of 1870. By the seventh section it was declared that, if a tenant had paid money on account of coming into his holding, on quitting it, he should receive some compensation for such payment. The tenant right created by these three sections for the peasants of southern Ireland, though not exactly the Ulster right, is something like it, but the hope of the Gladstone Government that it would place the three provinces on a level with Ulster in regard to prosperity were not fulfilled. It became apparent to the landlords that an estate in the hands of a few large farmers was more manageable, and in every way more desirable, than an estate divided among a large number of peasant tenants; and it was also discovered that, on account of the new kind of property which could be created under the act, the process of change was not altogether unprofitable to them. Accordingly, evictions have not ceased since 1870, and farmers have found it necessary to form clubs to "protect tenants' rights under the act, and to have the act amended."

The second great principle embodied in the Gladstone Land Act of 1870 is a recognition of the superiority of peasant proprietorship over any form of tenure whatever, and the right of the Government to assist peasants to become proprietors in full of their holdings. The act permitted the Government, through a Board of Works, to advance two thirds of the purchase money in any case where the landlord was willing to sell. If the supporters of this claim expected any rapid change in the tenure of

land, they were doomed to disappointment. The landlord, not being forced to sell, would only part with his estate for pecuniary considerations, and it has ever been found to be more advantageous to him to sell his estate as a whole to an incoming landlord than to sell in small farms to the tenants.

Previous to the reaccession of the Liberal party to power, in 1880, Sir Stafford Northcote, a member of the Disraeli Government, introduced a bill, which afterward became a law, proposing that the Government be empowered to loan money to Irish landlords at the rate of one per cent. for the improvement of their estates. On the Liberal side Mr. Bright proposed that the Government buy all estates offered for sale, and resell in small farms on thirty-six years' time, and further, that the Government buy by forced sales, for this purpose, all lands held by corporations. Irish dissatisfaction with English law greatly increased in 1877 and 1878, when the harvests were bad, and still more in 1879, when the harvest was a total failure. In October, 1879, Mr. Parnell organized the National Irish Land League, of which he was chosen president. The League declared its objects to be—a reduction of rents, and refusal to pay if such a reduction were refused; and, finally, an entire change in the land laws, peasant proprietors to be substituted for the landlord. (See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.)

The violent agitation, of which Ireland had been the scene in 1879, continued unabated throughout the year 1880. Severe distress prevailed in Ireland during a part of January, 1880, and the attempts of the agents of landlords to collect rent were frequently attended by disorders. The Roman Catholic Bishop of Elphin said, in a letter to the Dublin Mansion House Relief Fund, that the failure of the crops and the loss and depreciation of live stock had pressed with exceptional severity in Sligo and Roscommon. In the towns the tenants were unable to pay rents, landlords were straitened and embarrassed, and the distress was universal, while in the cottier and small tenant class thousands of families were suffering from hunger. The conviction was general that relief should come from the treasury. Mr. Davitt reported to a meeting of the National Land League that, in Connemara, all expressed the belief that private charity would not be able to cope with the distress between March and June, and that Government aid alone would prevent starvation.

The Government determined, in order to help to relieve the distress, to extend the facilities for loans that had lately been offered under the Board of Public Works by taking £250,000 from the Church Surplus Fund, to be advanced so far as might be required, with the expectation of obtaining from Parliament an act of indemnity for the step. It was proposed that each of the loans should be paid back at the end of thirty-five years, making the annual charge for repayment of principal and interest

only four per cent. Subscriptions opened by the Duchess of Marlborough, at the Dublin Mansion House and in London, were liberally responded to, and the funds derived from these sources, with the measures of relief offered by the Government, were sufficient greatly to mitigate the distress before the close of January. Mr. Parnell having asserted that the administration of the Mansion House Fund was influenced by a political bias, several archbishops and bishops came forward to give the statement an emphatic denial and condemnation. The Duchess of Marlborough's fund amounted in March, including the subscriptions forwarded from London, to £80,000, while the Mansion House Fund had, at the same time, received £100,000. The sum of £100,000, which had been collected through the agency of the "New York Herald," was also contributed from the United States and placed in the hands of Archbishop McCabe for distribution. The United States frigate *Constitution* reached the country on the 2d of April, bringing supplies of provisions which had been contributed by citizens of the United States. A sum was also raised for the relief of the distress through the agency of the Land League. Less extensive measures of relief continued to be necessary through all the growing season till the harvest afforded new supplies of food.

Political issues were not clearly defined during the canvass for the Parliamentary elections, and the question of Home Rule did not enter as prominently into the discussions as it was anticipated it would do. The Home Rule League issued an address March 17th, which, after asserting that the movement had been attended with considerable success in drawing the attention of England to the claims of the Irish people, reviewed the letter which Lord Beaconsfield had addressed to the Duke of Marlborough. It described the words of the Premier on the Irish question as a "cry" which was an unscrupulous and audacious fabrication, designed to snatch a further lease of place and power by exciting English passions against Ireland. The insult upon Ireland implied in the matter and tone of his statements, it said, must be signally avenged; and the authors of the address counseled Irishmen to let every Tory candidate feel the utmost force of their hostility, to strain every nerve to inflict defeat on the followers of Lord Beaconsfield, and thus to punish the worst enemy they ever had. The Land League issued a manifesto, calling upon the electors to withhold their votes from all landlords; for to vote for them would be to vote for rack-rents, evictions, workhouses, and extermination. Mr. Parnell arrived at Cork from America March 21st. A dinner was given to him in the evening, when Mr. Biggar said in a speech: "They had seen what Hartmann had done in Russia, and if the constitutional course they were pursuing in Parliament at present failed in its object, he thought Ireland might be able to produce another Hartmann,

and probably with better results." In several instances Mr. Parnell set up candidates of his own selection in opposition to those who were already in the field, and thereby excited the hostility of members of his own party, which was manifested by a violent outcry and attack upon him at a meeting in Rexford before which he was about to speak. A conference of forty-four Home Rule members-elect was held at Dublin, May 16th, when Mr. Parnell was elected sessional leader of the party over Mr. Shaw, and a resolution was passed favoring the introduction into Parliament of a bill forbidding ejectments from holdings in Ireland valued at twenty pounds sterling or under, until a satisfactory solution of the land question had been arrived at. Mr. Shaw insisted that the appointment of Mr. Parnell as head of the party must be accepted on his side upon the understanding that it did not involve a sanction of the principles which he had advocated in America and throughout Ireland during the last few months. The excitement on account of agrarian outrages rose to a great height after the murder of Lord Mountnorres, who was shot dead on the 25th of September near his home at Ebor Hall, Clonbur, County Galway, as he was returning from a meeting of magistrates. He had not been connected with any proceedings for eviction, nor was he about to evict any tenant. He had, however, been engaged in a dispute with one of his tenants with regard to the character of his holding, and had till a short time previously had the protection of an escort of police.

Much interest was excited in November by the case of Captain Boycott, agent of the Earl of Erne, under whom he also rented a farm at Lough Mask, County Mayo. The Earl had, unsolicited, made reductions in his rents within the last two years, which brought them below Griffith's valuation, and had, in addition, provided his tenants with seed and artificial manure to the extent of one fifth of the rental. The tenants now demanded a further reduction of twenty-five per cent. in their rents, and, their request being refused, declined to pay anything. Ejectment processes were taken out, but the process-server was badly beaten, and it was found possible only to serve three of the papers. Captain Boycott was afterward subjected to a continuous persecution. Laborers declined to work for him, and his crops were left ungathered. Shopkeepers would not sell him goods, the people refused to speak to him, car-owners did not dare to convey goods for him, and his estate had to be protected by military patrols, notwithstanding which outrages were of frequent occurrence upon it. A movement was organized among the opponents of the Land League in the North to relieve Captain Boycott, by gathering his crops for him. A party of fifty Orangemen went down, protected by detachments of soldiers stationed at different points along the road, and accomplished their object of taking care of the crops and setting the farm in order, successfully and

without disturbance. This incident gave origin to the new verb "to boycott," which became extensively current in the newspapers to denote that kind of persecution which is carried on through a conspiracy to deprive the object of it of the privileges of intercourse and trade with his fellow men.

The Royal Commission of Inquiry into the working of the Irish Land Act held its first sitting at Dublin on the 1st of September. Its purpose was to seek information through the *viva voce* examination of witnesses, and by procuring replies from competent persons, to whom carefully prepared written questions were addressed, as to whether rents had increased since the Land Act of 1870 went into operation; whether the compensations given under that act had been fair and sufficient; whether the effect of the act had been to lead to the making of improvements by the landlord or by the tenant; and whether the tenants had sought to borrow upon or mortgage the conditional property in their farms obtained under the act. Inquiries were also made concerning the workings of the Ulster Custom, and its adaptability to different parts of Ireland; and with respect to the possibility of reclaiming waste lands, and the best means of furthering the creation of small owners in fee, and, at the same time, preventing alienation or subdividing. The leaders of the Land League regarded the work of the Commission unfavorably, and resolved not to recognize it. Their action was not, however, acquiesced in by all their followers.

Mr. Parnell, addressing a meeting at Ennis, September 19th, said that he believed that the Commission was appointed in order to find out for the English Government what was the least measure of reform that had a chance of being accepted in Ireland, and to divert the minds of tenant-farmers from agitating and organizing. He could not see what useful effect evidence before the Committee could have, for its report, if it made a report, must be of a one-sided character, and against the interests of the people of the country. The character of the Land bill, to be secured at the next session of Parliament, would depend largely on the attitude the tenantry should maintain. The speaker exhorted his hearers to band themselves together into Land Leagues; and, having suggested the question what should be done with a tenant who should bid for a farm from which another had been evicted, he said that a more Christian and charitable way than to shoot him would be to shun him in every way, both in public and private, "by putting him into a moral Coventry, by isolating him from the rest of the country, as if he were the leper of old." No settlement of the land question, he said, could be satisfactory or permanent which did not insure the uprooting of the landlord system.

At the meeting of the League, of December 12th, Mr. Michael Davitt spoke in reference to

the charges which had been brought against the organization of causing law-breaking and disorder, which he repelled. As to the real facts, he said, four hundred and fifty demonstrations had been held in Ireland since the commencement of the movement, representing, on the supposition that each meeting was attended by an average of five thousand persons, an aggregate assemblage of more than two million people. If the passions of that number of people had been directly and systematically inflamed during the last two years, there would have been a far heavier calendar of crime and outrage than even the enemies of the League could bring against it. Yet, notwithstanding the famine and the serious crisis through which the country had just passed, it was found that during the last two years only five homicides and a small number of attacks upon individuals had occurred. A document was adopted setting forth the objects of the League, and the duties of branches. It urged that no compromise be made with "landlordism," and that the proposals known as the "three F's" (fixed tenure, fair rents, and free sales) should be rejected, and deprecated acts of violence, threatening letters, and the mutilation of cattle.

The State prosecution of Mr. Parnell, and thirteen of his leading associates in the Land League, commenced in the Queen's Bench Division, Dublin, on December 28th. Lord Chief Justice May, at the opening of the proceedings, intimated that he had resolved not to preside at the trial. He stated that his remarks on the occasion of the application for a postponement of the trial had been misconstrued, and that observations which he had made hypothetically, were erroneously supposed to express his deliberate opinions on the charges against the defendants. His connection with the trial would be caviled at by those who were unable or unwilling to comprehend any explanation. He therefore left it to Mr. Justice Fitzgerald and Mr. Justice Barry to conduct the trial at bar. The jury, as ultimately chosen to try the case, consisted of eight Catholics, three Protestants, and one Quaker. On January 5, 1881, Mr. Parnell, and the other members of Parliament included in the indictments, left Dublin for London to attend the opening of Parliament. The trial terminated on January 25th. The jury, after six and a half hours' deliberation, were unable to agree upon a verdict, and they were discharged. One of the jurymen stated that ten were of one way of thinking, and two of another.

Additional troops were sent to the country in December; and circulars were issued by the Government to the constabulary, directing them to take immediate steps against persons taking or being put in possession of premises from which they had been evicted, informing them that they would be held responsible for outrages committed against persons lawfully occupying such premises, and warn-

ing them to be on their guard against outrages by night-patrols.

ITALY,* a kingdom of Southern Europe. King in 1878, Humbert I, born March 14, 1844. He succeeded his father, Victor Emanuel II, January 9, 1878, and married, April 22, 1868, Margaretha, daughter of Prince Ferdinand of Savoy, Duke of Genoa. Heir apparent, Victor Emanuel, Prince of Naples, born November 11, 1869.

The area of Italy is 296,322·91 square kilometres, or 114,415 square miles. The following table gives the area of the larger territorial divisions (*compartimenti*), with the population at the close of 1878, according to an official calculation:

TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS.	Square kilometres, †	Inhabitants at the close of 1878.
Piedmont.....	29,286·20	3,077,200
Liguria.....	5,324·20	856,855
Lombardy.....	23,328·51	3,658,941
Venetia.....	23,463·73	2,512,022
Emilia.....	20,515·09	2,198,415
Umbria.....	9,683·46	573,405
The Marches.....	9,708·70	948,284
Tuscany.....	24,052·99	2,219,422
Rome.....	11,917·13	549,125
The Abruzzi and Molise.....	17,290·11	1,383,056
Campania.....	17,978·00	2,579,717
Apulia.....	22,115·07	1,522,782
Basilicata.....	10,675·97	582,927
Calabria.....	17,257·13	1,261,310
Sicily.....	29,241·27	2,798,672
Sardinia.....	24,342·05	667,427
Total.....	296,322·91	23,209,620

Of the total population, 8,777,131 lived in towns, and 19,432,489 in the country.

According to the census of 1871, Italy had 26,628,679 Roman Catholics, 58,651 Protestants, 35,356 Israelites, and 48,468 others (not belonging to any of these three denominations).

The number of emigrants in 1878 was 96,268; in 1879, 119,831. Of the latter, the largest number, 39,713, went to France, 18,617 to Austro-Hungary, 10,401 to Switzerland, 12,989 to Brazil, Venezuela, Mexico, and Central America, 3,208 to the United States and Canada, and the remainder to other countries. Considering that emigration has assumed extraordinary proportions, the Government early in 1880 issued a special circular to the prefects, recommending stronger measures against emigration than they have hitherto had recourse to.

The number of Italians living in foreign countries was estimated in 1871 at about 477,000, of whom 118,496 lived in France, 26,889 in Austro-Hungary, 17,980 in Switzerland, 50,031 in other states of Europe, 44,360 in the Levant and Northern Africa, 147,547 in South and Central America (Argentine Republic about 88,000, Uruguay 32,000), 70,000 in the United States, about 1,100 in Asia and Australia.

The following cities had, according to the latest information, more than 90,000 inhabitants in 1880:

CITIES.	Year.	Population.
Naples.....	1878.....	450,504
Rome.....	1880.....	303,358
Milan.....	1878.....	262,283
Palermo.....	1878.....	231,536
Turin.....	1879.....	231,636
Florence.....	1878.....	168,423
Genoa.....	1878.....	168,294
Venice.....	1878.....	125,276
Messina.....	1878.....	120,917
Bologna.....	1878.....	111,969
Leghorn.....	1878.....	97,908
Catania.....	1878.....	90,886

The Italian Ministry consisted, at the close of 1880, of the following members: B. Cairoli, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs; A. Depretis, Minister of the Interior; E. de Sanctis, Minister of Public Instruction; A. Magliani, Minister of Finance and of the Treasury; Major-General B. Milan, Minister of War; F. Acton, Minister of the Navy; T. Villa, Minister of Grace, Justice, and Worship; A. Baccarini, Minister of Public Works; L. Micelli, Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. The only new member of the Ministry is General Milan, who succeeded General Bonelli as Minister of War in July. General Milan is a Neapolitan, and commenced his career in the army of the Two Sicilies. On its fusion with the Italian army after 1860, being then a colonel, he distinguished himself greatly in the suppression of brigandage in Calabria. After his promotion to the rank of major-general, he became second in command of the Staff Corps. He has hitherto taken no part in political or parliamentary life.

The official statistics of Italian education for the academical year 1878-'9 show that there were 278 institutions for secondary education in the peninsula. Of these, 105 were lyceums and 173 gymnasiums. Of the lyceums, 83 belonging to the state had 5,775 scholars, while there were 775 in 22 private lyceums; 109 state gymnasiums had 11,603 pupils, and 64 private gymnasiums had 5,251 pupils. The entire number of pupils receiving secondary instruction was, therefore, 23,404. There were also in Italy 164 technical schools and 63 technical institutes, having altogether 21,403 pupils.

The actual receipts and disbursements of the kingdom from 1875 to 1878 were as follows (in lire—1 lira=19·3 cents):

YEAR.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Deficit (D.), or Surplus (S.).
1875.....	1,387,353,292	1,415,447,752	D. 28,094,460
1876.....	1,429,423,758	1,436,887,413	D. 7,413,655
1877.....	1,491,778,495	1,480,750,305	S. 11,028,190
1878.....	1,443,085,277	1,480,822,500	S. 12,212,777

In the budget for 1880, the revenue and the expenditures were estimated as follows:

	REVENUE.	Lire.
Ordinary.....	1,278,457,162	
Extraordinary.....	185,584,385	
Total.....	1,413,991,547	

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, for latest statistics on movement of population, commercial value of imports and exports.

† One square kilometre = 0·386 square mile.

EXPENDITURES.

DEPARTMENTS.	Ordinary.		Extraordinary.	
	Lire.		Lire.	
Ministry of the Treasury.....	752,218,564		17,581,966	
“ of Finance.....	117,008,555		954,400	
“ of Justice and Worship.....	27,599,146		166,200	
“ of Foreign Affairs.....	6,122,261		128,000	
“ of Public Instruction.....	26,865,557		1,061,625	
“ of the Interior.....	53,109,694		1,906,316	
“ of Public Works.....	58,186,086		84,696,250	
“ of War.....	181,744,975		9,330,000	
“ of the Navy.....	49,147,303		2,740,406	
“ of Agriculture.....	7,887,070		549,885	
	1,273,839,241		119,109,998	
Total expenditures.....	1,392,949,239			
Total revenue.....	1,423,991,547			
Expected surplus.....	21,042,308			

According to the Provisional Budget for 1881, there would be a diminution of fourteen millions of lire in income on account of the abolition of the grist-tax, and, on the other hand, an increase from various sources of thirty-five millions. This would give a surplus of twenty-one millions, but it was expected that this would be reduced to seven by increased expenditure.

The public debt of Italy, which stood at 2,439,000,000 of lire (= \$471,000,000) in 1860, the year before the establishment of the kingdom, had, in consequence of the ever-recurring deficits of recent years, increased to 9,750,000,000 (= \$1,872,000,000) at the end of 1878. The following table shows the steady and rapid increase of the public debt (value in lire):

YEAR.	Amount of capital.	Amount at interest.
1860.....	2,437,000,000	116,000,000
1865.....	5,454,000,000	270,000,000
1870.....	8,287,000,000	357,000,000
1872.....	8,470,000,000	382,000,000
1874.....	8,542,000,000	383,000,000
1876.....	8,197,000,000	419,000,000
1878.....	9,750,000,000	495,000,000
1880.....		495,000,000

The strength of the Italian army on September 30, 1878, was as follows:

Infantry of the line.....	271,873
Military districts.....	251,155
Companies of the Alps.....	13,583
Bersaglieri.....	41,738
Cavalry.....	32,066
Artillery.....	63,989
Engineers.....	13,513
Gendarmes (carabinieri).....	18,313
Military schools.....	8,955
Sanitary companies.....	4,203
Veterans.....	977
Stud depots.....	217
Disciplinary companies.....	1,800
Penal institutions.....	2,112
Officers in service.....	11,597
Other officers.....	2,284

1. Standing army.....	737,565
2. Provincial militia.....	240,064
3. Officers of reserve.....	2,736
4. Territorial militia.....	564,900

Total..... 1,544,665

The navy was composed as follows in 1879:

VESSELS.	Number.	Guns.	Tons.	Horse-power.
<i>Men-of-war:</i>				
Ironclads.....	20	242	105,460	13,890
Screw-steamers.....	18	143	24,280	4,610
Paddle-steamers.....	6	41	7,960	2,050
Total men-of-war.....	44	426	137,700	20,550
<i>Transports:</i>				
Screw-steamers.....	20	40	17,703	2,914
Paddle-steamers.....	9	12	2,244	725
Total transports.....	29	52	19,947	3,639
Total navy.....	73	478	157,647	24,189

The navy was manned, in 1879, by 11,200 sailors and 660 engineers and workingmen, with 1,271 officers, the chief of them one admiral, one vice-admiral, 10 rear-admirals, and 83 captains.

A new ironclad, the Italia, which is the biggest ironclad afloat, was launched on September 29th. Her dimensions are 122 metres in length, 23 metres in breadth, and nearly 10 in depth. In December, the Chamber agreed to the construction of two men-of-war of 10,000 tons displacement, at a cost of 15,000,000 lire.

The movement of shipping in 1878 is exhibited by the following table:

VOYAGES.	TOTAL.		LADEN.		STEAMERS.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
ENTERED.						
1. Long voyage:						
Italian.....	10,088	1,595,230	8,469	1,435,794	1,223	774,064
Foreign.....	5,400	2,365,052	4,704	2,133,247	2,604	1,842,965
Total long voyage.....	15,528	3,960,282	13,173	3,569,041	3,827	2,617,029
2. Short voyage:						
Italian.....	75,499	6,575,019	58,473	6,892,754	12,231	4,646,908
Foreign.....	3,315	2,094,291	2,704	1,590,632	2,638	1,950,140
Total short voyage.....	78,814	8,672,310	61,177		14,869	6,597,048
Total.....	94,342	12,632,592	74,350	12,352,427	18,696	9,214,077
CLEARED.						
1. Long voyage.....	15,910	4,192,542	11,389	3,269,059	4,092	2,790,315
2. Short voyage.....	78,902	8,427,968	61,749	7,616,775	14,610	6,421,185
Total.....	94,812	12,620,510	73,588	10,885,834	18,702	9,211,500

The movement of special foreign trade from 1874 to 1879 was as follows:

YEARS.	OFFICIAL VALUE.		COMMERCIAL VALUE.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
1874.....	1,251,700,000	1,088,400,000	1,305,000,000	955,500,000
1875.....	1,280,000,000	1,158,300,000	1,215,400,000	1,084,000,000
1876.....	1,364,300,000	1,228,000,000	1,327,200,000	1,216,800,000
1877.....	1,280,700,000	1,044,900,000	1,156,300,000	967,400,000
1878.....	1,070,300,000	1,045,800,000
1879.....	1,262,000,000	101,000,000

The aggregate length of railroads in operation was on December 31, 1878, 8,159 kilometres; of railroads in the course of construction, 566; of railroads projected, 480. The Mount Vesuvius Railroad was formally opened in June, 1880.

The number of postal stations at the close of 1878 was 3,200; of letters and postal cards, 152,145,110; the revenue, 26,117,374 lire; the expenditure, 22,980,766 lire.

The aggregate length of telegraph lines at the close of 1879 was 25,533 kilometres; of wires, 84,101 kilometres, exclusive of 175 kilometres of submarine cable. The number of offices was 1,462, exclusive of those belonging to railroads and other companies. The total of dispatches was 5,905,900 in 1878, and 5,502,581 in 1879. The receipts and expenditures were as follows, in 1878 and 1879:

YEAR.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1878.....	9,664,431	6,964,100
1879.....	10,593,797	7,164,000

The condition of the finances of the kingdom, and particularly the abolition of the grist-tax,* continued to engross the attention of the Parliament until its dissolution in May. On January 19th, Signor Saracco presented in the Senate the following motion on behalf of the Central Committee: "Awaiting the time when effectual measures shall have been taken which will permit of the gradual abolition of the grist-tax, without imperiling the finances of the country, the Senate suspends all discussion on the subject and passes to the order of the day." The debate concluded on January 31st, when a resolution, recommending the postponement of the discussion of the bill until the tax can be abolished without prejudice to the finances, was adopted by 125 against 83 votes. The Ministry considered this as equivalent to the rejection of the measure. On February 2d, the "Official Gazette" published the royal decree closing the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, and fixing the reopening of the session for the 17th of February. On that day the Parliament was opened by the King in person. In the speech from the throne the King announced that two bills would be presented, one for the gradual abolition of the grist-tax, and the other for extending the suffrage. Referring to the friendly relations of the Government with foreign powers, he said that the preservation of peace was warmly desired by Italy, and was a matter of great moment to her. It was but

natural, therefore, that she should scrupulously observe the Treaty of Berlin. It was also easy for her to fulfill the promise she had made, that when once her unity had been secured, she would become an element of concord and progress. His Majesty, in conclusion, expressed a hope that the present session would not be less active, but would be more fruitful in results, than the last. On the day before, February 16th, the "Official Gazette" published a list of twenty-six newly appointed senators. Signor Farini was reelected President by 213 votes in a House numbering 280. The Vice-Presidents, the two Questors, and six of the eight Secretaries were also reelected by large majorities. On the 20th the Chamber voted the budget of the Ministry of Justice for 1880. The Chamber, on February 21st, passed the naval estimates without amendment. During the discussion Signor Brin said that the Duilio was absolutely superior to any other ironclad as regards the power of her machinery and armament. Only the British ironclad Alexandra possessed a slight superiority over her in speed. Admiral Acton, the Minister of Marine, confirmed Signor Brin's statement. The Chamber passed a resolution expressing satisfaction at the results of the Duilio's trial and the thanks of the House to the persons connected with her. The discussion of the foreign affairs estimates led on March 11th to a debate on the foreign policy of the Government which lasted until March 20th. Signor Visconti Venosta fiercely attacked the Government on March 12th. Italy, he said, was isolated in the councils of Europe. She was not sufficiently conservative to reassure Turkey, nor sufficiently liberal to satisfy Greece. Signor Visconti Venosta also asked what the intentions of the Government were with respect to the "Italia Irredenta" movement, and said he was grieved to see that the relations with Austria, formerly so satisfactory, were now less friendly. He added: "We have lost the confidence of Europe, and it is necessary to regain it by means of a policy having for its object the promotion of the general interest, and not the furtherance of small and party views." Signor Visconti Venosta concluded by saying he would still hope that Italy might be able to regain her old position, but he deplored the ground which he feared had been lost to her for ever. On March 15th, Signor Crispi, in a long speech, attacked the policy of the Government on account of its want of energy. He added that the "Italia Irredenta" movement was a legacy of the badly arranged peace concluded in 1866, that it had no

* See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, article ITALY.

real importance, and that to try and put it down by force would be an error of statesmanship. Signor Crispi blamed Signor Depretis for having thwarted the legitimate desires of Greece for the annexation of Albanian territory, and concluded by saying that what Italy required was a firm and powerful Government. Such a one alone would possess influence abroad. The Prime Minister, Signor Cairoli, made a speech in the Chamber, in which he declared that peace was a necessity for Italy, and that the Government was firmly resolved to respect its international obligations. The vote, which closed the debate on March 20th, gave to the Government a large majority. From among the eight orders of the day before the Chamber, Signor Cairoli elected to stand or fall on that presented by Signor Mancini, which read: "The Chamber takes note of the Ministerial declarations, and, confident that Italy in her foreign relations will represent among the nations a policy of peace, of respect for treaties, and of progress in international civilization, passes to the order of the day." This motion was adopted by 220 to 93 votes.

On April 29th the Ministry were defeated in the Chamber, by 176 to 153, on a vote of confidence in connection with the provisional exercise of the budget. Signor Cairoli at once went to the Quirinal to have an audience of the King, who returned to Rome from Turin in the afternoon. A Cabinet Council was subsequently held, and, after a prolonged sitting, Ministers decided upon placing their resignations in the hands of the King. King Humbert sent for Signori Cairoli and Depretis, and, declining to receive the resignation of the Ministers, accepted instead their proposal to dissolve the Chamber and appeal to the country. New elections took place in May, which gave to the Ministry a majority of about 24 over the combined Right and the Dissidents of the Left. The Right numbered about 150, and the Dissidents of the Left 90 supporters. The new Parliament, which is the fourteenth Italian Parliament, and the first elected since the accession of King Humbert to the throne, was opened by the King on May 26th. The speech from the throne, which treated almost exclusively of internal questions, recommended the abolition of the grist-tax, and a reform of the electoral law, and announced the presentation of several bills. Respecting foreign affairs, the speech said: "The initiative taken by a friendly power, and approved by other powers, including Italy, justifies the hope that the remaining difficulties attending the execution of the Berlin Treaty will be removed. It is also to be hoped that it will be possible to prevent the outbreak of war in the territory bordering on Montenegro. The Italian Government will lend its assistance to the endeavors which are being made for bringing about a solution of the Greek question, in accordance with the engagements existing between Italy and other powers, and with the traditions of Italian policy." The proceedings

of the Parliament were generally not of great interest. On July 10th the Chamber for a third time voted for a gradual abolition of the grist-tax. The first article, abolishing one fourth of the tax from the 1st of September next, was voted by 262 against 108, and the second, to the effect that the tax should entirely cease on the 1st of January, 1884, by 244 against 116. This time the Senate also yielded to the wish of the Government, and on July 19th the King signed the decree by which the abolition of the tax became law. On receiving intelligence of the vote of the Senate, the King, who had the abolition of that impost especially at heart, congratulated the Prime Minister on having held fast to his programme and successfully carried it in the face of no ordinary difficulties.

The foreign relations of Italy also became frequently the subject of animated debates. The opponents of the Ministry eagerly seized every opportunity for charging the Government with following a foreign policy ever uncertain, hesitating, and risky. It was especially the Tunisian question which gave rise to many bitter attacks upon the Government. "When Italy became a nation," said Signor Salvini, in the sitting of November 12th, "she looked around upon her seas and beheld England and France holding such positions on the Mediterranean as rendered them almost masters of that sea. Carthage should be allowed to rise again, but not to the injury of Rome." When he saw the French flag covering Tunis, which was not a suburb of Algeria, he could not keep silence. Signor Damiani said the Government, afraid of war with France and of being abandoned by the other powers, had shrunk back. The Ministers had no faith in the strength of the Italian people. The advantages obtained by France must not be allowed to destroy Italy's rights nor her means of asserting them. France, by the annexation of Tunis to Algeria, would tend toward creating a French Africa; but Italy would have the means of frustrating France's designs of conquest. These means were the strength of Italy's rights and the importance which she maintained in those regions—an importance which others vainly pretended not to recognize. This importance was derived from tradition, from commerce, from the close vicinity of the two coasts, from Italy's colony there, and from that just influence which was the result of the good policy observed in the past by Italians toward less civilized States. He referred with satisfaction to the treaty of 1868, due to General Menabrea, who had been the first to recognize the importance of Italy's interests in those regions. In the mean time France sought to find her advantage in the augmentation of the Tunisian debts, which would enable the creditors, for the most part Frenchmen, to impose their will when Tunis was no longer in a position to fulfill her engagements.

Besides the Tunisian question, the relations to Austria gave considerable trouble to Italian statesmen. The party of the "Italia Irreden-

ta," which clamors for the annexation of large portions of Austrian territory to Italy, for the sole reason that the Italian language prevails in those districts, is growing in power. The Republicans are a unit in the support of this principle. Garibaldi frequently takes occasion to express his sympathy with it. All the other parties more or less favor it. Minghetti, the leader of the Right, expressed the opinion that, if nothing was said about the plans of the party, they would soon be forgotten; but on many sides this was construed as a mere pretext for escaping interpellations on the subject. The leading statesmen of the Left, as Depretis, Crispi, and Cairoli, were obviously, and in some cases avowedly, unwilling to oppose in any way the progress of the annexationist party. Accordingly, the Austrian statesmen who had regarded the annexation of Venetia to Italy as final, became alarmed, and attempted in their turn to scare the Italian statesmen by circulating reports that Austria, if unable to secure the total suppression of the "Italia Irredenta" party by the Italian Government, might regard it necessary for strengthening its southern frontier to reclaim Venetia. In November, Signor Calvaletto urged the Government to push forward vigorously the works for the defense of Venice and the arrangements for fortifying the western frontier, considering it the duty of Italy to be prepared for all eventualities.

After the attacks upon the foreign policy of the Government had continued for several more days, a vote was taken, on November 30th, on the order of the day proposed by Signor Mancini, ex-Minister of Grace and Justice, to the effect that "the Chamber, having heard the declarations of the Ministry, and being desirous of deciding upon the important reforms demanded by the necessities and the wishes of the country, passes to the order of the day," and gave a majority of 33 in favor of the Government, 221 voting for the motion, 188 against it, and five deputies abstaining. The Ministry, in accepting Signor Mancini's motion, stated that they understood it as signifying an explicit vote of confidence. The members of the legitimate Opposition present were 120, that being almost their full number; the remaining 68 of the adverse votes were given by Dissidents of the Left, led by Signori Crispi and Nicotera. Among those who abstained or voted against

the Ministers were many who declared that they would have voted in favor of Signor Cairoli's foreign policy, but they objected to the direction given to internal affairs.

On June 17th, Signor Crispi addressed a letter to the President of the Chamber of Deputies, resigning his seat in the House. Signor Nicotera moved that Signor Crispi should be asked to withdraw his resignation; and several deputies, including the Minister, Signor Cairoli, spoke in favor of the motion, and dwelt upon the services rendered by the honorable member to the country. Signor Nicotera's motion was unanimously approved.

On November 15th, the resignations of Garibaldi and his son Menotti were formally announced. The House refused to accept them, and granted the two deputies three months' leave of absence. Menotti Garibaldi, however, informed the President of the Chamber, in his own and in his father's name, that they persisted in the resignation of their seats. General Garibaldi alleged as reason for his resignation that Italy is misgoverned, and he advocated the clamor for universal suffrage.

The first Congress of Italian shipowners was opened on October 31st, at Camogli, a town near Genoa. All the maritime provinces were largely represented. Many of the delegates made speeches describing the decadence of the Italian merchant navy, which they contrasted with that of other nations, especially that of France. They urged that the present state of things ought no longer to be endured, and contended that the matter should be brought before the Government without delay, in order that some remedy might be found.

The Republican party in Italy is very active. General Garibaldi, in 1880, expressed himself on several occasions very strongly in favor of republican principles. In reply to an address from a large deputation of French residents of Genoa, he said that Italian democracy was united body and soul to republican France. In November he unveiled the Mentana monument in the presence of an immense crowd and amid the utmost enthusiasm. He appeared very feeble, having a worn and weary look, and was propped up with cushions in his carriage. His address was read by his son-in-law, General Canzio. M. Rochefort made a speech which was much applauded.

J

JACKSON, Dr. CHARLES T., scientist, was born at Plymouth, Massachusetts, June 21, 1805. Abraham Jackson, one of the early colonists of Plymouth, who married the daughter of Nathaniel Morton, Secretary of Plymouth Colony, and its well-known historian, was his ancestor. On the maternal side, Dr. Jackson was descended from the eminent Puritan divine, John Cotton. He was prepared to enter Har-

vard College, when the failure of his health induced him to join a party of naturalists on a pedestrian tour through New York and New Jersey. This accidental association, probably, gave a scientific bent to his mind. He took his degree of M. D. at Harvard, in 1829. He aided in a geological and mineralogical survey of Nova Scotia, and prepared the map and record in 1827-29. In 1829 he went to Europe,

when he made geological journeys through the Alpine and Apennine regions and in Sicily. Being in Vienna during the cholera epidemic, he dissected over two hundred bodies, and made minute reports of his observations, which were published in the "Boston Medical Magazine" of 1832. While pursuing his studies in Paris, his attention was roused by the recent discoveries in electricity and magnetism. He procured the best attainable apparatus, and was absorbed in experiments to utilize this power for telegraphy, when he took passage for New York on the packet-ship *Sully*, in October, 1832. On the voyage his frequent theme was the possibility of an electric telegraph, and he detailed the means by which it could be constructed. Among his fellow-passengers was Samuel F. B. Morse, a portrait-painter from New York, who was afterward President of the American Academy of Design. Dr. Jackson maintained, and supported his allegation by the testimony of other passengers of the *Sully*, that Mr. Morse had no previous acquaintance with the subject of electricity, and that the model constructed by Morse in 1835, and afterward patented by him, was in reality invented by Dr. Jackson. In the mean time he had settled in Boston as a practicing physician, though his attention was chiefly bestowed on the sciences of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology. In 1834 he did construct and work a telegraph, but it was applied to no practical use, nor was this possible until after the discovery of Daniell's sustaining battery in 1837. Mr. Morse asserts only that his machine was perfected in 1840. In 1844 the electric telegraph between Baltimore and Washington, the first in the United States, was put in operation. But in 1833 Sir William Cooke and Sir Charles Wheatstone had successfully constructed a telegraph line between Paddington and West Drayton, in England. The debate as to the date of their inventions between Dr. Jackson and Mr. Morse was unnecessary, as the merit of priority clearly rests with their English rivals. What Mr. Morse can claim with justice is an improvement in the method of telegraphing, while Dr. Jackson seems to have been the author of the theory. Dr. Jackson organized the geological survey of New York, on a plan which was authorized by the Legislature of that State in 1844. He made two expeditions to Lake Superior, and was the first to announce the mineral wealth of that region. In 1847 he was appointed to survey the mineral lands of the United States in Upper Michigan. In 1850 he published a valuable report. Dr. Jackson began his experiments in anæsthetics as early as 1834. In 1837 he succeeded in reducing himself to unconsciousness, followed by no injurious consequences, by inhaling pure sulphuric ether mixed with atmospheric air. He gave no special publicity to his discoveries, and, some years later, two physicians who had studied with him laid claim to the discovery of anæsthesia—Dr. Mor-

ton through the use of ether, and Dr. Wells by means of nitrous-oxide gas. The first practical use of anæsthesia produced by ether was in 1846, when it was successfully administered to a patient from whose jaw a vascular tumor was removed. This operation was performed in the Massachusetts General Hospital at the instance of Dr. J. C. Warren. Dr. Jackson and Dr. Morton both assisted. The beneficent agency of anæsthetics was at once acknowledged from end to end of the land. Dr. Jackson did not desire to withhold their use from the faculty. Dr. Morton patented his process. Dr. Wells, after several failures, not finding himself a prophet in his own country, sailed for Europe, where he convinced the Medical Society of France that he had made a notable discovery. Dr. Jackson appealed to the French Academy of Sciences. After a patient hearing of the rival scientists, that body decreed that two Monthyon prizes, of the value of twenty-five hundred francs, should be awarded, one to Dr. Jackson for the general discovery of etherization, and the other to Dr. Morton for the practical application of it to surgery. In this way they fully recognized the value of the agent thus newly discovered and applied. Another claimant has appeared, Dr. Crawford W. Long, of Athens, Georgia. Congress has been appealed to to decide the point, and do honor to the benefactor of suffering humanity. In New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, a petition was numerously signed by the medical fraternity, urging a recognition of Dr. Jackson. This brought out a counter-petition, showing that his opponents had divided the opinions of the profession. Dr. Jackson was the recipient of various foreign orders. He published, in 1863, a "Manual of Etherization, with a History of its Discovery." These controversies embittered him, and irritated his mind, or it may be that "great wits to madness sure are near allied." Dr. Jackson became insane. In 1873 it was necessary to commit him to the asylum, where he lingered until his death, August 29th, at Somerville, Massachusetts.

JAPAN, an empire in Eastern Asia. The sovereign bears the title of "Tenno" or "Mikado." The reigning Mikado, Muts-Hitu, was born at Tokio, September 22, 1852, and succeeded his father, Komei-Tenno, in 1867. He was married on December 28, 1868, to Princess Haruko, born April 17, 1850, daughter of Prince Idchidgo. There is no regular law of succession, and, in case of the death or abdication of the Mikado, the crown does not generally devolve upon his son, but upon either the eldest or most distinguished member of the Shi Shinnô, the four imperial families of Japan. These families are the Katsuma, Arisugawa, Fushimi, and Kani. The power of the Mikado is unlimited in temporal as well as spiritual affairs. He acts through an executive ministry divided into nine departments, viz., of the Imperial House, Foreign Affairs, War, Navy,

Finances, Interior, Public Instruction, and Ecclesiastical Affairs. At the side of the Ministry stands the "Sain" or Senate, composed of thirty members, and the "Shoin" or Council of State, of an unlimited number of members, both nominated by the Mikado, and consulted by him at his pleasure.

The area, according to an official publication in 1877, is 146,613 square miles, or 379,711 square kilometres. The population on January 1, 1876, was 34,338,404, of whom 17,419,785 were males and 16,918,619 females. The following is a complete list of all the cities having, according to the latest dates, more than 50,000 inhabitants:

CITIES.	Years.	Population.
Tokio Proper.....	1879	511,510
Tokio with suburbs.....	1873	1,064,331
Osaka.....	1877	234,105
Kioto.....	1877	229,810
Kagoshima.....	1877	(about) 200,000
Nagoya.....	1877	135,715
Hakodate.....	1874	112,494
Kanasawa.....	1877	103,263
Hiroshima.....	1877	75,760
Yokohama.....	1879	67,499
Yakayama.....	1877	62,197
Tokushima.....	1877	57,003
Sendai.....	1877	52,074

The actual receipts and disbursements of the government from 1875 to 1879 were as follows (value in yens; 1 yen equal 99·3 cents):

YEAR.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1875-76.....	68,482,677	69,203,242
1876-77.....	62,995,643	62,993,347
1877-78.....	51,256,439	51,256,439
1878-79.....	52,575,926	53,275,926

The revenue and expenditures* in the budget for 1879-80 were estimated at 55,651,379 yens each. The public debt amounted in 1879 to 363,327,974 yens.

Professor Max Müller, in a letter addressed to the London "Times," states that, from what he has been able to ascertain, 100,000 or 200,000 only of the total population of Japan are claimed as professed Shintoists or nothing; the rest are Buddhists or nothing. In 1879 two young Buddhist priests of the Shin-Shu sect were sent to Oxford to learn Sanskrit; not only the ordinary language, but that peculiar dialect in which the sacred books of the Northern Buddhists are written, and of which we have as yet neither grammar nor dictionary.

Christianity continues to make steady progress. The Russian missionaries report a membership of more than 6,000 in the congregations. (See GREEK CHURCH.)

Education in Japan continues to make steady and rapid progress. The latest statistics show that in 1877 the number of elementary schools in all of the seven grand school districts was 25,459, of which 24,281 were public and 1,178 were private schools. The number of teachers was 59,525. The number of scholars was 2,-

162,962. Of middle schools there are 389, with 910 instructors. In addition to these educational establishments there is the university at Tokio, with four departments of law, science, literature, and medicine; and an English language school is annexed to the preparatory department. The total number of students admitted in this department was 1,040. There are besides two normal colleges for training teachers, with 25 instructors and 177 pupils, and 28 foreign language schools, in which French, German, Russian, and Chinese are taught. The total amount of the expenditure on the public schools is given at \$5,364,870.

The Japanese army in 1878 was composed as follows:

ARMS.	Peace footing.	War footing.
Infantry (46 battalions).....	29,568	43,008
Cavalry (3 squadrons).....	890	450
Artillery (10 divisions or 20 batteries).....	2,420	2,960
Engineers and train (17 companies).....	1,670	2,060
Coast artillery (9 companies).....	720	900
Officers.....	2,009	2,343
Total.....	36,777	51,721

The navy in 1879 comprised 10 steam-vessels, of an aggregate of 2,930 horse-power, and with 49 guns. Three of the vessels are ironclads. The fleet is manned by 3,500 men, inclusive of 200 officers.

The foreign commerce in the years 1868 to 1879 was as follows (in yens):

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.	EXCESS OF	
			Imports.	Exports.
1879...	32,631,000	28,364,000	4,267,000
1878...	33,384,892	26,259,419	7,014,973
1877...	25,900,541	22,866,708	3,033,833
1876...	23,969,004	27,378,851	3,609,847
1875...	28,174,194	17,917,845	10,256,349
1868...	14,076,988	18,491,430	4,414,492

The movement of shipping in the ports open to foreign commerce was as follows in 1879:

NATIONALITY.	Vessels.	Tons.
British.....	408	464,346
American.....	153	199,488
German.....	69	37,034
French.....	29	44,286
Japanese.....	256	351,144
Others.....	27	13,184
Total.....	992	1,101,592

The aggregate length of railroads in operation is 121 kilometres. Eight lines of telegraph have an aggregate length of 2,934 kilometres. There are telegraph stations in 112 towns. The number of dispatches in 1877 was 410,150.

The postal administration of Japan has been rapidly improving since the country, on June 1, 1877, joined the World's Postal Union. According to the annual report of the Postmaster-General, the total number of postal stations on June 30, 1879, was 3,927. The number of letters sent was 29,000,000. The number of

* The details of this budget, and of the public debt, are given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

postal cards was 13,500,000; of newspapers, 11,300,000; of samples and books, 560,812. The aggregate value of the money orders was 3,704,384 yens. The revenue amounted to 949,357 yens, the expenditures to 826,379 yens.

The question between China and Japan respecting their rights in the Loochoo Islands had entered upon a more pacific phase at the end of 1879, and it was agreed between the two countries to appoint commissioners to discuss the points in dispute. As the negotiations proceeded, the prospect of a peaceful solution was increased through the interposition of the friendly offices of the German Government.

A change of ministry took place in April. Of the new ministers, three were known abroad. Matsukata-Massayoshi, Minister of the Interior, was Commissioner-General for Japan at the Exposition of Paris in 1878. Sano Tronétami, another minister, was commissioner-General at the Exhibition in Vienna of 1873, has been Minister Plenipotentiary at Rome and Vienna, and was one of the first members of the Japanese senate. Admiral Yenonoto, Minister of Marine, is considered a very able man, but has never been in favor, and was barely prevented by the Colonial Minister, General Kouroda, from committing the "happy dispatch" several years ago. Each ministerial department is composed of the titular minister, the Kio, an officer of the second rank, the Tayou, and an officer of the third rank, the Shoyou, the officers of the two latter grades corresponding nearly with the European under-secretaries of state. The out-going ministers were appointed Sanghis, or privy counselors, to the Mikado; and the Supreme Council to which they belong, consisting of thirteen members, is, in the absence of any representative body, more powerful than the Ministry, as it has the right of veto on all measures proposed by the latter.

The development of industrial enterprises, which has been actively prosecuted for several years, continues to be marked. A native paper, the "Mainichi Shinbun," recently mentioned many enterprises of various kinds, such as factories of matches, cotton, tea, and sugar, and ship-building yards, as in actual operation, and added that the most striking feature of this development was the extension of the silk trade. In twenty-seven different prefectures, 702 filatures were organized, employing more than 11,000 workpeople, while nearly all the looms were engaged; the great majority of the undertakings had been begun within the last four years. A new cotton factory has been established at Hinieji, the building of which, and the putting in of the machinery (German), were undertaken by Japanese workmen without foreign help. A cloth factory has been set up at Tokio, the manager of which is a Japanese gentleman, who has undergone a thorough technical training in Saxony. An association of twenty-one silk-growing villages in the prov-

ince of Joshiu, dissatisfied with the present arrangement of selling their "cards" to Italian agents, has determined to start a branch establishment in Italy, and perform its own exporting and commercial transactions direct. A method has been invented for using dog's hair in making coverlets and similar articles, and a considerable trade has been already carried on both in the raw material and in the manufactured goods. Agricultural enterprises have also excited a considerable degree of attention. Among them is a company for horse and cattle breeding at Shizoku, which has found much favor with investors.

The Japanese settlement of Fusan, which was founded on the southern point of the peninsula of Corea in 1877, has become a town of two thousand inhabitants. A consul resides there for the protection of Japanese interests; and a consular residence, a school, and a hospital have been built. The formation of a chamber of commerce has followed the rapid increase of trade. Numerous restaurants furnish food prepared in the Japanese and European styles. Building is actively going on. The goods imported into the place are for the most part from Europe and America, and are only to a small extent the produce of Japan, ninety per cent. of the imports of 1879 having been from Europe. Another settlement has been founded at Gensan, on the west coast of Corea, 447 miles from Fusan. This place is situated on a vast plain, and in a very favorable position, and has a large and handsome harbor, which is said to be greatly superior to that of Fusan. The Japanese settlement, which has an area of about eighty-three acres, is already partly occupied, and the building of a consulate is nearly completed. The principal productions of the neighborhood are gold, silver, leather, bones of horses and bulls, grain, fish, and seaweed. The subject of forcing Corea to grant a more liberal treaty has been much discussed in the Japanese journals; and a combination of the European, American, and Japanese fleets in a naval demonstration for this purpose has been suggested. The Chinese Government has been exerting an influence to the same purpose by sending a letter to the King urging him to open immediately some ports to foreigners as a precautionary measure against the constant menace of an invasion by Russia. The Russian Government took some steps during the summer, with its fleet, in the direction of an effort to open negotiations for a commercial treaty, and invited the assistance of the American fleet, which was then stationed in Chinese waters.

JETER, J. B., was born in Bedford County, Virginia, and died in Richmond, February 23, 1880, at the age of seventy-eight years. He was, perhaps, more widely known than any other minister of the Baptist Church throughout the United States. For five years he traveled over Virginia, preaching as an evangelist; was pastor of several churches in different

parts of the State, including the First Baptist Church of Richmond; and was pastor of the Second Baptist Church of St. Louis, Missouri, from 1849 to 1852, when he was recalled to Richmond to take charge of the Grace Street Baptist Church, which position he resigned to become senior editor of the "Religious Herald." He held positions of prominence in connection with various institutions of learning, including the Southern Baptist Seminary at Louisville, Kentucky. He was present at the organization of the Baptist General Association of Virginia, in 1823; and several times a delegate to the Baptist Triennial Convention, embracing all the Baptists in the United States. After the division of the denomination he presided over the Southern Baptist Convention at several sessions. At the instance of the Foreign Mission Board of the Southern Baptist Convention, Dr. Jeter visited Italy to supervise the mission work of the Board in that land, and especially to provide a chapel for missionaries in Rome. As a writer he possessed rare excellence, and was the author of various memoirs and religious works.

JOHNSON, Ex-Governor HERSCHEL V., was born in Burke County, Georgia, September, 1812. He graduated from the University of Georgia, at Athens, in 1832, studied law and began to practice in Augusta, Georgia, but removed to Milledgeville, then the capital of the State, in 1844, and soon attained a leading position at the bar. In 1848 he was appointed by the Governor to fill the vacancy in the United States Senate caused by the resigna-

tion of Walter S. Colquitt. He served as Senator until March, 1849. From 1849 to 1853 he was Judge of the Superior Court of Georgia. In 1853 he was elected Governor. In 1860 he was nominated for the Vice-Presidency on the ticket with Stephen A. Douglas, which represented the principle of non-intervention, which was understood to mean that Congress should not interfere with the question of slavery or no slavery in a territory, but that it should be left to the inhabitants to determine, when they assembled to form a State. He was a member of the Union party, and opposed the secession of Georgia to the last; but when the fact was accomplished, he cast his lot with his State, and represented her as Senator in the Confederate Congress. In 1864 he inaugurated the "peace movement" on the basis of State sovereignty. In 1865 his disabilities were removed, at the request of the widow of Stephen A. Douglas. Governor Johnson's property was completely destroyed during Sherman's march to the sea. He visited Alexander Stephens during his imprisonment in Fort Warren. In September, 1865, he held a conference with Andrew Johnson in regard to reconstruction. He presided over the Constitutional Convention held in October of that year. He received thirty-eight votes for United States Senator in the election held in January, 1866. He resumed the practice of the law. In 1873 he became circuit judge, which position he held until his death, which occurred at his home in Jefferson County, Georgia, on August 16th.

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KANSAS. The State Treasury statement, including the receipts and investments for the school-fund, and all financial transactions for the two years ending June 30, 1880, is as follows:

RECEIPTS.	Amount.
Direct taxes.....	\$1,574,568 24
Sales of school land, principal.....	355,279 92
Sales of school land, interest.....	241,751 49
School-fund securities, principal.....	147,988 81
School-fund securities, interest.....	289,929 19
Five per cent. on sales of Government land.....	4,155 80
On judgment in favor of the State.....	8,364 39
Penitentiary earnings.....	115,890 77
Insane asylums.....	8,27 55
Institutions for the blind.....	79 08
Sinking-fund securities, interest.....	17,417 65
Sales of university land, principal.....	14,202 70
Sales of university land and invested fund, interest.....	2,576 80
Sales of normal-school land, principal.....	16,528 80
Sales of normal-school land and invested fund, interest.....	12,161 29
Lyon County and city of Emporia, for normal school.....	20,800 00
Agricultural College, to refund taxes.....	80 95
Sales of railroad lands.....	8,023 42
Insurance department.....	80,977 84
Sales of Supreme Court Reports.....	9,765 75
Miscellaneous items.....	289 50
Total.....	\$2,817,964 65

DISBURSEMENTS.	Amount.
For public buildings, legislative, executive, judicial, and miscellaneous expenses.....	\$1,815,192 29
Permanent school fund, invested.....	445,624 05
Annual school fund, disbursed.....	670,650 08
University permanent fund, invested.....	8,211 40
University interest fund, disbursed.....	2,658 80
Normal-school permanent fund, invested.....	16,775 83
Normal-school interest fund, disbursed.....	10,970 43
Normal-school permanent fund, disbursed.....	1,000 00
Sinking fund, invested.....	49,924 27
Interest on State debt.....	163,416 00
Railroad fund, disbursed.....	500 00
Agricultural College tax refunded.....	254 87
Counterfeit money destroyed.....	670 00
Total.....	\$2,655,247 07

There was a balance in the Treasury on the 30th of June of \$444,697, of which \$100,405 belonged to the general revenue fund, \$78,119 to the interest fund, \$21,538 to the sinking fund, \$98,828 to the permanent school fund, and \$116,100 to the annual school fund. For the six months ending December 31st, the receipts of the Treasury were \$662,039, and the disbursements \$746,706; leaving a balance in the Treasury of \$360,030.

The total bonded debt of the State at the close of the year was \$1,181,975, of which

amount \$607,925 was held by the permanent school fund, \$192,075 by the sinking fund, \$9,800 by the State University, and \$1,600 by the State Normal School, leaving \$370,575 held by private individuals and corporations.

The State debt is all bonded, and bears interest at the rates of 6 and 7 per cent. No additions are being made to the debt, which remains at about the same amount as in 1878. These bonds are to be paid, according to present arrangements, as they mature. Since 1870 the debt has been reduced \$160,100.

The municipal debts amount in the aggregate to \$13,998,504, against \$13,473,197 in 1878; an increase of \$425,407. Of the total amount, county bonds and warrants make \$7,679,894, township bonds and warrants \$2,260,055, city bonds and warrants \$2,016,797, and school district bonds and warrants \$2,041,858.

The total amount of taxes required to pay State, county, and municipal expenses is stated by Auditor Bonebrake to be \$5,699,409 per annum—about \$5.72½ per head of the population, or 1½ per cent. of the estimated property in the State. These taxes are divided as follows:

For State purposes.....	\$887,636
For county purposes.....	2,061,073
For city purposes.....	365,600
For township purposes.....	564,829
For school purposes.....	1,822,216
Total for all purposes.....	\$5,699,409

While the assessed value of the taxable property of the State was reported by the Auditor, July 1, 1880, as \$160,570,761, or per capita of the population \$161.11, the true value is reckoned at about double this amount, or \$321,141,513, being \$322.23 per capita, taking the population to be 996,616. The area of taxable land is 22,386,435 acres; the number of acres of taxable land under cultivation, 6,697,861; leaving 15,688,574 acres not under cultivation; this makes the amount of cultivated land per capita, 6.72 acres; of uncultivated, 15.74 acres. The amount of State debt per capita of the population is \$1.18. The municipal debts vary in the different counties from 82 cents in Hodgeman, \$1.08 in Nemaha, and \$1.51 in Stafford, to \$28.79 in Doniphan, \$29.39 in Atchison, \$39.35 in Leavenworth, and \$50.55 in Douglas Counties, the average burden being \$14.04 per capita throughout the State. The State and municipal debts together form 4½ per cent. of the estimated actual value of all the property in the State. The counties assessed for the greatest amounts of property are Shawnee, \$6,497,997; Leavenworth, \$6,375,878; Atchison, \$4,986,853; Lyon, \$4,326,855; Miami, \$4,162,945; and Douglas, \$4,138,290.

The population of Kansas, as reported in the enumerators' returns, was on March 1, 1878, 708,497; the returns of 1880 make the population 996,616, an increase of over 40 per cent. The unofficial report of the decennial census gives the total population as 995,335,

divided as follows: male, 536,077; female, 459,258; native, 885,707; foreign, 199,628; white, 951,546; colored, 43,789, including 693 Indians, 104 half-breeds, 19 Chinese, and 3 Siamese.

The assessed value of taxable property has increased from about \$92,000,000 in 1870 and from \$138,968,810 in 1878 to \$160,570,761 in 1880, the increase in the last two years being over 15½ per cent. The assessed value of railroads makes about one eighth of the total valuation. There were on March 1, 1878, 2,302.07 miles of railroad operated in the State, and on the same date in 1880 there were 3,104.21 miles, an increase in the mileage of 35 per cent. The assessed value of this species of property increased in the two years 33 per cent.

The insurance report of Superintendent Welch for 1879 states the amount of fire-risks written as \$34,022,868; the premiums paid, \$509,324—about \$1.50 on \$100 of risk, or nearly double the average rate for the United States; the losses paid, \$158,211, or 31.06 per cent. of the premium receipts. The premium rate charged was less than the average for the preceding eight years; the losses are only one-half the general average, and two thirds of the average for the country in 1878. The receipts of the department for the calendar year 1879 were \$15,354; expenses, \$6,349; receipts for 1880, \$19,000; expenses, \$6,522.

The number of convicts in the Penitentiary on July 1, 1878, was 500. There were 310 received and 1 recaptured in 1878-'79, 296 received and 1 recaptured in 1879-'80, and 141 received in the six months closing December 31, 1880. During the entire period 400 have been discharged on expiration of sentence, 62 by pardon, 25 by commutation of sentence, 8 by the United States authorities, 11 on order for new trials, 10 transferred to Insane Asylum, 17 lost by death, and 3 escaped, leaving in confinement 713—652 under sentence of State courts, and 61 sentenced by United States courts. Of this number 597 were white and 109 colored males, and 3 white and 4 colored females. Of the 1,249 received since June 30, 1878, 374 were boys between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one. The establishment of a separate institution for young criminals is recommended by the Governor. The current expenses, including ordinary repairs, were \$83,125 in 1879, and \$99,100 in 1880. The earnings for the two years amounted to \$116,916. The estimated expenses for 1881-'82 are \$150,802, and for 1882-'83 \$143,342. A coal-shaft has been sunk by the convicts 695 feet, and has nearly reached the bed. For this work \$25,000 was appropriated by the Legislature, and \$62,500 more is required during the next two years, which it is believed will be more than repaid within that time by the product of the mine.

The Insane Asylum at Ossawatimie contained 230 inmates on July 1, 1878; received 163, and discharged 71 restored, 37 improved, 27

unimproved, 1 not insane, transferred 4, lost by death 29, by elopement 3; leaving in July, 1880, 221 in the asylum. One of the buildings was destroyed by fire March 8th. The Insane Asylum at Topeka was opened June 1, 1879. During the year 197 have been admitted, 39 discharged recovered, 15 improved, 10 unimproved, 12 lost by death; leaving, June 30, 1880, 121 in the asylum. Many insane are excluded from the State asylums for want of room, and additional accommodations are asked for. An institute for the education of the feeble-minded, such as have proved successful in other States, is called for by the Governor. There are, according to the census, 134 persons of defective intellect in the State, of whom 66 are under the age of twenty-one years. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, established in 1865, had 109 pupils in 1879-'80.

The number of school districts in Kansas in 1880 was 6,134, being an increase during the year of 512. The number of schoolhouses built was 388; their estimated cost, \$359,269. The whole number of schoolhouses erected in the last four years was 1,402, at the cost of \$1,048,974, showing a greater activity in extending the system of public education than at any previous period. The total number of schoolhouses in the State is 5,242. The total value of school property, exclusive of school lands, is estimated to be \$4,633,044. The total school population, comprising all between the ages of five and twenty-one, is reported as 340,647. The number of pupils on the school rolls was 231,434. The average daily attendance is stated as 137,667. The large percentage of children not attending school at all, and the proportion not regularly attending, are the subject of comment in the biennial report of the retiring Superintendent Lemmon. The average daily attendance is only 40 per cent. of the school population. The increase in the number of inhabitants of school age within the biennial period was 64,032. The number of teachers employed was 7,780—3,506 males, and 4,274 female teachers. The school revenue for the two years ending June 30, 1880, including balance on hand June 30, 1878, of \$261,467.72, and \$248,837.04 at the close of June 30, 1879, amounted to \$4,039,069.75, while the expenses during the same period aggregated \$3,403,181.20; \$445,624 have been invested for the school fund in bonded securities within the two years. The permanent school fund invested in interest-bearing securities at the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, amounted to \$1,683,229.59, to which may be added \$98,828.35 cash in the treasury, making in all \$1,782,057.94; in addition to which lands have been sold for future payments to the amount of about \$1,000,000. This is the largest school fund possessed by any State in the Union, in proportion to age and population; to which will be added from time to time the receipts from the sales of the very large body of school lands yet undisposed of. The

permanent school fund, which has already grown to an extraordinary amount, and is still accumulating, began to be made up in 1865. While \$2,783,229 have been realized thus far, the greater part of the school lands remain still unsold. The sales authorized during the biennial period, of sections 16 and 36, yielded \$355,279. A State land commissioner and a commissioner of appraisement are recommended to be appointed, in order to obtain better prices and save expense in the sales of the public lands.

The State University has grown in 14 years from an institution employing four teachers and containing 55 students to one in which 488 students are taught by 14 instructors. It has a library of 5,500 volumes and a large cabinet of natural history. The appropriations for the two years amounted to \$61,550. Most of the school lands allotted to the University have been sold. Including the amount of the sales for future payment, the permanent fund amounts to about \$120,000.

The Normal School was attended at the close of the year by 247 students. The building which was destroyed by fire two years before was replaced by another equally commodious, which was finished in 1880 at a cost of \$45,579, of which nearly half was borne by the city of Emporia and Lyon County, in which it is situated. The school has a productive permanent fund of the amount of \$121,593, in addition to the invested fund which yields some \$6,000 a year.

The second biennial report of the State Agricultural College shows this institution to be in a very satisfactory condition. In 1878-'79, the whole number of students in attendance was 207—151 males and 56 females. In 1879-'80, the number is increased to 203 males and 73 females, making a total of 276.

During the two years of the last administration eight new counties have been organized, making the total number eighty-one. It devolves upon the Legislature to make a new apportionment in 1881, and ten more counties are expected to be organized and given representation in the Legislature. The unorganized counties of Hodgeman, Pratt, Stafford, Trego, Decatur, Ness, Graham, and Sheridan have never been attached to any judicial districts, and no court has jurisdiction of crimes committed within their limits. The Legislature is therefore expected to pass a law attaching this territory to organized counties for judicial purposes. The county of Wallace, also, though organized in 1875, has no county government and holds no court, so that crime goes unpunished and citizens are without the protection of the law. It is therefore desired that the law of 1875 be repealed, and the county attached to the jurisdiction of some regular county court.

In pursuance of an act of the Legislature of 1879 appropriating \$20,000 for the protection of frontier settlements against Indian depreda-

tions, the Governor raised and equipped a guard of forty men to patrol the southwestern border from Barbour County west about a hundred miles, and furnished independent companies of cavalry and infantry, which he caused to be organized along the western frontier, and provided them with arms, and also organized two regiments of infantry in the interior of the State, and kept scouts in the Indian territory to give warning of hostile movements. During the two years no instance has occurred of any of the exposed settlements being molested, but, on the contrary, the settlers have reposed in perfect security and had no reason to apprehend such danger. The Governor suggests that the State should strengthen its military organization in order to suppress internal disorders, mobs, and uprisings, which may be expected to result from the growth of large manufacturing interests, the extension of railways, and the development of coal-fields and mining interests.

The exodus of colored people into Kansas from Mississippi, Texas, and other parts of the South continued unabated through the early part of the year. After the national elections there were some signs of a renewal of the migration; but this was only a slight movement. In March from 250 to 300 poured into Topeka every week, and there had already immigrated into the State, it was stated by the Freedmen's Relief Association, between 20,000 and 25,000. Toward the end of the year there were 40,000. Many of these hung about Topeka and other towns, and showed themselves incapable and unwilling to try to provide for themselves. Mrs. Elizabeth L. Comstock, Mrs. Laura S. Haviland and other white people, and John M. Brown and other intelligent colored persons, labored energetically to obtain the means of relieving their privations and to aid and stimulate them to become self-supporting. The Freedmen's Relief Association was founded with the coöperation of the Governor soon after the landing of the first band of immigrants at Wyandotte in the spring of 1879. About \$22,000 were distributed among them in clothing, provisions, medicine, freight, and transportation, etc. During the following winter and spring about \$25,000 more were expended by the association in relieving the colored people and aiding them to find employment. Altogether about \$150,000 were contributed to the support of the colored immigrants during the first year of their residence in Kansas. They were sent to different parts of the State, and many were given employment. Still, there was much suffering and want, and without benevolent assistance a large proportion of those who had come in 1879 were in 1880 not yet in possession of the means of subsistence. Henry King calculated that their total surplus earnings at the end of the first year of the exodus amounted to about \$40,000, or \$2.25 per capita. They bought and entered about 20,000 acres. Of the first 20,000, about 30 per cent. came

from Mississippi, 20 per cent. from Texas, 15 per cent. from Tennessee, 10 per cent. from Louisiana, and 5 per cent. each from Georgia and Alabama. They were nearly all field-hands, and exceedingly ignorant. The influx during the winter and the early part of 1880 was mainly from Texas. About 4,000 had been forwarded on request into Nebraska, Colorado, Illinois, and other States. The moneys contributed for the benefit of the freedmen came from all parts of the Union, and a small sum from England.

There were distress and destitution in western Kansas, owing to the drought. About 20,000 people were stated to be in a suffering condition, and considerable amounts were contributed in the East for their relief.

In February President Hayes issued a proclamation warning intended raiders from entering the Indian Territory. (See ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES.) A meeting in favor of opening the Territory to colonization took place in Kansas City, Missouri, on the 4th of May, on which occasion the President's proclamation was read by a United States Marshal. An organization was formed, and a memorial to Congress drawn up, which advocated the allotment of land to Indians in severalty, the bestowal of citizenship upon them, the opening of the Indian Territory to settlers, and protested against moving any more wild, hunting Indians to the Territory. Bands of raiders moved upon the Territory in the latter part of the year. The principal body was called the Oklahoma Colony, and had a military organization. They encamped near Caldwell, on the border of the Territory, when winter set in, while a detachment of United States troops watched them. Many crossed the frontier secretly and entered claims. Numbers of these were expelled by the Indian scouts and police. The settlers came from different parts of the Union. A large proportion of them were old frontiersmen. The citizens along the border became more and more friendly to the movement, and aided the settlers with considerable contributions of provisions. The colonists claim that the territory to which they are moving is not legally a portion of the Indian reservation, and that they have the right to occupy it under the homestead laws. They expect that Congress will, in recognition of their spirited action, be more prompt to amend the laws relating to the Indians, and throw open the whole of the reservations, except claims which shall be allotted to Indians in severalty, to free settlement.

A contest between the American Union Telegraph Company and the Western Union took place in the beginning of the year, regarding the right to the telegraph communications along some of the principal Western railroads controlled by Jay Gould, the principal promoter of the American Union Company. Telegraphic connections were considerably disturbed during the progress of the quarrel, es-

pecially in Kansas. The Kansas Pacific Railroad Company took forcible possession of the telegraph wires along the line in February. Injunctions and counter-injunctions were taken out, and in July the matter came up for adjudication before the United States Circuit Court for the Kansas district, at Topeka, in the case of the Western Union Telegraph Company *vs.* the Union Pacific Railway Company, in equity, the Kansas Pacific Railway Company, and the American Union Telegraph Company. The legal contest had been going on for six months or so before the act of seizing the wires in Kansas. The Western Union Company had first attempted to enjoin the other company from carrying wires along railroads east of the Mississippi with which it had contracted for the exclusive privilege. It claimed also the exclusive right of way on the Kansas Pacific under a contract. The lines along the Kansas Pacific and Union Pacific railroads, it was claimed, were built by the railroad companies, and operated by employees of the roads for the Western Union Company, which had contracted with the first road for the monopoly of the commercial business for twenty-five years, and with the second was the assignee of a perpetual lease of the telegraph rights. The American Union made first a formal demand upon the railroads to accept its business on the same terms on which it performed that of the other company, as required by its charter, to comply with which demand the railroads took possession of the wires. In the case of the Kansas Pacific it was shown that the wires were erected by the telegraph company, and that two of them were still its property. The Supreme Court ordered the restoration of the lines to the Western Union in a mandamus and injunction issued by Chief Justice Waite in April. The Kansas Pacific Railroad Company then proceeded to string separate wires for the use of the American Union Company. When the matter came before the Court upon its merits, the contract upon which the Western Union Company claimed the exclusive right of way, was decided to be void on account of the immorality of one of the considerations, to wit, that private messages of the officers of the railroad should be transmitted by the telegraph company free of charge. An amended bill was brought, in which the Western Union Company claimed the right of way by virtue of an act of Congress, notwithstanding the vicious clause in the contract. The act confers the right to build and operate a line of telegraph along the railroad route to the United States Telegraph Company. The Court held that this act gave the telegraph company the equitable right claimed, which held good for its assignee and was exclusive of the contract. On this ground the injunction against the Pacific Railroad Company was continued in force.

Four drive-well defense associations have been formed to contest the validity of the Green drive-well patent, issued in 1868, and

reissued in 1871. These wells are in general use in southern and southwestern Kansas, as also in some other parts of the country; and the owners of the patent have been endeavoring to collect five and ten dollar royalties on them, having brought many hundred suits in Kansas alone for this object. Congressman Ryan presented to Congress a petition requesting that the Attorney-General be instructed to bring a suit against the patentees, on the grounds that the invention is not a patentable novelty, and that if it were, the patent could be voided because the patentee had waived his rights by allowing more than two years to elapse between the date of the invention and the application for a patent. The defense associations expect to prove that the principle of the drive well was known and described in public prints seventy-five years ago, and that these wells have been extensively used all over the United States since 1840.

The Attorney-General, Willard Davis, delivered an opinion that the registry law passed in 1879, requiring registration as an indispensable condition of the right to vote, was in conflict with the Constitution, since the constitutional qualifications for voting can not be abridged by law, which would be the case if a voter possessing the constitutional requirements were deprived of his vote through failure to register, when prevented from so doing through sickness, absence, nonage, or other cause. The law, he thinks, would hold if an amendatory clause were inserted, excepting electors who were prevented involuntarily from voting; and a qualified elector would then work his own disfranchisement if through negligence he failed to comply with the statutory requirement. The question has been brought before the Supreme Court for adjudication.

The County Commissioners, acting as a board of canvassers, refused to declare the result of the county election held in Harper County, in November, 1879, on the ground that it was fraudulent, 2,957 votes having been cast, when there are not over 800 voters in the county. The question of removing the county-seat from Anthony to Harper was voted upon in this election. An action was brought by the State, at the instance of the county attorney, in the interests of persons claiming to have been elected officers, and of the town of Harper to have the Commissioners canvass the returns and declare the result. The Court refused the application for a mandamus on the ground that the election was manifestly fraudulent. Another litigated county-seat dispute was the case of Pratt County, where some of the township clerks failed to sign the returns, and the Commissioners refused to count them, leaving Iuka the county-seat instead of Saratoga, and a mandamus was applied for to compel the canvassing of the vote.

An important constitutional point is to be tested in the Supreme Court in a case brought to determine the validity of the appropriation

act for the Fish Commissioner. This was the only bill found on the journals of the Legislature involving the question at issue, which was brought before the Supreme Court in 1877, but was not decided for want of jurisdiction. The Attorney-General then brought an action of *quo warranto* against a member representing Rush County, in accordance with a joint resolution of the Legislature requesting him to have the Supreme Court pass judgment upon the question whether this district, numbered 127, can be represented, when the Constitution limits the number of members in the House to 125. The Court ruled that each House of the Legislature alone has jurisdiction of election returns and the qualifications of its members, and can not by any legislative act vest it in another tribunal, deciding at the same time the question of the constitutionality of a law enacted by the aid of the votes of persons admitted beyond the constitutional limit, and which would not otherwise have passed. Such an act was found the one above mentioned, which would have fallen short of a majority one vote without the votes of four members sitting for new counties. The Attorney-General has therefore applied for an injunction to restrain the Treasurer from paying a warrant issued for a small balance of the fishery appropriation, in order to test this important question.

The case of Senator Ingalls, elected to the United States Senate, January 30, 1879, against whom charges of bribery and corruption in procuring the election had been considered and dismissed by the Kansas Legislature, was investigated by the committee of the United States Senate on privileges and elections. The committee on February 16th unanimously agreed to a report exonerating Senator Ingalls himself from the charge of bribery preferred by Kansas memorialists who asked for the investigation; but the Democratic majority of the committee offered an accompanying report reflecting severely upon the methods employed in the Kansas Legislature to secure the election of a Senatorial candidate. The memorial to the Senate had been signed by a number of the Democratic, Greenback, and Republican members of the Legislature, who had coalesced to defeat Ingalls in the heated Senatorial contest, in accordance with a minority report of the only Democratic member of the Legislative committee of investigation.

The Republican State Convention, for the election of delegates to the National Convention and candidates for electors, met at Topeka, March 31st. Delegates favorable to the nomination of Blaine were chosen by resolution, all together, against the protest of a minority. It was announced by supporters of Grant that two of the districts would send contesting delegations to Chicago. The four contesting delegates were subsequently admitted to seats at Chicago, but the whole ten delegates were granted but six votes. The platform adopted by the Convention contained planks charging

the Democratic party with causing the civil war, and declaring all who have wavered from fealty to the Union unfit counselors in the affairs of the nation, and one instructing the delegates to vote for Blaine, together with the following:

That we are a nation, and that the mission of the Republican party will not be completed until under one flag every citizen, however humble, is secure in the honest expression of his opinions in all parts of our dominion, and is fully protected in his life and liberty and in the full enjoyment of all the political rights of an American citizen.

That the unhappy cause of the migration of the colored people from the South to the North, is the apprehension, persecution, and robbery of them by the white people, their former masters, and present owners of the soil, and it is the duty of the Government of the United States to extend to the colored people of the South such protection that their removal from their native land shall cease to be a necessity.

The Democratic State Convention met at Topeka, May 26th, to elect delegates to the National Convention. Instead of the majority report of the Committee on Resolutions of a platform instructing the delegates to vote for Seymour and Hendricks, a resolution to the effect that they should act without instructions was adopted.

The Greenback-Labor party met in convention at Topeka, August 4th. The following candidates were put in nomination for the State offices: for Governor, H. B. Vrooman; for Lieutenant-Governor, H. L. Phillips; for Secretary of State, A. B. Cornell; for Treasurer, Dr. S. A. Marshall; for Auditor, D. J. Cole; for Attorney-General, D. B. Hadley; for Superintendent of Public Instruction, Charles Smith. In the platform were the following resolutions:

That we favor an equitable appreciation of all lands sold under mortgage or legal process, and an equitable stay or redemption law on forced sales of real estate by process of law.

That we oppose any modification of the present constitutional tax-exemption law, and that we are unable to perceive any good and sufficient reasons for holding a State Constitutional Convention at this time.

That the act of the last Legislature in abolishing the one mill State-school tax, which has been levied from the beginning of our State's existence, merits our unqualified condemnation from the fact that it was a blow struck at the people's colleges—the common schools of our State—in the interest of corporations.

That we are in favor of the regulation of common carriers so as to prevent extortion and discrimination in rates of freight.

That we condemn the extravagance of our last Legislature in the expenditures of public money, adding about \$150,000 to the annual expense of the State, and raising our State tax one mill on the dollar, and we demand in future the most rigid economy in all State, county, and municipal affairs.

That we are in favor of taxing the mortgages of non-residents recorded in this State the same as residents, and the strict enforcement of our State tax laws so as to include all property subject to taxation.

That the rate per cent. just fixed by law in Kansas is ruinously high, and is fast swallowing up the wealth of this State, and that we demand of the next Legislature a law fixing a low rate of interest and a penalty, forfeiture of all interest and principal for its violation.

That we are opposed to the employment of convict labor in competition with the free labor of the State, and we demand appropriate legislation to protect the

lives of employees in the mines of Kansas and to secure miners their wages.

The Democratic Convention for the nomination of State officers met at Topeka, August 31st. The following candidates were chosen: for Governor, ex-Senator E. G. Ross; for Lieutenant-Governor, Thomas George; for Secretary of State, John M. Giffin; for Auditor, J. G. Neumueller; for Treasurer, Theodore Wickselbaum; for Attorney-General, A. L. Hereford; for Superintendent of Public Instruction, Miss Sarah A. Brown. A resolution was adopted which approved the Presidential nominations at Cincinnati, also the following on State matters:

Resolved, That the proposition made and submitted by the last Republican Legislature to the people to amend the Constitution of the State, affecting the repeal of the constitutional exemption of \$200, is not in the best interests of the State, and is an outrage upon the poor people of the Commonwealth, and we pledge every honorable effort to defeat said proposition.

In the Republican State Convention, which met at Topeka, September 1st, Governor John P. St. John was renominated; D. W. Finney was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor, after several ballots; James Smith was nominated for Secretary of State; P. J. Bonebrake for Auditor; John Francis for Treasurer; William A. Johnston for Attorney-General; H. C. Speer for Superintendent of Public Instruction. With the exception of the Attorney-General and the Superintendent of Instruction, the nominees were all of them the incumbents of the offices for which they were nominated. The following platform was adopted:

The Republicans of Kansas, in Delegate Convention assembled, heartily endorse the declaration of principles embodied in the National Republican platform, and pledge their united and zealous support to the nominees of the Chicago Convention, General James A. Garfield and General Chester A. Arthur.

We point with satisfaction to the rapid and substantial growth of Kansas under the unbroken Republican Administration, extending through two decades. We congratulate the people of the State that general education has gone hand in hand with material development. We take especial pride in the fact that the revenues of the State have been honestly collected and wisely and securely invested. We affirm that the United States is a nation, and that it is alike the right and duty of the General Government to secure to all of its citizens full and complete liberty and exact equality in the exercise of their civil and political rights. A free ballot, uninfluenced by force or intimidation, and fair count of such ballots are necessary for the preservation of free institutions. The Republic can not endure if shot-guns or tissue ballots, intimidation or false counting, control the choice of officers and the policy of legislation or administration. The change most needed in this country is one which will abolish the system by which a vast section of the country has been made and is kept solid for the Democratic party.

We congratulate the people upon the fact that the resumption of specie payments has brought in its train general prosperity and universal confidence, and that our currency, coin, and paper has a fixed value, and is convertible, secure, and equivalent.

We declare that, inasmuch as the Republican party of this State is justly held responsible for the officers whom it or its representatives elect, and inasmuch as experience has shown the grave evils resulting from

purely personal canvasses, it is the duty of the Republican members of the Legislature, in the election of the various officers within their choice, to act in concert, and in accordance with the determination of a fairly expressed majority of the Republican members in caucus or convention assembled.

The important question of the adoption of the prohibitory temperance amendment to the Constitution was to be decided at the November State election. A heated controversy between the friends and opponents of the proposed amendment went on throughout the summer. The main strength of the Republican gubernatorial candidate, in the Convention and before the people, consisted in his ardent prohibition sympathies and his decided approval of the plan embodied in the amendment. The proposed amendment was to incorporate the following additional section into the Constitution:

The manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors shall be for ever prohibited in this State, except for medical, scientific, and mechanical purposes.

After the election there was still a question as to whether the amendment had been adopted, and it remained for the Supreme Court to decide whether a plurality vote was sufficient to carry the amendment. (This question has been decided in the negative in the matter of the Indiana amendments by the Supreme Court of that State. See INDIANA.)

The returns of the vote for Governor gave St. John 115,204 votes; Ross, 63,557; Vrooman, 19,477; scattering votes, 692; making the Republican plurality 51,647, and majority 50,955. The other Republican candidates for State officers were elected by pluralities some 10,000 or more greater. John A. Anderson was elected member of Congress from the First District by 48,599 votes, and a majority of 18,534; J. C. Haskell, from the Second District, by 30,758 votes, and 7,001 majority; Thomas Ryan, from the Third, by 41,094 votes, and 14,721 majority.

The vote for the Legislature returned 36 Republican, 1 Independent Republican, 1 Fusionist, and 2 Democratic Senators; and 118 Republican, 3 Independent Republican, 5 Fusion, and 11 Democratic Representatives.

There were 92,302 votes cast for the proposition to amend the Constitution by adding the clause prohibiting the manufacture and sale of liquors, and 84,304 votes against the proposition.

For the proposition to amend the Constitution by striking out the clause "exempting \$200 personal property from taxation," there were 38,442 votes cast, and 140,020 against the proposed amendment.

The vote upon holding a Constitutional Convention was 22,870 for and 146,279 against.

The vote for the Presidential electors averaged 121,529 for the Garfield electors, 59,729 for the Hancock electors, 19,715 for the Weaver electors, and 35 votes for other tickets; making Garfield's plurality 61,800, the largest gained in any State.

KENTUCKY. The session of the Legislature was a notable one on account of the measures which were taken to extricate the State from financial difficulties, and to arrest and remedy numerous administrative abuses. The Legislature acted upon every one of the recommendations contained in the Governor's message. The most important measures were the addition of five cents on the one hundred dollars in the tax levy, making the general revenue tax four and a half mills, as formerly; stringent laws for the assessment and collection of the taxes, and for the detection of fraudulent witness claims and others, and the reduction of fees; the substitution of the warden system for the lessee system in the Penitentiary, and provisions for enlarging the accommodations and reforming the management; the submission of the proposition of calling a Constitutional Convention to the vote of the people; the creation of a commission for the regulation of railroads; the reduction of appropriations, and provisions for the better management of the State charitable institutions; the endowment of the Agricultural and Mechanical College; the transfer of the State's improvements in the Kentucky River to the General Government, and provisions for the acquisition of property by the Government for river improvement and for the protection of the Government works; certain amendments in the civil code, and the redistricting of the State into judicial circuits, and the abolition of a number of lesser courts.

The Legislature began its session on December 31st, and adjourned on the 6th of May, sitting 127 days, a longer session than that of any previous Legislature. Lieutenant-Governor James E. Cantrill presided over the Senate, and J. M. Bigger was elected Speaker of the House. In addition to the important general laws which were enacted, a large number of local and private acts were also passed. Many of the members sat in the Legislature for the first time in the lower house, and the regularity of the proceedings was broken several times by stormy scenes, and excited, unparliamentary language. The session of the Senate was not marked by any similar unpleasantness, and the debates of this body were uniformly good-natured and courteous.

The act to take the sense of the people upon calling a convention to revise the Constitution of the State, provides that the vote on this question shall be polled at the next ensuing election of representatives; that the proposition shall be duly advertised, and polls opened by the sheriffs and other election officers, who shall propound the question, "Do you vote for calling a convention or not?" to every elector entitled to vote for Representatives, and record the answers and make returns of those voting in favor of a convention to the Secretary of State.

Among the revenue and taxation acts was one permitting the owners of property sold

for taxes due in or before 1878, and bought in by the State, to redeem it by paying the purchase money and interest at thirty per cent. per annum. This act was afterward amended by making the rate of interest six per cent. per annum, and subsequently to the effect that the lands are redeemable upon payment of back taxes and interest. An act to prevent the payment of fraudulent claims against the Commonwealth, provided that the order of a court allowing a bill or credit against the State should be regarded as *prima facie* evidence of the correctness of the claim, but should not be treated as a judgment. In case the Auditor suspects the fraudulence or illegality of such claims, he may, with the advice of the Attorney-General, contest their payment in the Circuit Court of Franklin County, which is given jurisdiction of all suits against the Treasury. The Attorney-General was authorized to sue for the recovery of moneys suspected to have been paid out of the Treasury heretofore upon fraudulent or irregular claims. Another act authorized the Attorney-General to investigate the condition and value of judgments obtained by the State upon which executions have been issued, and the return of no property found made by the officers. An act to prevent the payment of fraudulent claims out of the Treasury makes it a felony for a justice of the peace, sheriff, constable, or other peace officer, to present a false claim for services connected with the arrest, trial, or transportation of prisoners. The Auditor was authorized to appoint agents to attend to revenue matters in the counties, who shall see that persons who have failed to return their taxable property shall be summoned into court to give in their lists, that sheriffs and collectors who have collected delinquent taxes and not accounted for them shall be prosecuted, and to investigate the accounts of officers, and see if there have been any overcharges or defalcations. Another act makes it punishable for a magistrate to issue warrants for arrest in felony cases without filing in his office an affidavit specifying the charge and showing reasonable grounds for suspecting the person arrested. These acts were the result of the discovery of extensive and systematic frauds practiced by county officials upon the Treasury, especially in the eastern part of the State.

The sheriffs or collectors of the State or county taxes are required to return the tax receipts of insolvent and delinquent taxpayers, and are barred from collecting the taxes returned as delinquent unless they are relisted. The time for the collection of fees and taxes, except such as were already outlawed, was extended two years. The law regarding the service of tax-notices was amended so as to require the sheriff to tender a receipt specifying the assessment and tax due from any person upon demand, and to notify personally or leave a written notice at the house of every tax-payer, resi-

dent in the county, before distraining. Lands held by the State on tax titles, on which the equity of redemption had expired, were directed to be sold at public auction and conveyed in fee-simple to purchasers, until enough of each parcel is sold to pay all arrears. The right of redemption runs five years after the first tax sale. Lands conveyed by the Auditor's deed are subject to a lien for valuable improvements made by the former owner.

The Commissioners of the Sinking Fund were authorized by act of the Legislature to transfer the balance of the fund to general revenue. The total outstanding bonded indebtedness amounted to \$180,394, of which \$6,394 were overdue, and had not been presented, being probably lost or destroyed, leaving \$174,000 to be provided for by the sinking fund. The sinking fund amounted to \$235,671, or \$61,671 more than the debt to be met, which surplus was ordered to be applied to current expenses, as well as any like surplus which should be found on hand in the future. A temporary loan of \$500,000 was authorized to relieve the embarrassment of the Treasury, and the State officers were empowered to issue bonds at 6 per cent. up to that amount.

Many fees and salaries were cut down. Jailers are allowed 50 cents a day for the keeping of a prisoner. Only one guard is allowed in the transportation of a prisoner. For keeping a pauper or idiot, \$75 a year is allowed; for a lunatic, \$165.

The Commonwealth was divided into eighteen circuit court judicial districts. These circuit courts are to sit two terms in each county, except certain specified counties, in which a greater number of terms are to be held. They are courts of record. The criminal, chancery, and common pleas courts were abolished, except in certain counties. The circuit judges and Commonwealth's attorneys for the several circuits were elected in August.

An act allows plaintiffs to prosecute non-resident owners of real estate for amounts under \$50 in the circuit and equity and criminal courts of the county where the land is situated. Concurrent jurisdiction with circuit courts was extended to quarterly courts in cases involving sums not exceeding \$200. A penalty was prescribed for soliciting service as juror. The practice in appealed cases was changed so as to restrict the appellant to the errors specified in his assignment of errors, and to allow judgment to be passed only on such of these as prejudice substantial rights, amendments to the bill of errors being allowable on ten days' notice. Appeals can be taken to the appellate court for amounts of \$100 and upward; to the Circuit Court for \$25 and upward; from a magistrate to the quarterly court for from \$10 to \$25; and over \$25 to either the quarterly or the circuit courts.

An act fixed jurors' pay at \$1.50 for each day of attendance to petit and \$1.25 to grand jurors. The fees of justices for holding levy

courts, etc., were fixed at \$2 per diem. Commissioners and receivers appointed by the circuit judges are required to report the moneys they collect under oath. The number of jurors in justices', police, and quarterly courts was reduced to six, and their pay was reduced to 50 cents for each case, or \$1 a day when several cases are disposed of. The county courts were empowered to fix the time for holding the quarterly courts in each county. Retail druggists were exempted from jury service. Public executions were abolished in an act providing that the death penalty shall be inflicted in an inclosure, in the presence of not over fifty persons. Witness fees in felony cases were fixed at \$1 per diem, with four cents mileage for witnesses from outside the county limits. Officers speculating in witnesses' claims are finable \$50.

The volumes of reports of decisions of the Court of Appeals are hereafter to be named "Kentucky Reports," instead of bearing the name of the reporter.

The act establishing a board of railroad commissioners provides that the Governor shall, with the consent of the Senate, choose the board, consisting of three commissioners, to serve for a term of two years. They are to be selected, one from the agricultural, one from mercantile, manufacturing, or mining class, and one representing the railroad interest. An oath is required that they will discharge their duties without fear or favor. They are to prosecute all violations of the railroad laws, and have power to examine accounts and papers, take testimony, and subpoena witnesses. They are to make annual reports to the Governor, and make suggestions as to classifying and rating fare and freight charges. The duties of the railroad board of equalization and taxation were devolved upon the railroad commissioners, and the old board abolished.

An act was passed forbidding persons other than passengers or employees to get on or off trains in motion.

It was made a misdemeanor to throw missiles or to shoot at railroad trains, and murder if death ensue.

The act to incorporate the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Kentucky vests the management in a board of trustees, presided over by the Governor, and composed of twelve members, nominated by him and elected by the Senate for the term of six years. The professors are only removable for cause, and by a majority vote of the whole board. The students are admitted on competitive examination, one in each year between the ages of twelve and twenty-five, from each representative district, being entitled to free scholarships. The teachers and trustees of each common school are to select one pupil as a candidate for the scholarship, giving the preference to energetic young men of limited means. The faculty have the power to issue teachers' certificates.

The amendments to the act removed the limitation of the power of the trustees to remove

teachers. It makes the collegiate period four years; but a normal department for the education of teachers shall be maintained in conjunction with the college, which has no stated curriculum. Teachers and persons preparing to teach are admitted tuition free, not exceeding four in number from each representative district, for one year. Students are admitted, without regard to their places of residence, upon payment of the tuition fees. A special fund for the endowment and maintenance of the Agricultural and Mechanical College was created, to be derived from a special supplemental tax of one-half cent on the one hundred dollars on the property of all the white citizens of the State.

The overcrowded condition of the State Penitentiary impelled Governor Blackburn to declare, during the gubernatorial canvass, that, if elected, he would release enough convicts by the exercise of the pardoning prerogative to insure the health of the remaining ones. Many petitions on behalf of convicts came to him after he entered upon his duties, and more prisoners were set at liberty by his orders than had been customarily pardoned. There were 969 prisoners in the Penitentiary, with only 780 cells for their accommodation. A large number of the convicts had died of malarial disease, and many were sick. He began by pardoning the sick and the dying, regardless of the murmurs of the press and the public. Upon the meeting of the Legislature a committee was appointed to visit the prison with the Governor, and, upon its recommendation, over 100 more pardons were issued. The Legislature passed an act authorizing the appointment of commissioners to select a site and plans for a branch prison, and to visit the prisons of the East to study the best system of prison construction and discipline.

The new penitentiary law provides for the election of a warden by the joint ballot of the Legislature. His term of office is four years. He is removable by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund. His duties are to direct the prison and look after the diet, health, comfort, and discipline of the convicts. He is expected to keep such as are not contracted for at labor within the prison. The Commissioners of the Sinking Fund and *ex-officio* Prison Commissioners are intrusted with the appointment of a deputy warden, clerk, physician, and chaplain to the prison. The Commissioners are to hire out on contract the labor of the whole 600 convicts, more or less, to be employed within the prison walls, to the highest and best bidder, the contracts to run from one to four years. The contractors are to defray the expense of keeping the prisoners, and to furnish the discharged with clothing and a passage to their own counties.

Many acts were passed prohibiting the retail traffic in liquor in particular towns and counties. A general act prohibits any druggist, without license, from selling liquor or medi-

cines containing alcohol in such places, and allows licensed druggists to dispense such liquors only on the prescriptions of physicians.

A public grain warehouse act requires a bond from the proprietor of a public elevator or warehouse, and compels him to store the grain according to the grading of the inspector, to give numbered receipts which represent actual quantities received in store, to deliver promptly upon demand, to use due diligence in guarding against overheating, and upon discovering that any grain is likely to be injured by heating to publish the numbers of the receipts outstanding upon which it is deliverable, and the names of the persons from whom it was received, and forbids him to mix different grades together. An amendment to the Board of Health Act authorizes local boards of health to inspect houses and enforce regulations for the prevention and checking of disease; and the boards on the borders of the State are authorized to declare quarantine, which shall be continued with the approval of the State Board of Health, which is empowered to establish quarantine, or to take any measures deemed necessary to prevent the introduction or spread of contagious disease. The penalties of the Civil Damage Act were extended to "any person who procures or furnishes" liquor to a known inebriate. An act was passed forbidding any person or corporation to employ convicts of other States within the limits of the State. An act was passed requiring persons engaged in manufacturing or selling commercial fertilizers to send samples to the Commissioner of Agriculture for inspection, with a statement of the composition and the proportion of the ingredients, and receive from him a certificate that the manure is composed as represented, and shall label all his goods with a statement of the percentage of the different ingredients, or failing to affix such certificate shall forfeit \$100, or affixing a false certificate shall forfeit \$200 to the purchaser.

The divorce law was changed so as to allow a divorce to the husband for habitual drunkenness on the part of the wife. A lottery bill prohibits the sale of lottery tickets without express authority of law, the act to be conspicuously posted at the place of sale. A Sunday liquor law was passed forbidding tavern and saloon-keepers to have their places open, or to sell or give away liquor on Sundays. The penalty for the third offense is forfeiture of the licenses. The provisions of the Sunday laws were remitted as far as they apply to street-railroad companies. An act was passed making it a misdemeanor for a person to use abusive or insulting language in the presence of another or others, intending to provoke an assault, punishable by a fine not exceeding \$20, or if the offender be a male and the injured person a female \$50. A law was enacted for the benefit of certain counties, prescribing that voters at primary elections shall be legal voters, shall possess the qualifications demanded by

the political organization in which they vote, etc., and that otherwise they are guilty of a misdemeanor, and can be fined. An amendment to the law exempting property from execution exempts the tools, materials, and productions of mechanics with families to the value of \$200. The articles to be exempted shall be appraised by three disinterested housekeepers. Another law requires a horse worth more than \$150, or a cow and calf worth more than \$60, claimed to be exempt under the general law of executions, to be appraised in like manner and sold, the excess going to the creditor. Liens on foundries and manufactories for labor or supplies were abolished except for wages due within sixty days of an assignment. A bill was passed allowing salvage to the taker-up of timber, etc., adrift on rivers.

The act of 1873 authorizing a reward for the killing of wolves, foxes, and wildcats was repealed. A poison bill, which was passed, requires every person who sells a poison to label it with the name of the article, the word "poison," and his name and address; to satisfy himself that the purchaser is of age and desires the article for a lawful purpose, and to keep a register in which each sale and the address of the buyer is entered.

The act to enable the United States to acquire lands for the purpose of constructing canals, locks, dams, etc., for the establishment of slack-water navigation on the rivers of the State, provides that the Government can purchase land for such purposes whenever appropriations are made by Congress for locks, permanent or movable dams, dams with adjustable chutes, or canals for the improvement of any navigable river; and that, in case the Government can not come to an agreement with the owners, it can apply to a court of record in or nearest to the county for the condemnation of the land. The same act imposes a penalty for injuring the property acquired under its provisions. It also transfers to the United States the five locks and dams constructed by the State in the Kentucky River. For the improvement of this river the last Congress appropriated \$100,000, and a further appropriation of about \$130,000 was made by Congress in 1880. Other special acts were passed to cede the right to acquire and condemn land, giving concurrent jurisdiction over the same, to the United States, for the improvement of Big Sandy and Licking Rivers, for the construction of a canal around the falls of Cumberland River, and for other similar improvements.

A large number of railroad charters were granted to companies engaging to carry through lines between the Atlantic and the Western States, through the State, and to others promising to develop the valuable, but backward, eastern section of the State.

Among the appropriations made were \$30,000 for additional buildings for the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb; \$38,650 for an extension of the Lunatic Asylum at Anchorage;

\$500 per annum for the Agricultural Bureau. The Geological Survey was continued, for which \$10,600 was appropriated—\$4,000 for the geological survey, \$2,000 for topographical labors and the State map, and the rest for photography, office expenses, examination of water-power and forest resources and of building-stones, and for chemical analysis. The State Geologist, who is also the Commissioner of Emigration, is to hold his office two years, one being appointed by the Governor and approved by the Senate at each meeting of the Legislature. He is to keep in his office a record of lands for sale, lease, or colonization, the owners paying a fee of \$2 for each entry, and to collect and disseminate information regarding the utilization of the raw products of the State. The Fish Commission was continued, and \$5,000 appropriated for its objects.

A bill to strike out the word "white" from the jury law was passed by the Senate on the last day of the session, but was not acted upon by the House. The question of the constitutionality of the law came up in the courts during the year on writs of *habeas corpus* sued out by negroes indicted and sentenced under the existing law. The subject first arose in the United States Circuit Court at Covington. Judge Barr granted a writ of *habeas corpus* to two colored men, William Gillis and John Davies, indicted in the Bourbon County Circuit Court for malicious shooting, on the ground that they could not be legally indicted and tried in that Court. The Governor was requested by many to call an extra session of the Legislature for the particular purpose of amending the law to make it conform to the fourteenth amendment of the United States Constitution, as it was feared that no negro malefactors could be tried or convicted before that was done. But the difficulty was obviated by the decision rendered by the Kentucky Court of Appeals. In this Court the constitutionality of the statutes providing that grand and petit jurors must be white citizens was tested in the case, on appeal, of *Commonwealth vs. James Johnson*. Following the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Strander vs. the State of West Virginia*, the Court decided that portion of the jury law excluding colored persons from jury service unconstitutional; the other qualifications—that jurors shall be "housekeepers, at least twenty-one years of age, sober, temperate, and of good demeanor"—remaining in force. In the opinion, Judge Cofer explained the import of the decision as follows:

This question has not been heretofore passed on by this Court, and as the duty of selecting and summoning jurors is devolved upon merely ministerial officers, we ought to assume that, in performing their duties, they obeyed the statute as enacted by the Legislature, and that they excluded colored persons from the jury because the statute declared them to be incompetent, and consequently that the appellee was deprived by the statute of a right which the Supreme Court holds is secured to him by the Constitution.

But the word white, as found in our jury laws, being now declared to be no part of that law, it will be incumbent on all officers charged with the duty of selecting or summoning jurors to make their selections without regard to race or color; and when jurors are hereafter selected and summoned, it ought to be presumed that the officers did their duty and ignored the statute so far as it is herein held to be unconstitutional, and that they have not excluded any person from the jury on account of his race or color.

We do not mean, however, to be understood to say that a negro can not be lawfully indicted and tried unless the jury is composed in part of persons of his own race. All we decide is, that such persons must not be excluded because of their race.

In the case of the Commonwealth, appellant, *vs. Isaac Wright*, it was decided that unconstitutionality of the law excluding negroes from juries could not be put in plea by a white person, as it does not deprive the members of the favored race of the equal protection of the law, following the decision in *Marshal vs. Donovan*, in which a white person undertook to raise the question whether the exclusion of negroes from the common schools was not unconstitutional.

A suit brought in the Court of Common Pleas by William Browne against Watt Young, for services rendered in securing the pardon by President Hayes of the son of the latter, confined in the Penitentiary at Joliet, was dismissed by Judge Smith, on the ground that it was contrary to public policy to allow a recovery at law for services of that character.

Judge William L. Delaunay, in a supplemental charge, called the attention of the grand jury at Bowling Green, November 9th, to the publication of the Willard Hotel lottery advertisements, and so instructed them that they brought in indictments against the proprietors of five of the leading newspapers of the State. The Legislature, in 1879, passed a special act authorizing the owner of the hotel to dispose of it by lottery. In the advertisements money-prizes were added, contrary to the act. By a general statute lotteries of all kinds are prohibited, and by another their advertisement is forbidden under the same penalties. The case never came to trial, as the Governor interposed his pardoning power, and relieved the newspaper owners of the penalties.

An act passed in April, to repeal the charter of the Green and Barren River Navigation Company, was decided by the Court of Appeals, October 29th, to be unconstitutional, on the ground that the charter granted in 1868 was in the nature of a contract, requiring the company to keep the navigation in repair for thirty years, for which they gave bonds; and the judgment of the lower court was affirmed, to the effect that the possession of the dams and locks leased to the company, and the privilege of collecting tolls granted in the charter, could not be taken away by the action of the Legislature without compensation.

In the case of the Newport and Cincinnati Bridge Company, appellant, *vs. R. W. Woolley*, the claim of the latter for payment for legal

services was resisted, on the ground that the company, which was chartered by two States to construct the bridge to the limits of their several territories, had no legal existence, and that the Ohio corporation, which was sued, had not employed appellee. The Court ruled that the two companies were in partnership, and each bound by the acts of the other.

In the case of *W. G. Strubbee vs. Trustee Cincinnati Southern Railway*, in the Court of Appeals, the judgment rendered in the lower court, allowing plaintiff, who sued for specific recovery of wood taken by trespassers from his land, and sold to the company in the form of railroad-ties, only the value of the timber in the trees, was reversed, and judgment for specific recovery awarded.

An organization called Regulators committed many excesses and violations of law in the counties of Boyd, Lawrence, and Carter, killing people, breaking open jails, etc., in the name of popular justice. It was remarkable among vigilance associations for the extent of its membership, and the power which was exercised by it over a large extent of country. It finally broke up of its own accord, 200 men giving themselves up to the civil authorities in the town of Louisa, and furnishing the names of 800 others of the same country.

The coal product of Kentucky mines, not including "neighborhood diggings," or small mines worked by farmers and others for local consumption, was reported to the census officers as 1,060,095 tons, valued at \$737,966 in 1880, an increase in ten years of over 600 per cent. in quantity and of 165 per cent. in value. The wages paid aggregated \$766,236, against \$278,411 in 1870; the number of hands employed 2,977—666 men and 53 boys above ground, and 2,078 men and 180 boys below ground, against a total laboring force of 714 in 1870. The capital invested was \$1,833,347, against \$717,950 at the time of the last census. The coal-measures of the State have been made the subject of recent researches of Superintendent John R. Procter, of the Geological Survey. The district in the southeastern corner of the State, between Cumberland Mountain and the Virginia line, is said to be a mining region of unsurpassed richness. The coal-measures are over 2,000 feet deep above drainage, and contain all varieties of coal. Some of bituminous coal, which is sometimes found in beds eight feet in thickness, gave 62.69 per cent. of coke on analysis. Cannel coal occurs in places in beds four feet thick. Railroads are being built into this rich district. Iron is found in great quantities in immediate proximity to the coal-beds. It might be smelted with the high-grade North Carolina ores, which now go to Pittsburgh. The timber supply is unequaled, particularly of black walnut and poplar.

The bulletins of the Census Bureau give the total population of Kentucky as 1,648,599, divided into 832,616 males and 815,983 females;

1,589,131 native and 59,468 foreign born; 1,377,077 whites and 271,522 colored, the latter number including 50 Indians and half-breeds, and 10 Chinese. The population of the principal cities of the State is reported as follows: Louisville, 123,645; Covington, 29,720; Newport, 20,433; Lexington, 16,656; Paducah, 8,376.

The preliminary report of the census on the cereal acreage and product of the State shows the areas given up to the different crops, and the aggregate yield of each, as follows:

CROP.	Acres.	Bushels.
Indian-corn.....	8,017,043	73,856,629
Wheat.....	1,158,514	11,341,264
Oats.....	402,359	4,576,435
Rye.....	89,563	676,154
Barley.....	20,124	457,031
Buckwheat.....	1,806	14,940

The Democratic State Convention, meeting at Lexington on the 17th of June, elected delegates to the National Convention, and adopted the following platform:

The Democracy of the Commonwealth of Kentucky, in convention assembled, do declare:

1. For freedom of the ballot.
2. For home rule.
3. For the supremacy of the civil over the military authority.
4. For no tariff that has protection for its effect.
5. For reform in the administration of the Federal Government.
6. We declare that the action of the Republican party, whereby the verdict of the people as rendered in 1876 was reversed and their will thwarted, was a crime against the Constitution; a crime against the people; a crime against established precedents, and a crime against civil liberty itself; and the people of the United States owe it to themselves and to their institutions to see that this wrong shall not go unrebuked. We do further declare our unfaltering trust in the ability of Samuel J. Tilden as a leader, his patriotism as a citizen, and his fitness for the position to which he

was indubitably elected, but, having confidence in the wisdom and judgment of our delegates to the Cincinnati Convention, we leave them free to exercise their best discretion with reference to all matters that come before them.

7. To the extent of the powers of this body we instruct our delegates to vote as a unit on all questions and in all matters before the Cincinnati Convention.

8. We favor the retention of the two-thirds rule, and direct our delegates to give it their support.

In the Presidential election the Hancock and English electors received an average of 148,715 votes; the Garfield and Arthur electors, 105,961; the Weaver and Chambers electors, 11,423; and the Dow and Thompson electors, 257.

KIMBERLEY, JOHN WODEHOUSE, Earl of, Secretary of State for the Colonies, was born January 7, 1826, and educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated B. A., in 1847, taking a first class in classical honors. He succeeded his grandfather as third Baron Wodehouse in 1866, and was raised to the earldom for political reasons in 1866. He held the post of under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, under Lords Aberdeen and Palmerston, from 1852 to 1856, when he was appointed Ambassador at St. Petersburg. He returned from Russia in 1858, and resumed his former position as under-Secretary of State for foreign affairs in Lord Palmerston's second ministry. Retiring in 1861, he was sent on a special mission to obtain a settlement of the Schleswig-Holstein question. He was appointed, in October, 1864, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, in place of the late Earl of Carlisle, and retained that position until the resignation of Earl Russell's second administration, two years later. In Mr. Gladstone's former administration he held office from December, 1868, to July, 1870, as Lord Privy Seal, and from 1870 until 1874 as Colonial Secretary.

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LENOX, JAMES, the founder of the Lenox Library, died in New York on February 18th. He was the son of Robert Lenox, of Philadelphia, who moved to New York at the close of the Revolutionary War. He married a daughter of Nicholas Carmer, and purchased from the corporation of New York a farm at the Five Mile Stone. It covered about thirty acres in Fourth and Fifth Avenues, near Seventy-second Street. He purchased twelve acres on one side at a cost of five hundred dollars, and repented his bad bargain in buying the same number of acres on the other side, from the estate of his friend, Archibald Gracie, at \$10,700. He was far-seeing enough to bequeath it, from "a firm persuasion that it may at no distant day be the site of a village," to his son on conditions that prevented its sale for many years. At the time of his death, in 1830, he was considered one of the five wealthiest

men in New York. James Lenox, his only son, was born in August, 1800, at his father's residence, No. 59 Broadway. He was educated at Princeton College, and while there developed a taste for literature and art, which became the absorbing passion of his life. He studied law, but never practiced it. He went abroad shortly after his admission to the bar, and immediately began the collection of works of art and rare books, the foundation of his famous library. In 1863 the Commissioner of Streets began to cut streets through the Lenox farm, in pursuance of the plan of creating Central Park. In 1868 Mr. Lenox's property had so enhanced in value that he began to carry out his long-cherished plans. The Presbyterian Hospital was founded, and endowed with the land between Madison and Fourth Avenues, and Seventieth and Seventy-first Streets. He made further donations to it, amounting to

over a million of dollars. The following year he gave lots on Seventy-third Street, assessed at \$84,000, to the Presbyterian Home for Aged Women. In 1874 he gave the site of the Presbyterian Church on Seventy-third Street, estimated at \$100,000. On March 17, 1870, he conveyed the ten lots on the crest of the hill between Seventieth and Seventy-fifth Street, overlooking Central Park, for the erection of Lenox Library. The ground was valued at \$100,000. The building cost him \$450,000. The collection of books and works of art which it contains, the accumulation of a half century of assiduous labor, are beyond value. Mr. Lenox was almost a recluse in his habits. He was a member of the Chamber of Commerce, having been elected in 1830. He served as president of the Presbyterian Home, and was a member and regular attendant of the Presbyterian Church. But he was singularly reserved and retired in his habits. He was never seen in that older society of New York to which, by birth and connection, he belonged. He was never married. Of his seven sisters, two only survive him. His special request to his family and attendants was that no details of his life should be given for publication. But he was of that class of men who "do good by stealth, and blush to find it fame." His charity was unostentatious, but the magnificence of his gifts brought them before the world. They must preserve the memory of a public benefactor.

LESLIE, FRANK. This well-known publisher of numerous periodicals, illustrated ones especially, died at his residence in New York City on January 10, 1830, he being then fifty-nine years old. He had been for some time sick of a cancer, as the attending physicians pronounced it; but its deadly character was so little apprehended that, as late as one hour before he expired, the members of his family believed he was growing better, approaching convalescence. His real name was Henry Carter, born at Ipswich, England, in 1821, the son of Joseph Carter, a glove manufacturer of that place. *Frank Leslie* was assumed; a *nom d'art* it might perhaps be termed, as we call that a *nom de plume* under which many a writer gives his or her literary productions to the world. He passed his boyhood in his father's factory to learn the glove-making business; and, that he might perfect himself in it, he was sent to London at seventeen years of age, recommended to his uncle, who had an extensive dry-goods establishment in the capital, and who employed him as clerk in the glove department. Both at Ipswich, however, and more in London, he indulged his naturally predominant passion for drawing, sketching, and engraving, particularly on wood, devoting to knowledge and proficiency in art all of his free hours, and much also of the time which he should have given to duty as a trader's apprentice. His father and uncle, who destined him for trade, reproved him for his wander-

ing after art; and it was chiefly to escape detection and reproach from those to whom he naturally owed respect and deference that he sought to hide himself under the name of Frank Leslie. In his twentieth year he chose, and actually began to practice, art as his only pursuit in life. At that age he also married, and three sons have been born to him—Henry, Alfred, and Scipio, all of whom grew up to man's estate, the last named one having died in 1879. As to happiness in domestic life, however, his marriage proved an unfortunate one from the beginning; and, after nearly twenty years' continuance, ended in separation in 1860. In his career as an artist he started from the establishment of the "Illustrated London News," whose engraving department he took in charge. It was during his connection with that journal that he mastered the details and *minutiae* relating to an illustrated paper, which knowledge he turned to good account in after-life. In 1848 he emigrated from his native country and settled himself in New York City, and shortly after arrival had his family name, Henry Carter, formally changed into Frank Leslie by a special act of the Legislature. His first business connection in America was with the New York "Gleason's Pictorial." Some time later, when Phineas T. Barnum, with the Messrs. Beach, started their illustrated paper, Mr. Leslie was treated with to superintending the engravings. Mr. Barnum had so favorable an opinion of the young engraver's abilities that in a consultation with his associates he offered to double the twenty thousand dollars which he had already invested in the concern, on condition that its management should be placed in Frank Leslie's hands, which proposal was not accepted. Journalistic records attest that paper to have been short-lived. In 1854 Mr. Leslie embarked in the publishing business on his own account. He began with the "Gazette of Fashion," which was soon after followed by the "New York Journal." He purchased the "Journal" cheaply, as its gradually decreasing circulation in the hands of its former owner had been at that time run down to the lowest figure. Under Mr. Leslie's skillful management it very speedily became profitable. On December 14, 1855, he issued the first number of "Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper," the most noteworthy of his periodicals. The events regarded most stirring and important by the people of this country are found chronicled and illustrated in this paper as they successively occurred during the interval intervening between that date and Mr. Leslie's death—a quarter of a century; among others, the Burdell murder in Bond Street; the inauguration of President Buchanan, the first event of that kind ever illustrated in North America; the swill-milk horrors, for his action in exposing which Mr. Leslie received public recognition, and a public testimonial; the execution of John Brown; the great Lynn strike; the Japanese Commission; the first laying of the At-

lantic cable; the assassination of President Lincoln and other salient points of the late civil war; the Chicago and Boston conflagrations; and the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia.

In 1865 Mr. Leslie started the "Chimney Corner," the editing of which he intrusted to his second wife. He married her after his separation from the first had been legally effected; she also having previously been divorced from her husband, E. G. Squier, the archæologist. To her he assigned likewise the editing of the "Lady's Magazine," a continuation and enlargement of the "Gazette of Fashion," the first of his publications in order of time.

To these he then added in rapid succession the "Boys and Girls' Weekly"; "Pleasant Hours"; the "Lady's Journal," edited also by Mrs. Leslie; the "Popular Monthly"; the "Sunday Magazine"; the "Budget of Wit and Chatter-box"; and "Die illustirte Zeitung," in German.

Such novels as from time to time appeared in the columns of his periodicals he published in book form at their conclusion.

From these various publications, which proved generally profitable, Mr. Leslie gathered a great deal of money. From the "Chimney Corner" alone he is said to have cleared fifty thousand dollars in one year. The late civil war between North and South was to him a field of most abundant harvest, the circulation of his papers, chiefly the illustrated ones, having during that time exceedingly increased. A large portion of the money thus amassed he converted into houses and other immovable property, within the city and outside.

Occasionally, however, he sustained considerable losses, and more than once his financial condition was not a little embarrassed. He may, indeed, be said to have died in that condition.

In 1857, three years after he had commenced as a publisher, the state of his affairs was such that he should have stopped business but that his creditors granted him an extension of time for payment, during which respite he managed matters so well as to set himself on a firm footing again.

More seriously embarrassed were his affairs in 1877, when he was forced to surrender his property into the hands of a receiver, judicially appointed in the interest of his creditors. By an agreement which the parties concerned entered into at this time, the creditors retained Mr. Leslie as general manager of his publishing business, allowing him twenty per cent. of the profits for his use, which arrangement proved beneficial in its results, as, partly by a material reduction made in the running expenses of the establishment, and partly by the savings obtained from other details in conducting it, above a million dollars of Mr. Leslie's liabilities were, in a short time, cleared away. In April, 1879, he also judicially recovered a large proportion of his business.

One of his heaviest losses was of very recent

date—the publication of the "Historical Register of the Centennial Exhibition," in one volume, and it was caused by his eagerness in doing well what he had undertaken. This magnificent volume embodies a statement and discriminating record of the industrial competition of almost all the peoples on earth friendly assembled together, and represented, each by its own native deputies, at Philadelphia in 1876, the most noteworthy details of the exhibition being also illustrated through the entire volume in the best style of art Frank Leslie could command. The work was finished and published at an immense outlay of money; but, while, on account of contents and manner of execution, it is both valuable in itself and most creditable to the publisher, it proved a complete loss to him. It also involved him in a number of unpleasant lawsuits with his Philadelphia agents.

The public's appreciation of Frank Leslie in his chosen field of action was apparently such, besides the generally widespread reputation of his name, as must have gratified his sensibilities. In 1848, the year of his first arrival in this country, the American Institute of New York awarded to him the medal for wood engraving. In 1867, the State of New York appointed him her Commissioner for the Fine Arts Department to the Universal Exhibition held that year in the French capital; and at the close of it the Emperor Napoleon III personally presented him with the prize gold medal. Again, in 1876, the State of New York selected him as her Commissioner to the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, and his brother commissioners from the other States elected him president.

His standing in life's social relations with his fellow-citizens may appear from the fact that he had his family residence on Fifth Avenue, the most fashionable and costly location for private dwellings in the city, and was a member of the Manhattan and Jockey Clubs, neither of which admits persons into membership but such as hold a certain height of respectability in the public's eye. He was also a mason, and belonged to the so-called aristocratic Holland Lodge.

His hospitality was accounted boundless for the manner in which he entertained his friends and visitors at home, and the *fêtes* he gave at his rural residence, situate about midway between Saratoga and Lonely Lake, acquired for him a world-wide celebrity. Mr. Leslie passed much of his time at this residence, called from its location "Interlaken," and surrounded by an estate of six hundred acres of land.

A very commendable trait of Frank Leslie's character appears in the relations he held with his employees, who numbered for some time more than three hundred, the amount of money paid them for their work exceeding six thousand dollars weekly. He was beloved by them all, and deservedly, as the manner in which

he treated them was always remarkably kind, and, whenever occasion offered, more remarkably generous. To some among them, confined to a bed of sickness, or otherwise disabled for work, he continued the salary's full payment for months. One, being in a delicate state of health, he sent to Europe as a better means to recruit, taking upon himself the charge of all traveling expenses, besides continuing to pay the traveler's salary in full. He provided for the widow and children of another; and, generally, whenever any of his employees happened to die, leaving their families destitute, Frank Leslie made it his especial care to supply their wants.

LEWIS, Mrs. ESTELLA ANNA, best known to the world of letters by her *nom de plume* of "Stella," was the widow of Sydney B. Lewis, the intimate friend of Edgar Allan Poe. She was born in Maryland, the daughter of Mr. del Monti, a wealthy planter. While yet a schoolgirl, she translated the "Æneid" into English verse. She wrote a ballad, "The Forsaken," which Poe lauded extravagantly. Still very young, she published "Records of the Heart," a volume which had a wide circulation. Lamartine, who probably admired the woman better than he understood her poetry, called her the "Female Petrarch," as Poe had spoken of her as the rival of the poetess of Lesbos. She was well received in the literary circles of Paris, and by Napoleon III at the Tuileries. While in Italy she wrote her tragedy of "Helemar," which was published after her return to America in 1864. She was encouraged to begin "Sappho," her best dramatic work. It has reached a seventh edition, and has been translated into Romance, and played at Athens. Mrs. Lewis was a writer of society letters for the papers, and love-stories for the magazines. Her latest work was a series of sonnets, defending Poe from his slanderers. She died on November 24th in London.

LIBERIA, a negro republic in Western Africa. President, Anthony W. Gardner, assumed office January 7, 1878, reelected in 1880. Vice-President, D. B. Warner. The Cabinet consisted, in 1880, of the following members: Secretary of State, G. W. Gibson; Secretary of State and of War, W. H. Roe; Secretary of Interior, E. W. Blyden; Attorney-General, W. M. Davis.

The Senate consists of eight members, each of the four states or counties, Montserrado, Grand Bassa, Sincoe, and Maryland, sending two members to the Senate. The House of Representatives is composed of thirteen members. It is provided that, on the increase of population, each ten thousand persons will be entitled to an additional representative.

The Liberian Consul-General in England announced, in February, 1880, that he had been officially informed of the peaceable annexation to Liberia of a large and important tract of land known as the kingdom of Medina. The Consul-General says of the new land that it has an

abundance of the richest African products. Thousands and thousands of acres of gold and iron fields are found there; the forests are full of ebony wood, palms, gum, and gutta-percha trees, while the well-known Liberian coffee-tree grows wild in its native beauty up to thirty and forty feet of height. With this new acquisition, Liberia has opened still more widely the gate to Central Africa. The Medina Bofora-Land, with its 700,000 inhabitants, will constitute, with the exception of the rich coffee plantation on the St. Paul River, the richest and most densely peopled part of the republic.

The area of Liberia, exclusive of the new territory of Medina, is given by Boehm and Wagner ("Bevölkerung der Erde," vol. vi, 1880) at 49,077* square kilometres. The extent of Medina is not yet known. The population of Liberia within its former boundaries was estimated at 718,000, and that of Medina at 700,000. The capital, Monrovia, has about 3,000 inhabitants.

The republic has concluded treaties with Great Britain, Germany, France, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, America, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway, Portugal, Austro-Hungary, and Hayti.

The public revenue is estimated to amount annually to \$85,000 in paper currency, and the expenditures to \$120,000. In August, 1871, the foundation of a public debt was laid by contracting a loan of \$500,000, at 7 per cent. interest, to be redeemed in fifteen years.

The number of civilized negroes was estimated in 1873 at 20,000, and in 1878 at 19,000. In 1880 the Government itself officially claimed only 18,000. This shows a slight decrease during the last seven years, a remarkable fact, if it is taken into consideration that the American Colonization Society continues to encourage and to support emigration from the United States.

Ex-President Warner, in a letter dated December 6, 1878, gave the following account of the educational institutions of the country:

A fresh impulse to the educational department has been given by the reopening of the Methodist Episcopal seminary in Monrovia, which admits between its walls children of parents of the several denominations of Christians. At Bassa, a graduate of Liberia College has charge of a school in which the higher branches of studies are pursued. This is giving marked satisfaction in that country. The Alexander High School, now located in Clay Ashland, under the supervision and instruction of another graduate of Liberia College, is also doing good work; and the preparatory school in the college is being carried on with commendable energy and profit. The two schools at Arthington, aggregating seventy-eight scholars, and the school at Brewerville, numbering thirty, supported by the American Colonization Society, are in lively operation. The Government schools are adding their quota of instruction to as many as will attend them. Many circumstances combine to render a compulsory system of education here impracticable, but as the country rises to a higher sphere of civilization, and awakens to a keener sense of the great importance of an advanced standard of education, and of having an educated pop-

* The "Gotha Almanac" for 1881 gives 37,200 square kilometres, 18,000 civilized, and 1,050,000 uncivilized negroes.

ulation as a means of safety, it will establish this system and invest it with obligations that will insure it complete success.

LIGHTHOUSE ESTABLISHMENT, THE UNITED STATES. The lighthouse system of this country commenced with its commerce. There is little doubt but that the early colonists recognized the necessity for beacons with which to guide their home-returning shallops to a safe anchorage, and that they took effective means to show the English and Dutch ships, which should make their landfall at night, the safe way to their harbor. But the first authentic evidence of this being done at the public charge is the record of the proceedings of the General Court of the Province of Massachusetts Bay, from which it appears that on March 9, 1673, a petition came from the citizens of Nantasket, Massachusetts (now Hull), for the lessening of their taxes, because of the material and labor they had expended, over and above their proportion, in building the beacon on Point Allerton, the most prominent headland near the entrance to Boston Harbor. At that session also it appears that bills from Nantasket were paid for making and furnishing "fier-bales of pitch and ocum for the beacon at Allerton Point," which "fier-bales" were burned in an iron grate or basket on the top of a beacon, for the building of which Nantasket had furnished 400 boat-loads of stone.

The first lighthouse on this continent was built at the entrance to Boston Harbor, on Little Brewster Island, in 1715-'16, at a cost of £2,385 17s. 8½d. It was erected by the order and at the expense of the General Court of the Province of Massachusetts Bay, and it was supported by light-dues of 1d. per ton on all incoming and outgoing vessels, except coasters, levied by the Collector of Imports at Boston. The maritime colonies followed the example of Massachusetts, and when the United States, by the act of August 7, 1789, accepted the cession of the title to, and joint jurisdiction over, the lighthouses on the coasts, and agreed to maintain them thereafter, they were eight in number, and comprised the following lights, all of which are still in existence, though so greatly improved that they are the same only in purpose and in site:

Portsmouth, New Hampshire, Harbor Light; Boston Light, on Little Brewster Island; the Gurnet Light, near Plymouth, Massachusetts; Brant Point Light, on Nantucket, Massachusetts; Beaver Tail Light, on Conanicut Island, Rhode Island, in Long Island Sound; Sandy Hook Light, New Jersey, entrance to New York Harbor; Cape Henlopen, Delaware, at the entrance to Delaware Bay; Charleston Main Light, on Morris Island, entrance to the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina.

When the lights came into the possession of the General Government, they were placed under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, who seems to have given them his personal attention, but to have taken no im-

portant action without the direct approbation of the President.*

On May 8, 1792, the office of Commissioner of the Revenue was established, and the superintendence and control of the lights were devolved upon him. On April 6, 1802, this office was abolished, when the then Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Gallatin, resumed the control of the lights. Their management remained in the Secretary himself, who gave it much of his personal attention, until July 24, 1813, when, on the reestablishment of the office of Commissioner of the Revenue, the control of the lights became again a part of his work. That office was a second time abolished by the act of December 23, 1817, which went into operation on July 1, 1820, when all its duties, including those of superintending the lights, were devolved on the Fifth Auditor of the Treasury. During these thirty years that had elapsed since the lights had come under the control of the General Government, the number had been increased, under Congressional enactment, from 8 to 55; and each seems to have been built to meet immediate and pressing local want, and without reference to any general system.

The Fifth Auditor, Mr. Stephen Pleasanton, who was popularly known as the General Superintendent of Lights, accepted that duty in 1820, and continued in charge until 1852. During this time the establishment was increased from 55 lighthouses and a few buoys to 325 lighthouses, 35 light-ships, with numerous buoys, monuments, and other aids to navigation.

The General Superintendent of Lights was the officer who executed the orders of Congress, but to whom was delegated a certain discretionary power. Congress, in appropriating the funds for a light, usually fixed its location, its kind, and its order. He formulated the orders of Congress by advertising for proposals to build the kind of lighthouses desired, and signed the contract on the part of the Government. The collector of customs nearest to the location of the proposed light was usually made the local superintendent, and after he had selected the exact site, was furnished with a plan of the building, and was authorized to employ a suitable mechanic as overseer, who was to make sure of the quality of the material and labor used. Payments were made only on the certificate of this overseer. The local superintendent was expected to visit each lighthouse in his district yearly, in June, if possible, and to report to the General Superintendent in Washington the condition of each, and this was often done.

* As an instance of this, the following letter, the original of which hangs in the office of the Lighthouse Board, is here given:

MOUNT VERNON, October 12, 1790.

SIR: I have received your letter of the 5th instant. The public service requiring the arrangement which you have made relative to the lighthouses of Newport and Portland, they are perfectly agreeable to me, and receive my approbation. I am, sir, your most obedient servant,

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

To ALEXANDER HAMILTON, Esq., Secretary of the Treasury of the United States.

The lighthouses were kept in repair by contract; and it appears from the reports of the General Superintendent, that the repairs were, in his opinion, promptly and effectually made. The methods of supplying the lights varied, apparently with their increase in number. When Mr. Gallatin was Secretary of the Treasury, oil and money to purchase other supplies were furnished to a contractor, who made a yearly visit to each light, to keep the illuminating apparatus in repair, and, at the same time, supplied the illuminant, wicks, chimneys, and cleaning-stores. This was not difficult when there were but some fifty lights; but Mr. Pleasanton found, as their number increased, a new method of supply was necessary. He accordingly advertised for proposals to furnish all the supplies needed for the whole lighthouse establishment, and to keep all the illuminating apparatus in complete repair for a given sum per lamp per year, and made a contract with the lowest bidder, to continue for five years, paying him \$35.87 per lamp per year to supply everything necessary for keeping up the lights. The contractors were, also, to visit each lighthouse annually, and report on its condition, specifying the repairs needed to each structure, as well as to its illuminating apparatus; and they were also to report on the conduct and ability of the keepers. And the keepers were to report on the quality of the supplies furnished, and on the condition of the illuminating apparatus and buildings. This plan Mr. Pleasanton reported as working satisfactorily to the Government.

Meantime, complaints were made in various quarters as to the efficiency of the lighthouse establishment. The Messrs. E. & G. W. Blunt, of New York City, the publishers of Blunt's "Coast Pilot," were among the more prominent complainants, or, rather, they forwarded to Washington the complaints made to them by shipmasters, and thus they were brought into antagonism with the General Superintendent of Lights, who felt called upon to defend his administration. An account of this was laid before the Senate, by the Secretary of the Treasury, on January 26, 1838, in response to its resolution of inquiry made the day previous.

Mr. Pleasanton had referred to the charge of the Messrs. Blunt, "that the lighthouse establishment was badly managed." The Blunts, on November 30, 1837, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, undertook to show that the annual sums appropriated by Congress were not judiciously or energetically used. Among other things, they said that "the establishment has increased beyond the ability of any single individual at Washington to superintend it in its more important details, and the efficiency of the whole has become greatly lessened. The intelligent gentleman who, for so many years, has had the general superintendence of the lights, has had but little assistance of the proper kind; he has been compelled to rely too much on contractors;

and the representations of contractors will always be favorable. The duties of the office of Superintendent of Lights at Washington coming immediately under the direction of the present incumbent have been conducted, to the best of our knowledge, with skill and promptitude; but those duties have been, for many years, almost necessarily confined to the payment of salaries and contractors and other financial matters; and there can be no doubt this least important part of the whole system has been exceedingly well managed."

Meantime, Congress had been so profuse in its appropriations for lighthouses that the propriety of erecting those for which funds had been more recently appropriated was questioned. So, on March 3, 1837, it was provided, in the act making appropriation for building a large number of lighthouses, light-boats, buoys, etc., that, before any of these improvements should be commenced, the Board of Naval Commissioners should cause an examination to ascertain whether the safety of navigation required any additional facilities, and, if so, what was most suitable for each place, and to report their opinion in regard to all such places to the Secretary of the Treasury, who should proceed with the work so recommended; and that, if the board should advise that the improvements were not needed, they should not be made, and the commissioners' opinions, with the facts, should be reported to Congress.

The Navy Department detailed twenty-two officers on this duty, and, as the Treasury Department placed at their disposal its revenue-cutters, they were enabled to carry out their orders, which were quite precise, and to make their report to the Commissioners, in time for them to report to Congress, by the end of the year, their recommendations, which in effect arrested the erection of thirty-one of the proposed lighthouses, for which \$168,700 had been appropriated. In concluding their report, the Navy Commissioners said:

When the great importance of the lighthouse system is considered, in relation to the safety of human life and of the vast amounts of property, to the facilities and rapidity of communication which it gives between different parts of our extensive Atlantic and Lake coasts, and to the cost of establishing and supporting it, the board would respectfully suggest whether some additional measures may not be desirable for obtaining the necessary information to secure the greatest public advantage for the expenditures which may hereafter be authorized for these purposes.

On March 22, 1838, the Senate

Resolved, That the Committee on Commerce be instructed to inquire into the expediency of importing one or more sets of the most approved apparatus, now employed on the coast of Europe in the lighthouses; and

That the same committee be instructed to inquire whether a more efficient, safe, and useful system of locating, constructing, lighting, and managing the lighthouses necessary for our coasts may not be adopted.

On May 10, 1838, the Committee on Com-

merce made report. Among other things, it said:

The committee fully concur with the Navy Board that legislation should proceed on more safe and satisfactory information. Hitherto, Congress had before it, when proceeding to authorize the erection of new houses, little information beyond the loose, irresponsible statements of petitioners, most of whom were in many instances unknown, and there is too much reason for believing that those most active in getting up these petitions have been persons interested in their success, that some importance might be given to an unfrequented harbor where they had lands; that they might be made superintendents of lights, or make sale of the sites, or get a contract, or be benefited in some other way which had no connection with the public interest, beyond making it subserve their own. Legislation should proceed upon a more safe and satisfactory basis.

The result of the discussion which followed this report was the insertion in the current appropriation act for building lighthouses, etc., approved July 7, 1838, clauses providing, among other things, that the Secretary of the Treasury import two sets of lenticular apparatus, and one set of the reflector apparatus—all of the most improved kinds—to have them set up, and their merits, as compared with the apparatus in use, tested by satisfactory experiments; and \$15,000 were appropriated for that purpose; that Congress may be furnished with more exact information in regard to the lighthouse system, the President divide the Lake and Atlantic coasts into districts, and appoint a naval officer to examine each district whose duty it shall be to inspect all the lighthouses, etc., and to report upon their present condition and usefulness; also to report whether the public emergencies require any, and, if any, what further additional lighthouse works, and of what kind; and also to report whether any modification of the system of erecting, superintending, and managing the lighthouses, etc., is required, and, if so, in what particulars; also that these officers were to examine and determine whether it was expedient to construct the specified lighthouses.

Under this act the President divided the Atlantic coast into six and the Lake coast into two districts, and in August, 1838, an officer of the navy was detailed to each; a revenue-cutter or a hired vessel was assigned to him, and he was instructed by General Superintendent Pleasanton, on August 4, 1838, to make his examinations and reports as soon as possible, that their result might be communicated to Congress.

These officers presented a detail of facts that deserved grave attention. Their reports showed much of poor management, and something of a lack of energy, while certain minor deficiencies were pointed out with fullness of statement. But, while details were severely criticised, more fault was found with the system itself than with its administration. Lieutenant Bache's report is noticeable for its presentation of a plan for a new system, somewhat like that which is now actually in operation.

Mr. Pleasanton met the criticisms in these reports by confession and avoidance. If too many lights had been established, and if some were in wrong places, as charged, it was the fault of Congress. If they were not well built, it was the fault of contractors or collectors. But, in the light of the facts given in the reports, it would be possible to remedy the errors of detail, and he should do so as rapidly as the funds at his disposal would permit. He did not, however, admit that the system could be improved except in its administration.

On February 18, 1842, the House of Representatives

Resolved, That the Committee on Commerce inquire into the expenditures of the lighthouse establishment since the year 1816, including expenditures for building and repairing lighthouses, light-ships, beacons, and every work embraced under this general head, and make their report of the result of their inquiries; and also to examine into the propriety of reorganizing this establishment; of changing the mode of its superintendency, and equalizing the compensation given to them and to the light-house keepers, and the keepers of other lights, buoys, etc., and the propriety of suppressing some of the posts of this establishment, and of so modifying the laws and practices under them in reference to this establishment as to secure strict observation of the duties of superintendents and keepers of lights; and to report the result of their examinations to this House, with such plans as they may agree upon, tending to reduce the annual expenditures of this establishment, and to improve the facilities and safety to navigation.

Resolved, That the Committee on Commerce be instructed to inquire into the expediency of providing by law for a retrenchment of the expenditure and better regulation of the lighthouse department; and, also, whether the same ought not to be placed under the charge of the Topographical Bureau.

On May 25, 1842, the committee made a careful, and apparently an exhaustive report, tabulating the expenses of the establishment year by year, and taking a kindly view of its administration, as the following extracts will show:

From July, 1820, when the number of lighthouses was fifty-five, to the present year, when the number of lighthouses is two hundred and fifty-six, of light-boats thirty, of beacons about thirty-five, and of buoys nearly one thousand, the establishment has been under the charge of the present general superintendent, the Fifth Auditor of the Treasury. It might well be expected that a twenty-two years' service would have given to the incumbent an experience and a practical knowledge of his business, which should not, for slight causes, be lost to the public. A transfer of his duties to other and inexperienced hands could not but be attended with derangements, and, probably, with an increased expenditure. It has now a good degree of method, system, and economy; and with some improvements, particularly in regard to inspection, it is believed that our establishment may, with no disadvantage, compare with that of any other nation. Every innovation is not an improvement. When an old and well-tried system works tolerably well, change and experiments should be avoided. More time and further experience will furnish correctives far better than any which may be anticipated from a change of system, and a displacement of those who have thus far given that system a claim upon the confidence of the country. That complaints, to some extent, have been made, is true; and that complaints would be made occasionally, under any mode of administration, is equally true; but, taking into account the magnitude of the estab-

ishment, the multiplicity of its details, and the large number of agents necessarily in its service, it seems to the committee that it merits no little commendation. In the opinion of the committee, a transfer of the duties of the Treasury Department, imposed by law in regard to our lighthouse establishment, is not called for by the public good.

The appointment of inspectors, whose duty it should be to devote their entire time, under the direction of the general superintendent, to frequent examinations of the lighthouses, light-boats, buoys, etc., would be attended with no great increase of expense. The amount now paid to the collectors acting as superintendents is about eleven thousand dollars. There is already attached to the establishment a small vessel. That, with the addition of another, and the salaries of two inspectors for the two districts on the Atlantic coast, bays, etc., if two should be deemed necessary, the increase of expense will be inconsiderable. The frequent reports of these inspectors to the general superintendent would enable him at all times to know the precise condition and order of the establishment, and to increase its efficiency, usefulness, and economy.

As Congress coincided with its committee, no further legislative action was then taken on the subject.

On the day that the Committee on Commerce reported to the House of Representatives, Mr. Forward, then Secretary of the Treasury, appointed Mr. I. W. P. Lewis, a civil engineer of high repute, as agent to visit certain lighthouses, and to make an examination of their positions, and of the floating lights, beacons, and buoys, and to report generally, and in particular on specified points which covered a large range, including mooted points, as to the management of the lights.

On January 31, 1843, Mr. Lewis made his report, which was soon submitted to Congress by Secretary Forward, with recommendations. The agent had inspected seventy lighthouses in Maine, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, or one third of all in the establishment. He reported as to the condition of each with such a reckless vigor that Mr. Pleasanton, in his reply, made after Mr. Spencer had succeeded Mr. Forward as Secretary of the Treasury, characterized Mr. Lewis's report as "these calumnies," and spoke of himself as "having been grossly misrepresented by him."

Relative to this controversy, a prominent Boston journal said:

The report that resulted from this partial survey was a severe blow to the defenders of the old system; and, if the Government had possessed the proper energy and vigilance, such an array of facts could not have been passed over unnoticed. A most important benefit, however, resulted to the public from the detail of the defective condition of the lighthouses, and particularly as to the illuminating apparatus contained in this report of Mr. I. W. P. Lewis; for it compelled the General Superintendent of lighthouses to bestir himself, and get things a little more to rights. All the prominent coast lights received new lanterns and apparatus, as fast as the contractor could supply them, and many of the minor lights were similarly renovated. The public mind was also directed to the subject, in consequence of the attacks brought upon Mr. Lewis by his temerity in exposing the actual condition of things; and the subject has by slow degrees begun to assume that importance which so properly belongs to it.

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But Secretary Forward, on February 24, 1843, in transmitting Mr. Lewis's report to Congress, accompanied it with recommendations, indicating on his part, at least, a comprehension of the fact that the system in vogue was not equal to the requirements made upon it by the country's commerce. Among other things, he suggested "that no appropriation be made thereafter for the erection of a new lighthouse until the necessity for such a light shall have been ascertained by a competent engineer, who shall report on its necessity, on the site to be selected, and shall submit a suitable plan, estimate, and specification, for the required buildings; also detailing the magnitude of the light required, and its distinctive character, with a view to render it intelligible to seamen, if established—all of which shall be submitted to Congress for such action as may be then deemed proper; that, whenever the repairs of lighthouse buildings or floating lights called for exceed five hundred dollars, the nature and extent of such repairs, and their probable cost, shall be carefully estimated and reported before they shall be authorized; and that contracts shall be made where the expenditure for the construction or repairs of land and floating lights exceed five hundred dollars, which contracts shall be filed in the Treasury; that the system of illumination, and whatever is connected with the lighting apparatus, shall be placed under the supervision of the engineer, who shall report the alterations or improvements, if any, which may be required, such report to be approved before the work is authorized; that, for the attainment of these purposes, the Secretary of the Treasury be empowered to appoint a competent scientific and practical engineer, with a salary of three thousand dollars, whose whole time shall be devoted to the regulation of the details of the lighthouse system, and who shall annually report the condition of the lighthouse establishment, and its wants for the coming year, with detailed estimates, and such other information as comes within the scope of his duties, for the information of the Treasury and of Congress."

Congress adjourned before action was had, and the matter went over with many others to the next session.

On June 19, 1845, the then Secretary of the Treasury, Hon. R. J. Walker, had Lieutenants Thornton A. Jenkins and Richard Bache detailed for that purpose from the navy, and sent abroad "to procure information which may tend to the improvement of the lighthouse system of the United States; and, as it is alleged that important improvements have been made in the lighthouses of Europe, especially in those of France and Great Britain, the Department wishes to understand fully what those improvements are, and if they are adapted to introduction into our country." They were especially directed to procure information as to the organization of lighthouse systems; the construction of lighthouses; the lighting ap-

paratus used abroad; attendance on lights and its expense and efficiency; and as to buoys and their appendages. They were also required to make full descriptive reports, with recommendations; and they were to visit some of our own lighthouses, to compare them with those they had seen while abroad. Lieutenants Jenkins and Bache spent the greater part of the next year in Great Britain and on the Continent, and, after a tour among the principal lighthouses of this country, on June 22, 1846, made a report with recommendations for the "reorganization of the lighthouse establishment by the appointment of an engineer and optician, and a number of district superintendents to assist the general superintendent, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury."

Under this organization the duties of the general superintendent were to be slightly changed; the engineer was to make the plans, drawings, and specifications of works, assist in the selection of sites, superintend the construction and repairs of all towers and buildings, and inspect, at least once a year, the principal light stations; the optician was to superintend the construction of and to test all illuminating apparatus, make experiments upon apparatus and illuminants, and visit all the lights once a year, to direct repairs and adjustments of illuminating apparatus, which would take all the time of the engineer and optician.

The coasts were to be divided into ten districts, and each was to be placed in charge of an officer of the navy as district superintendent, who was to inspect monthly the lighthouses, at least, who was to establish positions of the aids to navigation by angles, bearings, etc., attend to the buoys, etc., and make regular reports to the central office. They also earnestly recommended the substitution of the French lenticular apparatus for the reflectors then in use. They argued in favor of the economy of the change, and detailed the manner in which it might be effected.

The Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Walker, in transmitting the report to Congress, after stating that the suggestions for the improvement of the system met his hearty concurrence, said: "The report of the inspecting officers detailed from the navy to examine the lights on our coasts showed their absolute defects; the present report shows their deficiencies as compared with other countries. The trial made of one of the French lights at Sandy Hook, entrance to New York Harbor, has been very successful, but the use of this apparatus has not been extended." The Secretary then discussed the propriety of the changes, and stated that the existing laws still required the use of the old-fashioned reflectors in lighthouses. He concluded with the following suggestions in the interest of reorganization:

"It is obvious that a very considerable range of practical and theoretical knowledge is required for the improvement of the system;

more than can be looked for from one individual, however eminent in science. The proper organization of the system and planning of its details require the efficient head of a bureau familiar with the working of a general organization—a person capable of furnishing information in regard to the coasts and harbors from actual surveys; persons minutely acquainted with the wants of navigation, with the details of location and construction of the lighthouses, and with the chemical and mechanical principles involved in lighting. While this knowledge can not be obtained from one person, a board may be organized, without expense to the Government, by which the system may be considered in all its particulars, and an efficient plan of action recommended. Such a board might consist of the Fifth Auditor, the Superintendent of the Coast Survey, two naval officers, two engineer officers (one military, the other a topographical engineer), and a secretary, who might be a junior officer of the navy. By their action a plan might be prepared which would secure approval, and provide for the necessary progress of our system of lighthouses, and our other aids to navigation. I would, in conclusion, respectfully request from Congress the authority to organize such a board, and to execute the plans which they may suggest, as far as practicable, under existing laws regulating this branch of the public service."

Congress received this report and these recommendations, as it had those previously presented, and, as before, without immediate action. But on March 3, 1851, an act of Congress was approved, in which the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to put the Fresnel illuminating apparatus into lighthouses as rapidly as he thought best; to appoint a board of proper persons to inquire into the condition of the establishment, and make a detailed report and programme to guide legislation in extending and improving the system of construction, illumination, inspection, and superintendence; and to detail engineer officers from the army to superintend the construction and renovation of future lighthouses. On May 21, 1851, Mr. Corwin, the Secretary of the Treasury, constituted and instructed this board. It consisted of Commodore W. B. Shubrick, U. S. Navy, as President, Commander S. F. Du Pont, U. S. Navy, General Jos. G. Totten, U. S. Engineers, Colonel James Kearney, U. S. Topographical Engineers, Professor A. D. Bache, Superintendent U. S. Coast Survey, and Lieutenant T. A. Jenkins, U. S. Navy, Secretary.

On January 30, 1852, the board made an elaborate report of seven hundred and sixty pages, illustrated by forty plates, and with numerous wood-cuts, embodying the scientific and practical information necessary to a clear understanding of the lighthouse system. The examinations extended into the construction of towers, dwellings, and illuminating apparatus, included a careful investigation of the manner in which keepers performed their du-

ties; of the ability and fidelity of the inspectors; of the mode of supplying the establishment with oil and other stores, and of the method of making contracts and testing supplies. It contrasted our methods with the lighthouse administration of Great Britain and France. Every source of reliable information seems to have been explored to reach a true estimate of the merits and defects of our system. The board recommended that the lights be classified, after the French method, into orders, to be followed by a system of designation. The orders running from one to six would indicate the magnitude or intensity of the light—the first order being the largest. The designation would define its characteristic, as fixed, flashing, revolving, red, white, or a combination of these qualities. Then it recommended the general adoption of the Fresnel lenticular system of illuminating apparatus, in place of the old system of illumination by the Argand lamp and parabolic reflector. And it also recommended a more vigorous administration of the establishment, and to that end the erection of a board much after the French plan, which should combine in it all the scientific experience necessary to the highest success in illumination, construction, hydrography, engineering, knowledge of the needs of commerce, and especially of administration. It recognized the services of Mr. Pleasanton, who had administered the lighthouse service for over thirty years, bringing it up from twenty-five lights to three hundred, saying that "great credit is due to the zeal and faithfulness of the General Superintendent and to the spirit of economy which he has shown," which spirit, perhaps, accounted for the "lack of zeal exhibited for the adoption of modern improvements"; but they asserted the impossibility that any one man should be able then to handle the system, and the necessity of organization and subdivision, and for a system comprehending the great and varied requirements necessary to a successful administration of the many separate and distinct interests constituting the establishment, and bringing all under the consideration and final direction of a central head, which they proposed should be, instead of one man, a board of experts, having, or capable of obtaining, the knowledge necessary to every detail of each branch of the great and still growing establishment. This report was referred by the Senate to its Committee on Commerce on February 5, 1852, but was taken up for action in the House of Representatives, which embodied the plans it suggested in an appropriation bill, which passed both houses, and was approved August 31, 1852, by the President. This organic act, constituting the Lighthouse Board as it now exists, is contained in the last nine sections of the act providing for the civil and diplomatic expenses of the Government for the year ending June 30, 1853. This act required the President, immediately after its passage, to appoint two officers

of the navy of high rank, two engineer officers of the army, and two civilians of high scientific attainments, whose services might be at the disposal of the President, an officer of the navy and an officer of the engineers of the army as secretaries who should constitute the United States Lighthouse Board; the board to be attached to the office of the Secretary of the Treasury, and under his superintendence to discharge all the administrative duties relating to the construction, illumination, inspection, and superintendence of lighthouses, light-vessels, beacons, buoys, sea-marks, and their appendages, and embracing the security of foundations of existing works, procuring illuminating and other apparatus, supplies, and materials of all kinds for building and rebuilding, and keeping in good repair buildings, vessels, and buoys of the United States. The Secretary of the Treasury was to be president, but the board was to elect from its own number a member to act as chairman in the president's absence. The board was to meet quarterly, and as much oftener as might be found necessary; and to it was to be transferred all the archives, books, documents, models, drawings, apparatus, returns, etc., belonging to the lighthouse establishment of the United States, together with the clerical force employed on lighthouse work.

The board was required to arrange the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific coasts of the United States into twelve lighthouse districts, and an officer of the army or navy was to be assigned to each as lighthouse inspector under its orders.

The board was to make and promulgate, with the approbation of the Secretary of the Treasury, rules and regulations necessary for securing an efficient, uniform, and economical system of administration. It was to have prepared, by its engineer-secretary, or other engineer officers of the army under its orders, the plans, drawings, specifications, and estimates of cost of all illuminating and other apparatus, of construction and repair of towers and buildings. It was to procure by public contract all material for the construction and repair of lighthouses, light-vessels, beacons, buoys, etc., and all construction and repairs were to be made under the superintendence of its engineer-secretary. It was to furnish estimates of all the expenses which the several branches of the lighthouse establishment might require, and to make a full annual report. Its members were to receive no pay for their services other than that they received in the army, navy, or civil service, and they were prohibited from having any interest in any lighthouse contracts, as were all others in the lighthouse service. Each of those who had served on the provisional board was appointed on the permanent board, and its organization was completed by adding to it Professor Joseph Henry, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, and Captain E. L. F. Hardcastle, U. S. Engineers,

the latter as its engineer-secretary. The board met on October 9, 1852, and elected Commodore Shubrick as its chairman; and then it arranged to receive from the General Superintendent the property of the lighthouse establishment, and to make the necessary rules and regulations for its governance. Those who had made the programme which had guided legislation to the creation of this board, and who had in mind all the details necessary for carrying out the plan, and who had the necessary industry, perseverance, and patience to put them into operation; those who knew all the defects of the service and all the excellencies of the French service on which the new establishment was to be modeled; those who had so much at heart the interests of the plan, and who had staked their reputation on its success, were appointed on the board. And their zeal was tempered by the addition to it of the calm wisdom of Professor Henry, whose habits of patient investigation, and impartial decision on the weight of ascertained authority, and whose already great reputation as a physicist, would go far to prevent any unnecessary changes or any hasty action.

The plans proposed by the provisional board to Congress, and formulated in the organic act, were put into operation by the permanent board as rapidly as existing law and the funds at the control of the board would permit.

An inspector, who was either an army or a navy officer, and, as soon as needed, an engineer officer from the army were assigned to each lighthouse district. The inspectors, under the charge of the naval secretary, who also had charge, in the absence of the chairman, of the office of the board, were charged with the maintenance of the lights and lighthouses and with the discipline of the light-keepers. The district engineers, under the direction of the engineer-secretary, were charged with building the lighthouses, with keeping them in repair, and with the purchase, the setting up, and the repairs of the illuminating apparatus. Both inspectors and engineers made regular and special reports to the board, acting always under its direction, and the board made a full annual report to the Secretary of the Treasury, who, in turn, made a full annual report to Congress. The board assigned its members first to an executive committee, and then divided them into committees on finance, engineering, light-vessels, lighting and experiments, and placed that one of its members most expert on each particular branch at the head of the committee having charge of that branch. The committee on light-vessels was afterward charged with the care of buoys also, when it was called the "committee on floating aids to navigation." In after-years, the committee on the location of all aids to navigation was added. The executive committee, consisting of the chairman and the two secretaries, were in perpetual session, carrying on the routine business of the establishment, while the other committees met

frequently, and the full board met monthly, or oftener, though required by law to meet but once a quarter.

The board, finding, from the experience of the keepers of the lights at Navesink, that the lenticular apparatus could be managed by the average light-keeper after instruction by an expert, and that its use was more economical in oil than was the reflector apparatus, pushed its substitution with vigor, and, as they had anticipated, with a diminution of the annual expenditure for oil.

It perfected the classification of lights, and so differentiated them by proper distinctions that mariners were enabled to identify and recognize each light. It substituted lighthouses for light-ships, wherever practicable, as rapidly as desirable, thereby making large saving in expense for maintenance without diminution of the light produced. When sperm-oil became too expensive for economical use, the board cast about for a substitute for it as a lighthouse illuminant, and after trying and discarding colza, a vegetable oil, it finally, after much experimentation, adopted lard-oil, at a large saving in cost, and without diminution of light. And again, twenty years after, when it was evident that a further economy could be made, it substituted mineral oil for lard-oil, after much tentative action, resulting in the invention and manufacture of lamps for its proper combustion. It has tested gas as a lighthouse illuminant without finding it adapted to the purpose, although it still has several stations lighted with gas from the neighboring cities, and one series of stations lighted with compressed gas made by its employees.

It has carefully watched the results of the experiments made in other countries with the electric light, and has given much attention to the various methods of producing it, without result, however, as Congress has thus far failed to act on the board's suggestion to provide means for its practical test in a lighthouse. By a long series of investigations into the laws of sound, it ascertained the principles on which fog-signals, as aids to navigation, were to be constructed, and giving them to the public, accelerated the invention of proper machines, stimulated their manufacture, and then put them into operation without other expense to the Government than their purchase.

When the commerce on the Mississippi had induced Congress to authorize aids for river navigation, the board devised and put into operation a system of lights which has revolutionized steamboat navigation, making it so safe that the boats which tied up at night now run as by day, and that at a small cost, as compared with the expense of the lights on the ocean and even on the lake coasts.

The board has organized and built up by degrees a corps of intelligent light-keepers, who, entering the service in its lowest rank, after examination are eligible to promotion in grade and pay according to merit, as vacancies occur,

whose tenure of office is practically during good behavior, where transfers in location are made when the wishes of the keepers and the wants of the service coincide, and whose physical and mental welfare are carefully looked after, that they may be contented in their responsible and isolated situations.

The board has had the services of some of the brightest and most active minds in the American navy. The lighthouse service has, like the Coast Survey, come to be regarded as a training-school for young officers and as a field for the best efforts of those higher in rank. The roll of lighthouse inspectors contains the names of the flower of the navy; hence it is no source of wonder that a tour of lighthouse duty is sought by the more ambitious and studious of our naval officers, and that the service has its choice from among the best of them in times of peace.

The army has also been well represented in the lighthouse service. On the list of the lighthouse engineers will be found many of the names which have given our military establishment reputation if not fame, and such have been their victories in solving the problems of sub-aqueous structures, and in opposing successful resistance to the violent attacks of the elements under the most discouraging circumstances, that it is a question whether those names connected with the erection of certain lighthouses will not live when history has let die the memory of their brilliant military achievements.

The civil service has been well represented on the board itself, in connection with the army and the navy, by such men as Professors Bache, Peirce, Henry, and Morton, who have acted as the scientific advisers of the service, and whose names are identified with the solution of problems in physics which have been worked out under their direction in methods for guiding mariners by light at night, and by sound when light was unavailable. Something of the operations of the Lighthouse Board will be detailed in its proper place.

The lighthouses on the New England coast were constructed previous to 1840 in two forms, namely: conical towers of rubble-stone masonry and wooden frame towers erected upon the roofs of the keepers' dwellings. The stone towers were built on the natural rock, from stone split from the adjacent ledges or from pieces collected on the beach, sometimes even from fragments of the cliffs rounded by attrition in the surf. The walls were usually three feet thick at the base, tapering to two feet at the top, and the towers varied in height from twenty to fifty feet. At the top of the tower and within the walling of rubble, a dome of brick was turned, with a square opening near the springing-line on one side, forming a scuttle entrance to the lantern. On this brick dome, a flat roof composed of slabs of stone four inches thick was laid, projecting over the walls of the tower from six to

twelve inches. The lanterns were attached to the towers by imbedding the lower ends of their iron angle-posts into the masonry of the walls some three or four feet, and the entire construction of the towers was rude in kind.

The wooden towers erected on the keepers' dwellings were framed into the roof of the house. The angle-posts rested on the attic floor-beams unsupported by studding; consequently the framing of the house-roof was distorted by the swaying lateral motion of the tower in storms, and there was necessarily some leakage.

In 1847 the construction of six difficult lighthouse structures was devolved by Congress on the topographical engineers of the army. They used the iron pile system, when applicable, and made numerous improvements in the combination of the framework, in making appropriate arrangement of elevated apartments for the keepers, in making disk pile foundations for coral or incrustated bottoms, and in improved devices for the foundations. Captain W. H. Swift, of this corps, rebuilt the Black Rock beacon in Long Island Sound, some four and a half miles from Bridgeport, Connecticut. Three successive stone beacons, costing together some \$21,000, had, in the course of twelve years, been demolished. Captain Swift, at a cost of but \$4,600, erected a pile beacon thirty-four feet above low water, three feet higher than any of its predecessors, which is still standing. An artificial foundation was made by placing six twelve-ton stones partly in an excavation, and by bedding them in concrete, making a solid platform, and setting into it five wrought-iron periphery piles and one center pile, measuring from three to five and a half inches in diameter. They were sunk through holes drilled to receive them, rose in the form of a conic frustum, and were solidly joined together, and properly capped at the top.

A pile structure was also erected on Minot's Ledge, in the open sea, near Boston Bay, in 1847-'8, by Captain Swift, but it was destroyed by the storm of 1851, and the keepers lost their lives. It was based on the solid rock by drilling holes five feet deep, in which one center and eight periphery eight-inch wrought-iron foundation piles were wedged, and so placed as to form an octagon twenty-five feet in diameter at the bottom and fourteen feet at the top, which had an elevation of sixty feet. On this was placed the lantern, making the height of the whole edifice about seventy feet. The structure was stiffened by a complex system of diagonal bracing connecting the piles. Whatever may have caused the overthrow of the lighthouse—and that is still a mooted question—it does not appear to have been owing to any fault of the rock fastenings, as the piles were broken or twisted off, leaving stumps from four to six feet long in their original places.

Brandywine Shoal, in Delaware Bay, about eight miles from the ocean, was begun in 1848

and lighted in 1850, costing \$53,317 for the lighthouse, and \$11,485 for the surrounding ice-breaker. This was the first lighthouse built in the United States on the Mitchell screw-pile, which takes its name from the inventor of its broad helicoidal flange, like an augur pod, which, by merely turning, is bored into a sand, mud, or other penetrable bottom, so as to form a foundation with a broad bearing, on which the weight of a columnar structure may be safely diffused, and to which it is firmly fastened. This structure has a light forty-six feet above sea-level, and is independent of the ice-breaker, which is a pier of thirty screw-piles, each twenty-three feet long and five inches through, connected at their heads, near low water, by spider-web braces, by which a shock on one pile is communicated to all. The lighthouse is in good condition, as is its ice pier, which has been reinforced. It was designed and built by Major Hartman Bache, then of the corps of Topographical Engineers of the army.

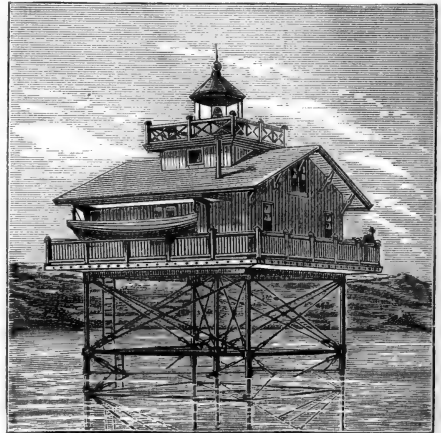
An iron-pile lighthouse was begun for Carysfort Reef, Florida, in 1848, and finished in 1852. It stands on a coral reef in the Gulf Stream in four and one half feet water, and is one hundred and twelve feet high. It is founded on a hard exterior coral crust, above a softer mass of calcareous sand; hence, screw-piles bored through the crust would have an insufficient bearing. On this account, large iron foot-plates were used to diffuse the pressure over the one hundred and thirty square feet of surface crust, and the piles, passing through center-eyes in the plates, were driven ten feet into the sand, or until their under shoulders were lodged on the bed-plates. Nine eight-inch piles constitute the center and angles of an octagon, and the aggregate column gets rigidity from a peculiar system of cross-ties and braces. The keepers live on the structure in an elevated house. The whole was made, framed, tied together, and set up for trial in Philadelphia, so as to obviate the necessity of fitting parts at its isolated site. Its cost is stated at \$105,069 for the entire structure.

Sand Key lighthouse is built on a plan somewhat like that of Carysfort, but it stands in deeper water, on screw-piles; its focal plane is one hundred and twenty-one feet above the foundation; it cost \$101,520, was completed in 1853, and it has proved its complete stability. It was built by the late Major-General George G. Meade, then a lieutenant of Topographical Engineers, who also built an iron screw-pile lighthouse on the flats in Key West Harbor, and the important pile beacon on Rebecca Shoals, since destroyed and rebuilt, and several other lighthouses.

But the most important lighthouse built by General Meade was that on Coffin's Patches, or Sombbrero Key, on the Florida Reef, about fifty miles east of Key West. It stands in eight feet of water, and shows a light about one hundred and forty feet above the sea, illuminating

a range of over twenty statute miles. The twelve-inch wrought-iron foundation-piles rest centrally on cast-iron disks eight feet in diameter, and go ten feet into the rock. They stand at the angles and center of an octagon fifty-six feet across, and are braced by horizontal radial and periphery ties of five-inch round iron. The frame rises from this foundation pyramidal in shape, in six sections, with a diameter of fifty-six feet at the bottom, tapering to fifteen feet at the top. All the shafts, except those of the lower series, are of hollow cast iron. The keeper's dwelling, in the second section, is thirty feet square, and of boiler-iron lined with wood. A circular stairway ascends to the lantern, in a cylinder of boiler-iron lined with wood. The entire structure, illuminating apparatus included, cost about \$120,000, is still standing, and is in excellent condition.

There are now, principally in the Southern waters, more than fifty iron-pile lighthouses; some with and some without screws, and of a variety of detail and size. The following cut shows a specimen of the screw-pile river or harbor lighthouse. It is a representation



HARBOR SCREW-PILE LIGHTHOUSE ON CEDAR POINT, POTOMAC RIVER, VIRGINIA.

of the lighthouse on Cedar Point, Potomac River, Virginia.

Fowey Rocks lighthouse was commenced in 1875, and finished and lighted on June 15, 1878. It is on the extreme northern point of the Florida reefs. It is of iron, and rests on nine piles driven about ten feet into the live coral rock. The different parts were made by three different contractors, but they were fitted together and set up before the structure was shipped to its site.

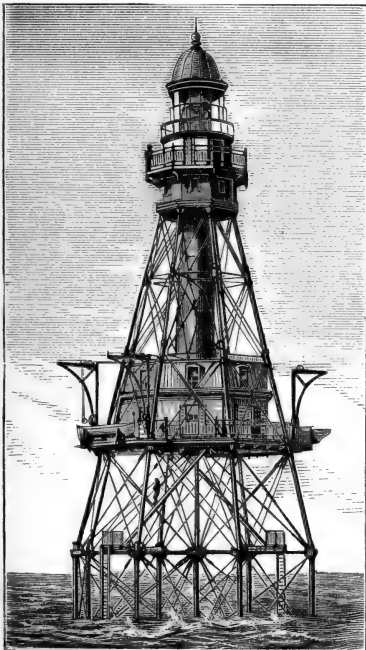
The lower series of piles was put in place in the summer of 1876. A working platform, about eighty feet square, was erected on the site, twelve feet above low water, on iron-shod mangrove piles driven into the coral. The disk for the central iron foundation-pile was then

lowered to its place, and through this disk the first iron pile was driven. A perimeter disk was then located by a gauge, and then the first perimeter pile was driven through the center of this disk. After every blow of the pile-driver, the pile was tested with a plummet, and the slightest deviation from the vertical was rectified. In locating the disk for the next perimeter pile, two gauges were used to get the proper distance from the center pile, and to maintain it from the perimeter pile just driven. The disks were dragged along the bottom until their outer edges just touched the free edges of the gauges. Each pile was then driven through the center of its disk. When all were driven, their tops were leveled by cutting off each to the line of the lowest. The piles were then capped with their respective sockets; the horizontal girders were inserted, the diagonal tension-rods were placed and screwed up, and the foundation series were completed. Two months were occupied in placing the wooden platform and this series. During this time they had a smooth sea, but after this time the main difficulty was the bad weather. Finally, that problem was solved

month. The material was stored at Soldier Key, four miles distant, and it was delivered by lighters towed by a steam-launch, which waited with steam up day and night to tow them out when the weather would permit. On March 16th the derrick and shears were set up, and a cargo of iron delivered; and in the course of the next sixteen days five more cargoes were landed on the platform, and the first series of columns, girders, sockets, and tension-rods was placed in position. On April 7th the skeleton of the second series and the cylinder to the top of the series was up; and in another week all the iron up to and including the service-room floor was on the platform. On April 30th the dwelling was finished; on May 25th the illuminating apparatus was in position, and on June 15th the work was completed and the light was exhibited. The whole structure was completed in good time, despite the trying circumstances accompanying its construction. The preceding is a representation of the lighthouse in question.

The use of iron plates for building lighthouses on dry foundations, though not uncommon abroad, met early with little favor in this country. But, in later years, when a greater knowledge of iron as a material for construction was obtained, it came into larger use. Among the more prominent of the iron towers are those at Cape Canaveral, Florida, designed in 1860 and built in 1868, 150 feet high; that at Bolivar Point, Texas, built in 1872, 120 feet high; that at Hunting Island, South Carolina, built in 1875, 130 feet high; and the tower now being erected at Cape Henry, Virginia, which is to be 165 feet high.

The following description of the tower at Hunting Island will show how these iron towers are put up, and this is a good specimen, as the necessity of taking it down to remove it further back, if the encroachments of the sea make it necessary, was considered at the time of its erection. The shell of the tower is composed of cast-iron panels of about twelve hundred pounds weight each, of exactly the same size, in each section, that they may each occupy any position in the ring which they form when put together. These panels vary in thickness in the different sections, those of the lower section being an inch and a half thick and of the highest three quarters of an inch. They are provided with flanges so as to connect the several tiers of plates, and the plates of each tier with each other by bolts through them, and the flanges are made smooth, with true planed surfaces. The base of the first tier of panels consists of a flange three feet wide. This flange extends one foot four inches beyond the outside of the tower. It is strengthened by bosses and vertical knees extending upward to the top of the castings, which contain the holes for the foundation-bolts. The top flange is six inches by one and three quarter inches. The lower flange of the second section is one foot two inches wide. The



FOWEY ROCKS LIGHTHOUSE, FLORIDA REEF.

by pitching tents on the working platform, leaving a force of workmen there above the running sea, supplied with material, and with a small hoisting-engine to work their derrick and their shears which had been erected in the single day of good weather they had out of a

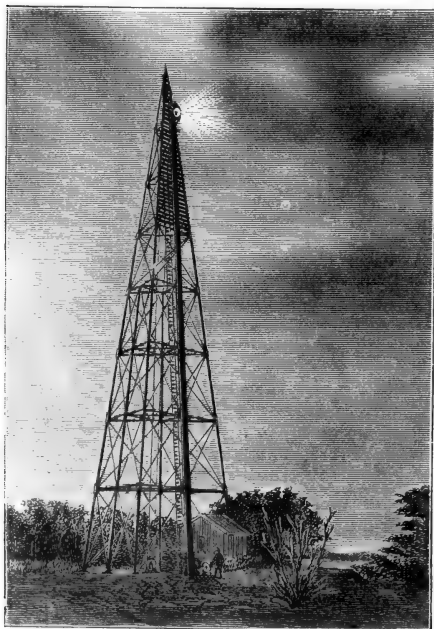
top flange of this tier and the flanges of the third section are six inches by one and three-quarter inches. The flanges of succeeding sections are similar. The side flanges correspond in size with the top flange of each panel. The horizontal flanges have strengthening knees. A nine-inch interior lining of brick is built between the lower flanges. The whole structure rests on an eight-inch concrete foundation, to which the lower iron section is secured by thirty-six anchor-bolts built into the concrete.

Iron skeleton-towers are used on land where the soil affords an inadequate support for a masonry foundation, and where great cheapness is required. That at the Southwest Pass of the Mississippi may be regarded as typical. Its foundation consists of a grillage of timber resting on piles and covered with concrete, on which are secured the iron socket disks from which start eight external and one central shaft of the skeleton. A two-story dwelling for the keepers was placed within the shafts, and a staircase was carried up to the lantern through a tube as in case of the similar lights on sub-aqueous foundations. These towers are found to meet the purpose for which they were intended, and are practicable where heavier structures would not answer, affording less resistance to the wind, and being much cheaper to build.

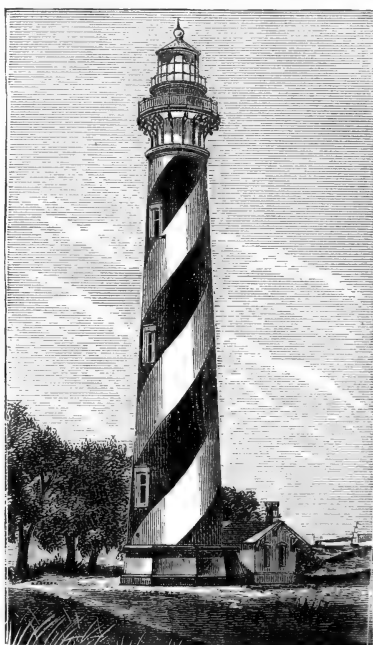
An interesting specimen of these skeleton iron structures has recently been erected on Paris Island, Port Royal Sound, South Carolina, and is to exhibit the rear light of the Paris Island ranges. Altogether, it is the most economical

structure of its kind in the history of lighthouse construction. The plan was born of necessity, as it was found that the appropriation made by Congress was insufficient to put up the kind of structure usual in such a position. The light exhibited is simply a locomotive head-light, which is a powerful parabolic reflector. It is claimed, however, that it is possible to use on it a lenticular apparatus. The tower is composed of columns, sockets, struts, and tension-rods, framed in the form of a triangular pyramid. It rests on six circular iron disks, anchored to a concrete foundation. The top sections of the side facing the channel, for which the tower is the guide, are provided with horizontal slats, to increase the visibility of the beacon by day. The light, which runs up and down in rails in the plane of the structure, is housed by day, and at night is hoisted to its place at the apex of the triangle by machinery worked in the oil-house. The large foundation-plates are about forty feet four inches apart. The focal plane of the light is one hundred and twenty feet above the sea level, but the top of the structure is one hundred and thirty-two feet from the ground. The cost of the iron work set up is \$9,400, and that of the structure complete and lighted about \$12,000.

Saint Augustine lighthouse was built of brick and iron, on Anastasia Island, on the



PARIS ISLAND LIGHT, SOUTH CAROLINA. REAR RANGE.



ST. AUGUSTINE LIGHTHOUSE, FLORIDA.

eastern coast of Florida. Its base is a frustum of an octagonal pyramid, on which rests the frustum of a cone. The interior of the tower

is lighted by five windows. Eight flights of spiral stairways furnish access to the watch-room, the first seven of which make half a revolution of a spiral, but the eighth a whole revolution. This arrangement does away with the incumbrance of a central shaft to support a winding stairway, and allows of a better lighted interior and of more room. The structure is 150 feet high from base to focal plane, and 165 feet above the level of the sea; shows a first-order light, and cost about \$100,000. The spiral stripes shown in the cut are added to distinguish it, as a day-mark, from adjacent sea-lights.

Many brick lighthouses of this type have been built, among which are those at Cape Hatteras, Currituck Beach, and Body's Island, North Carolina; Morris Island, South Carolina; Sand Island, Alabama; Cape Foulweather, Point Arena, and Pigeon Point, on the Pacific coast.

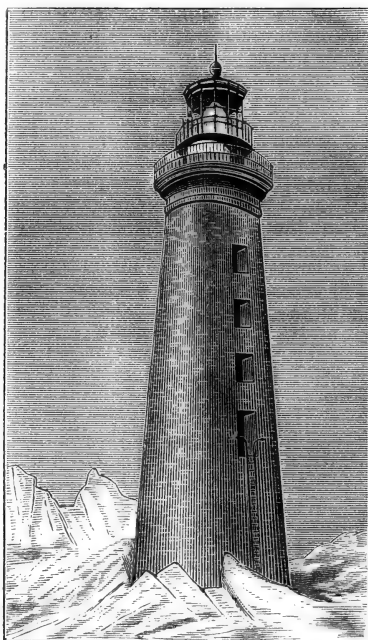
Minot's Ledge lighthouse was almost the first, if not the first, important structure erected by the Lighthouse Board. According to General Barnard, himself an engineer of wide fame, "it ranks, by the engineering difficulties surrounding its erection, and by the skill and science shown in the details of its construction, among the chief of the great sea-rock lighthouses of the world." [For an account of its erection, see Appletons' "Cyclopædia," article LIGHTHOUSE.] The board gave to the plan and its execution its freshest and best powers, and the combined energies of all its members. A careful survey of the rock was made by Major Ogden, of the Topographical Engineers, and then, after a full consideration of all the difficulties by the full board, the preparation of the plan was devolved on the chairman of its committee on engineering, General Totten, then Chief of the Engineers of the army, who planned the masonry tower for this difficult position, and so successfully that, with the exception of the lower stones of the foundation, which had to be studied out of the rock itself, and some details of the construction, the tower was built throughout by B. S. Alexander, then Lieutenant of Engineers, according to the plans of General Totten. The brief memoir left by Colonel Alexander, the only authentic record of the construction of the tower, brief and modest as it is, shows that the skill and ability of the builder equaled that of the designer, and the great tower stands as a monument to both and to the board that availed itself of their powers. The last stone was laid June 29, 1860, five years from the commencement, and the cost, including the keepers' houses on shore, was about \$300,000.

Spectacle Reef lighthouse, a similar structure, stands on a limestone reef at the northern end of Lake Huron, near the Straits of Mackinaw, which join it to Lake Michigan. The nearest land is ten and one half miles distant, but it is sixteen miles from Scammon's Harbor, where the work for it was prepared. The waves have

a fetch of one hundred and seventy miles to the southeastward, but the ice-fields, which are here moved by a current, and which are thousands of acres in area, and are often two feet thick, had to be specially provided against, as, when moving in mass, they have a force which is almost irresistible. But this is overcome by interposing a structure against which the ice is crushed, and then its motion is so impeded that it grounds on the shoal, on which there is but seven feet of water, and forms a barrier against other ice-fields. The tower (see cut) is in shape the frustum of a cone, thirty-two feet in diameter at the base, and eighteen feet at the spring of the cornice, eighty feet above the base. The cornice is six and the parapet seven feet high. The focal plane is four feet three inches above the top of the parapet. The entire height of the masonry above the base is ninety-three feet, and of the focal plane ninety-seven feet three inches; the base is eleven feet below, and the focal plane eighty-six feet three inches above the water. For the first thirty-four feet, the tower is solid; from thence it is hollow, and in it are five rooms one above the other, each fourteen feet in diameter, with different heights, from nine feet two inches to seven feet eight inches. The walls of the hollow portion are five feet six inches at the bottom, and taper to eighteen inches at the spring of the cornice. The interior is lined with a four-inch brick wall, between which and the masonry is a two-inch air space.

The blocks of stone below the cornice are all two feet thick; those of the solid portion of the tower were cut to form a lock on each other in each course, and the courses are fastened together with wrought-iron bolts two and a half inches thick and two feet long, while the lower course is bolted to the foundation-rock with bolts three feet long, which enter the bed-rock twenty-one inches, the other courses receiving the bolts for nine inches. Each bolt is wedged at both ends, and the bolt-holes, which were made with the diamond drill after the stones were in place, are plugged with pure Portland cement which is now as hard as the stone itself. Hence the tower is in effect a monolith. The stones were cut, as were those of Minot's Ledge, at the depot, and fitted, course by course, on a platform of masonry, and the work was so well done there that a course could be, under favorable circumstances, set, drilled, and bolted in three days. The main difficulty, however, lay, as in Minot's Ledge tower, in the preparation of the foundation. This was overcome by a pier of protection inclosing a coffer dam. The pier was a crib-work of twelve-inch timbers built upon ways at the depot, as a ship might have been, when it was launched, and towed by a number of steamers to the reef and grounded on its site. It was of wood, ninety-two feet square and twenty-four feet high, having an inside space forty-eight feet square, and was divided into compart-

ments, which were ballasted to make it firm. Thus a protected pond was formed for the coffer-dam, designed by General W. F. Raynolds, of the United States Engineers, and a landing wharf was afforded for material, as well as for the reception of quarters for the men, all twelve feet above water, and out of reach of ordinary waves. The coffer-dam was thirty-six feet across, and cylindrical in form. It was made of jointed staves fourteen feet long, four inches thick, and six inches wide, held in place by three iron hoops, like a tub, and braced and stayed inside against a center post, the axis of which coincided with the axis



SPECTACLE REEF LIGHTHOUSE, LAKE HURON.

of the cylindrical coffer. It was built at the surface of the water, and suspended exactly over the site of the tower. A loosely twisted inch and a half rope of oakum was tacked to the lower end of the staves, and then the cylinder was lowered to the bed-rock, which had such irregularities on its surface that some of them were three feet high. All these were compensated by driving the jointed staves home with a heavy top-maul, the oakum rope serving as calking; and this was made approximately water-tight by an ingenious arrangement of a loosely twisted four-inch hay-rope and a canvas flap, which was attached in part to the outside of the lower edge of the cylinder, that lay in part flat on the rock, and which was forced into the angle by the outside pressure when the pumps commenced lowering the water in the dam. The work was commenced

in May, 1870, and the light was first exhibited from the finished structure in June, 1874; but the available working time spent on this lighthouse was but about twenty months. This tower, which cost, including the steamer and appliances of all kinds, about \$375,000, is our best specimen of monolithic stone masonry. It was built by General O. M. Poe, of the United States Engineers, who was General Sherman's chief engineer in his march to the sea. Its strength has been thoroughly tested by the ice push already. When the keepers returned to the tower on May 15, 1874, they found the ice piled against it to a height of thirty feet, which is seven feet higher than the doorway, and they could not effect an entrance to the tower until they had cut through the iceberg, of which this lighthouse formed the core. The cut shows this lighthouse surrounded by an ice-floe.

The board is now building a stone tower in Lake Superior, on Stannard's Rock, twenty-eight miles from shore, for which the steamer and the plant used in erecting the light on Spectacle Reef are being used. It will be, when finished, 101½ feet in height, will cost about \$300,000, and will show a light of the second order.

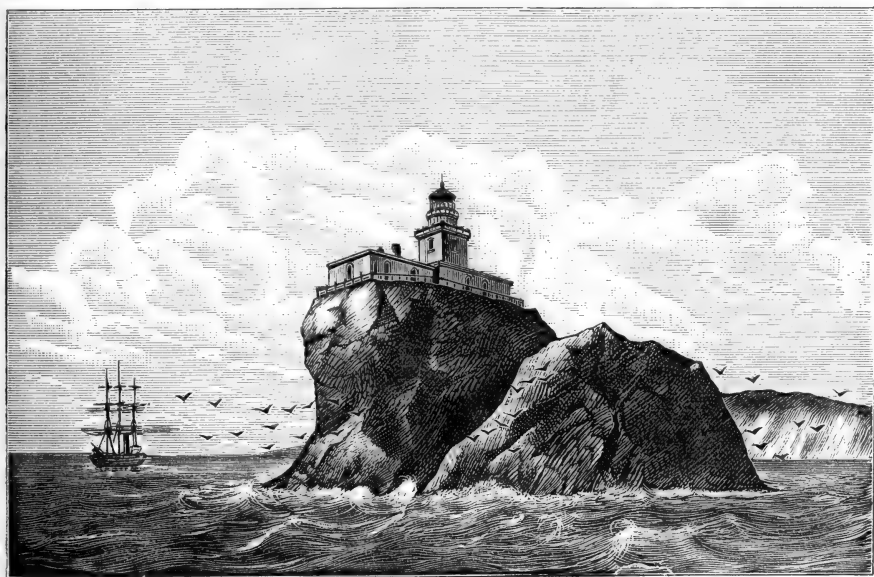
Tillamook (Oregon) lighthouse is placed on an isolated basalt rock high out of water, about one mile from the mainland, in fifteen fathoms of water, and about twenty miles south of the mouth of Columbia River. It is divided above low water into two unequal parts by a wide fissure, with vertical sides running east and west, standing one hundred feet above the sea, with a crest capable of such reduction as to accommodate a structure not larger than fifty feet square. A landing could with difficulty be made on the side next the shore during a smooth sea. The rugged character of the headland, the tendency of the sea face to landslides, and the great distance from Astoria, the nearest supply-point, made the execution of the work a task of labor, difficulty, danger, and expense. The drowning of the foreman on the landing of the first working-party tended to confirm the prejudices of the local public against the enterprise, and to increase the difficulty of obtaining the services of skilled workmen. On October 21, 1879, however, four workmen, with hammers, drills, bolts, provisions, fuel, a stove, and some canvas to protect them and their supplies from the weather, were landed, and, a few days later, five more men and a small derrick were got to the rock, from which time the commencement of the work may be dated. For the first nine days after reaching the rock, the nine workmen had no shelter from the rain and spray, except that of the canvas lashed to ringbolts. But during this time they cut a shallow niche in the north and east sides, in which they set up a strong timber shanty, which they bolted to the rock, covered with canvas, and secured to ringbolts. From this they secured safety, but got little comfort. After setting up the

main derrick and cutting a pathway up the face of the rock, they opened a bench around it by suspending the workmen on staging supported by bolts let into the rock's crest. The bench once formed, the reduction was pushed to the center. The outer surface of the rock was easily removed with moderate charges of black powder, but the nucleus was hard and firm, and giant-powder was necessary to open the mass, when large charges of black powder acted satisfactorily. The working party, in spite of their rude, uncomfortable quarters, worked diligently through the winter with good results. But the work was much delayed by spells of weather so bad that little could be done. The coast was visited by a tornado in January, which caused the waves, reflected from the rock, to be carried by the wind over its crest, so that for many days continuously the receding floods poured over the eastern slope, making work impossible. On one such day this cataract carried away the supply-house, and even endangered the quarters of the working-party. For more than two weeks at this time it was impossible for the steam-tender which supplied their wants to cross the

bar at the mouth of the Columbia River to go to their assistance; when, after sixteen days, communication was reopened, the party was found to be safe, but much in want of fresh provisions. These were supplied by an endless line running between the mast of the supply-vessel and a ringbolt driven into the top of the rock, in water-tight casks suspended by slings from a traveler, which was made to move along the line.

In May the top of the rock was leveled, and a foundation made about eighty-eight feet above the sea, and, on the 31st, three masons, four derricks, a small engine, and the appliances for laying the masonry, were landed. The stone, a fine-grained, compact basalt, quarried near Portland, and cut to dimensions by contract, was delivered at Astoria and shipped to the rock on the tender. The first cargo was landed on June 17th; on the 22d the corner-stone was laid, and then the rest of the material was shipped to the rock as the weather permitted.

The building is a square, one-story keeper's dwelling, with a rectangular extension for the duplicate siren fog-signal apparatus. From the



TILLAMOOK LIGHTHOUSE, OREGON.

center of the keeper's dwelling rises the tower, which is crowned by a gallery and a lantern containing a first-order lens apparatus. The material used is stone, cut to dimensions on the shore, for the outer walls, and brick, iron, and wood for the interior. The light is forty-eight feet above the base of the tower and one hundred and thirty-six feet above mean sea-level, and it was shown for the first time on February 1, 1881. If it had been finished a month

earlier, it probably would have saved the English iron bark *Lupata*, of 1,039 tons burden, which was dashed to pieces on the main shore, not a mile from the lighthouse, with a loss of the vessel, its freight, and every one of the twenty persons on board. The bark came so near the rock that the creaking of the blocks and the voices of the officers giving orders were distinctly heard, but the night was so dark that nothing could be seen except her lights. The

local foreman had a bonfire built on the rock as soon as possible, but the vessel was lost probably before the signal could be seen. It was on this night that the working-party lost their supply-house, and came so near losing their quarters, if not their lives.

The illuminating apparatus used by the lighthouse establishment varied with the dates of its use. The beacon on Point Allerton, Massachusetts, was illumined in 1673 by "fier balls of pitch and ocum," burned in open braziers. The lighthouse on Little Brewster Island, Boston Harbor, erected in 1715-'16, was first lighted by tallow candles. Then followed the spider lamp, burned in the lantern as it might have been in a window. In 1812 the Government bought of Mr. Winslow Lewis, for \$20,000, the patent for his "magnifying and reflecting lantern." This is described as consisting of a lamp, a reflector, and what was called the magnifier. The reflector was of a thin sheet of copper, commonly segments of a sphere, plated over with a slight film of silver, though the copper was so thin that its compression between the arms of its iron supports materially altered its form, and its silvered concave surface had much the grain and luster of tin ware, and would reflect no distinct image. The patentee, in 1812, made no pretension to a knowledge of optics as now understood, and his reflectors came about as near to a true paraboloid as did a barber's basin. The lamp, roughly constructed on the principle of Argand's fountain-lamp, burning from thirty to forty gallons of oil per year, had a three-quarter inch burner, and was attached to a circular iron frame in front of the reflector. Before the lamp was a so-called lens, of bottle-green glass, shaped like the bull's-eye let into a ship's deck, from two and a half to four inches thick through the axis and nine inches in diameter, which was supposed to have some magnifying power. This apparatus was inclosed in a massive wrought-iron lantern, glazed with panes ten by twelve inches in size. The effect of the whole was characterized by one of the reporting inspectors as making a bad light worse. But its main merit seems to have been that of economy, as the patentee, who had fitted thirty-four lighthouses with his apparatus, contracted in 1816 to maintain the lights on receiving one half the oil previously consumed, and again, in 1821, for one third of the old allowance.

This apparatus is spoken of more respectfully in a report to the House of Representatives in 1842, made by its committee on commerce, from which it appears that "the improvement in the character of the light and the economy in saving oil were subjects of high commendation by the Government." It also appears that the use of the magnifying bull's-eye was gradually abandoned, so that but few remained in 1838, and the last one was removed in 1840. The administration of the system was largely improved. The reflectors were made on true optical principles, approximating,

if not reaching, the paraboloid in form, and were heavily silvered and properly placed. The heavy lantern frames were replaced by lighter ones, the small panes of glass by larger ones, and the ventilation of the towers was so largely improved that obscuration by smoke was no longer unpreventable. The system, largely improved, was retained, but its administration was good only where it had faithful, intelligent, and honest administrators. Finally, the reflectors were so well made and so well placed that, in certain instances, it is now a question whether a better light was possible than was then furnished. Some of the old reflectors then used appear from recent examination to have an enormous candle power. But a poor light was the rule, and a good light the exception. War was made on the system of reflectors, and, when the lighthouse establishment was turned over to the Lighthouse Board in 1852, the reflectors were replaced by the Fresnel lenticular apparatus, found so successful in France, and more or less throughout the world. The adoption in this country of the lenticular apparatus made it possible for a light-keeper of average capacity to keep a good light, and impossible for him to keep a bad one, except by violation of plain rules and avoidance of routine duties. Besides this, the saving in oil effected by use of the lenses over reflectors was so great that the expense of exchanging the one for the other was saved in a few years, although the first cost of the lenses was quite large.

It was shown, in a report made to Congress in 1858, that the mean average cost of each lighthouse, for the five and a quarter years preceding the organization of the Lighthouse Board, was \$1,302, with oil at an average of \$1.13 per gallon, while, for the same period after the board took charge, it was but \$1,286, with oil at \$1.62 per gallon. Thus it appeared that under the board the average cost of maintaining each light was about \$16 per year less than under the previous management, although oil was about fifty cents per gallon more; and it was broadly claimed by the board, and the claim does not appear to have been disputed, that by the change it furnished under the new system, "at least four times as much light for the benefit of the navigator as the best system of reflector lights which has been devised, and at the same time at a consumption of not more than one fourth of the quantity of oil, required for the best system of reflector lights."

A full description is given in Appletons' "Cyclopædia" of the reflectors, under the head LIGHTHOUSES, and of the lenticular apparatus under the name of AUGUSTIN FRESNEL, its inventor.

The illuminant of the lighthouse establishment has been changed whenever a better one has been found. The "fier-balls of pitch and ocum," used in the open brazier at Point Allerton in 1673, were succeeded by tallow candles at Little Brewster Island in 1716, which gave

way to fish-oil, burned in spider-lamps, with solid wicks, suspended by iron chains from the dome of Sandy Hook lighthouse as late as 1760; and this was in turn succeeded in 1812 by sperm-oil, burned in a sort of argand lamp in Winslow's "patent magnifying and reflecting lanterns"; and this illuminant was continued until the beginning of the latter half of the present century, when the reflector system, much as it was improved, was itself superseded by the Fresnel lenticular apparatus, now in use.

When the Lighthouse Board came into power, one of the first subjects which received its best attention was that of obtaining a new illuminant of less cost than sperm-oil. The yearly diminution of the whale catch and the increased use of sperm-oil as a lubricant made it more and more expensive. The board, therefore, called in the aid of such scientists as Professors Morfit and Alexander, of the University of Maryland. Their analyses, quantitative and qualitative, chemical, photometric, etc., of spermin, whale, shark, fish, seal, colza, olive, lard, and mineral oils, of various grades and combinations, were published by the board in 1855, and these are still regarded by the trades as high authority on those subjects.

It was found from these examinations that colza, the oil expressed from the seed of several plants, but especially from that of the wild cabbage (*brassica oleracea*) was largely used in France, and would comply with all the required conditions except that of being of home production. This difficulty the board overcame by stimulating the cultivation of the plant and the manufacture of the oil from its seed as a private industry.

In 1861 the board purchased and used over 5,000 gallons of colza-oil at \$1.10 per gallon; in 1862, 2,000 gallons at \$1 per gallon, and 10,000 more at \$1.10 per gallon, and that, too, while sperm-oil was selling at \$1.64½ per gallon; and it speedily became evident that the country would soon supply all the colza-oil wanted for lighthouse consumption at \$1 per gallon as a maximum price.

Meantime the board had experimented with lard-oil, and with such success that it appeared that this oil of a certain grade was a more desirable illuminant than colza, and it gave equally good results, was more certain in quantity and production, and was economical in price.

The principal manufacturer, who, after several attempts, had succeeded in making colza-oil, and who to do so had put up expensive machinery at the board's instance, finally informed it that the result of its experiments had convinced him that the Government could not afford to use colza-oil in preference to lard-oil, and that he would abandon its further manufacture for lighthouse purposes, though he had demonstrated its success in all respects except competition with lard-oil, if the board would purchase from him the colza he then had on hand. This was done, and lard-oil became the established illuminant.

Oil for the year is usually purchased by contract in the autumn, after advertisements for proposals, and is made deliverable in large lots at different times and places, to suit the convenience of the establishment. When delivered, it is subjected to careful and exact test, to ascertain its purity; and its light-giving power, in lighthouse lamps, is ascertained by photometric measurement. The best oil of commerce is not always the best for lighthouse lamps, and the dealers have much difficulty in meeting the precise wants of the establishment; hence it is not unusual that some oil is rejected. Taking the oil purchased in open market, to meet sudden demands, which it is cheaper to meet by purchase than by transportation, together with that purchased by contract, the establishment bought on an average about 100,000 gallons of oil yearly. The highest price it has paid for sperm-oil was \$2.43½ per gallon, the lowest \$1.09; the highest that it has paid for lard-oil was \$2.27, and lowest 48½ cents per gallon.

The lard-oil used by the lighthouse establishment from 1867 to 1880, both inclusive.

YEAR.	Gallons.	Average cost per gallon.	Total cost.
1867.....	75,000	\$1.29½	\$96,950 00
1868.....	53,000	1.25½	66,350 00
1869.....	60,000	1.45½	86,425 00
1870.....	80,000	1.57½	124,140 00
1871.....	91,000	1.2635	115,197 50
1872.....	91,000	.9325	85,845 00
1873.....	95,000	.7826	74,020 00
1874.....	99,000	.57½	58,060 00
1875.....	118,000	1.21½	167,575 00
1876.....	85,000	1.1755	99,930 00
1877.....	110,000	.96½	106,282 50
1878.....	107,000	.7052	71,459 90
1879.....	106,000	.52616 +	55,805 20
1880.....	67,000	.69937 +	46,875 50
1881.....	44,000	.7447	32,849 00

The lighthouse establishment from its inception had a tendency to the use of petroleum. As early as 1807 there was a correspondence between Mr. Gallatin, then Secretary of the Treasury, and the owners of the good ship *Corlomande*, from Rangoon, in the kingdom of Ava, relative to five thousand gallons of earth-oil, which is commended as the "best article known for burning in lighthouses, making a very strong, clear, and bright flame, emitting at the same time a great volume of smoak." It may be that then, as often since, the "great volume of smoak" prevented the use of the earth-oil. In 1855 the board made some unsuccessful experiments with the various forms of petroleum. Meantime the price of lard-oil had so far increased that a cheaper illuminant became a necessity. It was only necessary, however, as a matter of economy, since lard-oil had proved itself acceptable in every other respect. The matter was approached with much caution, as the volatile, inflammable, explosive nature of mineral-oil was well known. The keeper of one of the lights on Lake Michigan had, in 1864, on his own motion, substituted for the usual lard-oil lamp one burning kerosene. Soon after commence-

ing its use, he attempted to extinguish the lamp by blowing down its chimney, when it exploded. He had scarcely reached the foot of the staircase, with his clothes on fire, when another explosion took place, which blew the whole lantern from the tower, and effectually destroyed the lenticular apparatus. But, as mineral-oil was, in one form or another, in successful use in European lighthouses, the board set about solving the problems connected with its uniform and economical combustion, its purchase in the large quantities needed, the tests as to purity, and the degrees of heat at which it should burn and flash, the degrees of cold at which it should remain limpid, methods for its transportation and storage, and the other questions connected with its safe and economical use.

The first difficulty was that of the lamp in which it should be burned. At the outset a claim was set up that mineral oil could not be burned in a lighthouse without infringing on a certain patent. The board, always ready to encourage inventive genius when applied to lighthouse matters, asked the necessary authority to deal with the patentee, when the Secretary of the Treasury, as the custom is, referred the legal questions involved to the Attorney-General. Thus a legal controversy arose which continued some three years, running through the Patent Office, and was finally adjudicated in the courts, where it was decided that mineral-oil could be burned in any lighthouse lamp except one without infringing any patent. Meantime, the board had, after much experimentation in its own laboratory and workshops, succeeded in producing a mineral-oil lamp capable of consuming all the carbon it set free, and introduced it into its lighthouses.

The chairman of the board, the venerable Professor Henry, had been during this time dealing with other difficulties practically and personally in laboratory and workshop, and in them had more than once endangered his person, if not his life, and thus the board reached in advance certain determinate results. It fixed the flashing test of the mineral-oil that would be accepted for lighthouse use at 140° Fahr., the fire test at 154° , and the freezing test at which it should remain limpid at zero. Litmus paper immersed in it for five hours must, by remaining unchanged in color, show its freedom from acid; its specific gravity must not be less than 802° ; and it is to be paid for by weight, at the rate of $6\frac{7}{8}$ pounds net weight to the gallon. The board has contracted for several lots deliverable at different periods at New York, Detroit, and San Francisco, amounting to 75,000 gallons in all, at an average price of $14\frac{2}{3}$ cents per gallon. The difficulty of storing and transporting such quantities in bulk was conceded, but its danger was evaded by having the oil placed at once in five-gallon cans, where it was to remain until transferred to the lighthouse burners for combustion. Mineral-oil is now used

throughout the lighthouse establishment, except in the seventy-three lights of the highest powers, in which this illuminant fails yet to burn to as good advantage as does lard-oil. It is claimed that five gallons of mineral-oil will give as much light as four gallons of lard-oil, while mineral-oil at the present writing costs about fourteen cents and lard oil about seventy-five cents per gallon. Thus it may be stated roughly that mineral-oil, as compared with lard-oil, gives one fifth more light and costs four fifths less money.

The propriety of using gas as a lighthouse illuminant has several times been considered. An effort was made in 1844 to use a rosin gas at the Christiana light station, near Wilmington, Delaware, but, after something less than a year of trial, it was abandoned as impracticable. Another unsuccessful attempt was afterward made at the light station on Reedy Island, mouth of Delaware River.

From time to time, lighthouses near cities have been illumined with gas from the city gas-works; it is now used in but three stations, namely, Cleveland, Ohio, Alexandria, Virginia, and Newburyport, Massachusetts; and even at these three it has been found necessary to guard against the accident to gas-pipes, most likely to happen in the coldest weather, by keeping a set of oil-lamps ready to take the place of the gas-burners at a moment's notice. But, while the board has not found the use of gas practicable thus far, it keeps itself informed as to the progress made in its manufacture and its combustion.

The board is using compressed gas to light the ten lights at the northern entrance to Currituck Sound, North Carolina. This gas is made and compressed at its own gas-works, and it is carried to each of the beacons in tanks, built into a scow, which is towed by a steam-launch, manned by the keepers of these ten small lights, who reside on board. The gas in each will burn for ten days and nights, if need be. Though the action of this illuminant is not unsatisfactory, it can hardly be said that it has yet passed beyond the experimental stage.

The board has watched the experiments made in other countries with the electric light as a lighthouse illuminant, and, while it does not consider that this light can be seen farther than its own best lights—which are seen, located, and identified as far as the curvature of the earth will allow—and while it is not convinced that the electric light can be located or identified better, or even seen in fog farther, than its oil lights, still, for purposes of practical experimentation, it has—unsuccessfully, however—for several successive years, asked Congress for such an appropriation as would enable it to erect and put in operation an electric light by the side of and in competition with an oil light. Meantime it has tested every prominent American-built machine for making the electric light, that it might be ready to use the best when Congress had pro-

vided the funds for that purpose. The results of these tests are given in its Annual Reports for 1879 and for 1880.

None of the various lighthouse establishments have as yet succeeded in producing a light that can be identified as to kind, or located as to site, at any considerable distance, through a fog, or even through a snow-storm. But earnest effort is made to guide the mariner by sound when sight will not avail, and fog-signals of various kinds have been applied to this purpose.

In the course of his researches as head of the board's committee on experiments, Professor Henry developed two theories, stating them to be good working hypotheses: one relative to the effect of the wind on the direction of sound, and the other on the failure of sound to make itself heard at irregular intervals. The effect of the publication on the first has been to cause seamen, wishing to hear a fog-signal against which the wind is blowing, to go aloft as they would to see a distant light, and to go as near to the surface of the water as possible to catch the sound, if the wind is wafting the sound toward them.

As to the interval in the audibility of a continuous sound, it is now accepted that a fog-signal may be in full blast and audible for a long distance, and inaudible at varying points within that distance, and that the sound may shade off from audibility to inaudibility, and back to audibility, several times in passing from the fog-signal to that point farthest distant from it where it is clearly heard. Hence mariners understand that, though they may not hear it, still they may be within earshot of a fog-signal in operation. They also fully realize the fact that they may, while sailing toward the sound already caught, lose it, and that by continuing their course they may pick it up again. They also understand that, while sailing away from the fog-signal, they may lose its sound and hear it again several times before passing entirely beyond its range of audibility. Therefore, they now make allowances for the variations of the sound of the fog-signal as they do for the variations of the mariner's compass, although the law of the variations of its sound has not yet been fully deduced or completely formulated. The board's annual reports show something of its gradual but effective labors to wrest from Nature her carefully guarded secrets, and to utilize the results of this work as rapidly as they are obtained.

It was within its plans to have continued its researches into the laws of sound by a grand attack with all its available forces. Professor Henry was to have been assisted by several scientists, in addition to those officially connected with the board, who were to be stationed in steamers and in captive balloons above, at various heights, all to note simultaneously the degree of audibility in numerical scale of the sound of a powerful fog-signal in full

blast on a light-ship more than twenty miles from land, so that they would not be puzzled by shore echoes, on which all the various phenomena that could be registered by the thermometer, the hygrometer, and the anemometer, were also to be noted, on charts previously prepared, and it was expected, when all this field work had been plotted, to deduce something of the law of these variations of audibility, and to show what allowance may be made for them. The death of Professor Henry caused the postponement rather than the abandonment of these experiments. Professor Morton, his successor as the scientific adviser of the board, in doing that duty which laid nearest his hand, has brought out the photophone, an instrument by which the mariner, when puzzled as to the location of the fog-signal, which, when heard in snow-storm or in fog, seems to come from anywhere, may determine its direction to within a point of the compass.

And at this time, although the board has not brought its fog-signal service up to its own standard, it is of large service to commerce, and has been made the subject of study by commissions sent hither by other countries, especially by Brazil and Great Britain; and it is not too much to say that it is in advance of that of any other lighthouse establishment.

The principal fog-signals now used by the board are the trumpet, the siren, the steam-whistle, the whistling-buoy, the bell-boat, the bell-buoy, and bells rung by machinery impelled by clock-work.

The board, in 1854, employed Professor J. H. Alexander, of the University of Maryland, to make a series of researches as to the audibility of sound in fog and as to the action of fog-signals, and it published the Professor's report and circulated it among scientific mechanics. During this time, Mr. C. L. Daboll, of New London, Connecticut, had been experimenting on his own account. Under the encouragement of the board, he brought out his trumpet fog-signal. His plan was to employ a reed trumpet, made somewhat like a clarinet, and sounded by air condensed in a reservoir by machinery driven first by horse-power, and, later, by a hot-air engine. In it the trumpet is the resounding cavity, and the necessary agitation of the air is produced by the vibration of the tongue-like reed. The trumpet is vertical, curved at the upper part. A first-class trumpet is 17 feet long, including the curvature, has a flaring mouth 38 inches across, while its throat is 3½ inches in diameter. The reed is of steel, 10 inches long, 2½ inches wide, 1 inch thick at the fixed, and half that at the free end. It is driven by an Ericsson hot-air engine, having a 32-inch cylinder with an air chamber 4½ feet across and 6 feet long, which, at a pressure of from 15 to 20 pounds, could make a five-second blast every minute. While the trumpet is not as far-reaching as some other fog-signals, it has been preferred for

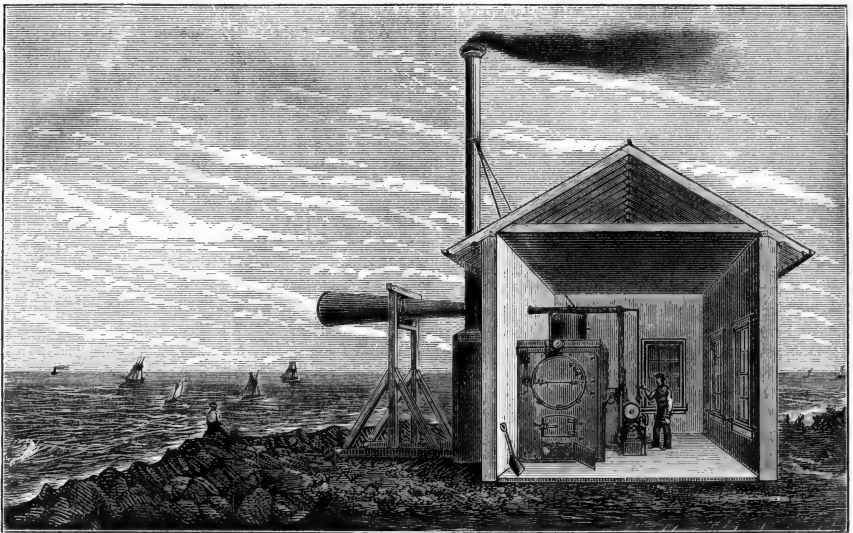
rock stations where there was a scarcity of fresh water, and where fuel was difficult of access. But it is now losing favor because of its liability to accident and the difficulty of its repair.

The siren, originally invented by Cagniard de La Tour, and used by physicists in comparing sounds and in measuring the number of vibrations in different musical notes, was largely changed by A. & F. Brown, of the New York City Progress Works, under the direction of the Lighthouse Board, and adopted for use as a fog-signal. It can be sounded with either steam or compressed air driven through a fixed flat disk, placed in the throat of a trumpet, to which is attached the pipe conveying the motive power. The disk has from eight to twelve radial slits. Back of the fixed disk is a revolving plate with a like number of similar openings, which is rotated by power specially ar-

ranged for that purpose. When the slits in the revolving plate coincide with those in the fixed disk, as they must, say twelve times in each revolution, a jet of steam or air is forced through each opening under great pressure into the trumpet, and the interruption of these jets causes the song of the siren. The rotating plate is directly connected with and supported by the shaft, which is so geared to a steam or hot-air engine as to make 2,400 revolutions per minute, and as each revolution allows the escape and interruption of twelve jets through the coinciding openings, there are 28,800 shrieks given, creating, as the vibrations are taken up by the trumpet, a condensed beam of sound of great intensity and of surpassing power.

The siren is used on shore, as shown in the following cut, and on light-ships, as shown in the cut of Pollock Rip Light-Ship, on page 450.

The first-class steam siren, when working



SIREN FOG-SIGNAL.

with a pressure of seventy-two pounds of steam, consumes about one hundred and eighty pounds of coal and one hundred and twenty-six gallons of water per hour, and can be heard under usual circumstances at a distance of twenty miles, and in still air thirty miles, even in a dense fog. Its range of sound, however, is not deemed of so much importance as its quality and its power of domination over local noises, such as that of the surf, the whistling of the wind through a ship's rigging, that of paddle-wheels, or the working of an engine. This it has to such extent that it has been well said that "its density, quality, pitch, and penetration render it dominant over such noises after all other signal sounds have succumbed." The committee sent in 1872 by the British lighthouse establishment, Trinity

House, to this country, headed by Sir Frederick Arrow and Captain Webb, of H. M. Navy, reported so favorably upon it that, since then, "twenty-two sirens have been placed at the most salient lighthouses on the British coasts, and sixteen on lightships moored in positions where a guiding signal is of the greatest service to passing navigation." While the siren is the best fog-signal yet invented, it is also the most expensive to build and to run, is the most complicated in its parts, and requires more attention and skill in its management than any other signal, and is adapted only to such stations as are amply supplied with water and have machine-shops in the vicinity where necessary repairs can be promptly made.

The steam-whistle is largely used as a fog-signal, and with satisfactory results, in places

not requiring the greatest intensity and power of sound. It is the ordinary locomotive whistle, of a varying diameter, from six to eighteen inches, operated by steam from an ordinary and often an upright boiler, with a pressure of from fifty to one hundred pounds to the square inch. It can be made to produce any combination of shrieks, in a given time, so that it can be identified by its published characteristic. These are produced and regulated automatically by an engine taking its steam from the same boiler, which, at arranged intervals, opens and closes the valves, thus shutting off or letting on the steam. The machinery is simple and the piston-pressure quite light; and, while it is not liable to get out of order, it requires no more attention than an ordinary stationary engine.

A great number of experiments have been made with these three signals. From their average it appears that the power of the first-class siren, the twelve-inch whistle, and the first-class Daboll trumpet may be thus expressed: siren, nine; whistle, seven; trumpet, four; and their relative expenditure of fuel is recorded as, siren, nine; whistle, three; trumpet, one.

The board had in operation on July 1, 1880, fifty-seven fog-signals operated by steam or hot air.

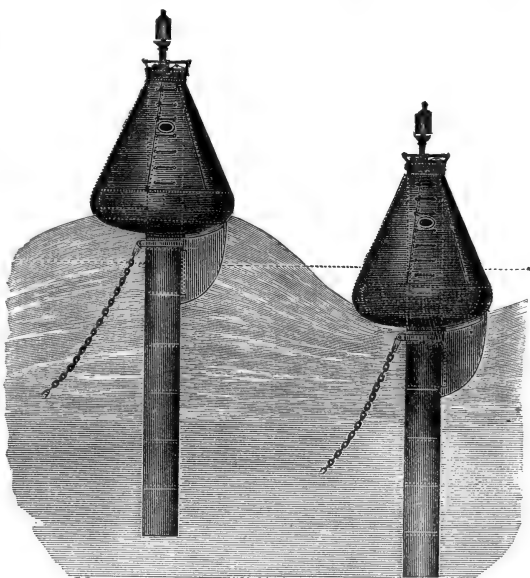
Bells are also largely used as fog-signals. When the board assumed charge of the establishment, they were rung by clock-work, rude in kind and wasteful of power, its weight constantly descending even during the silent intervals. This defect was remedied, under the suggestion of the board, by Mr. Stevens, of Boston, who introduced an escapement arrangement, somewhat like that of a clock, and moved by a small weight, the larger one operating only to strike the bell itself.

The large, unwieldy bell-boats of the early days of the establishment have mostly gone out of use.

The Brown bell-buoy, recently invented by the master of one of the lighthouse tenders, is a simple arrangement by which the bottom section of a first-class iron nun-buoy is decked over and fitted with a framework of three-inch angle iron, nine feet high, to which a bell is rigidly fixed. Under the bell, which, if of the first-class, weighs 300 pounds, a concentric grooved iron disk of chilled cast iron is fastened to the frame around the disk; opposite each groove a spring is fastened, and on the disk a heavy iron ball is allowed to roll. The swaying of the buoy, by the undulations of the sea, causes the ball to roll from side to side and to strike the bell with each roll. The

springs throw the ball from the bell after each blow, permitting vibration, and causing the bell to give out the largest volume of sound possible under the circumstances. This signal is never silent, but the heavier the sea the louder is the sound.

The automatic signal- or whistling-buoy invented by Mr. J. M. Courtenay, of New York, consisted originally of an iron, pear-shaped bulb, say twelve feet in diameter, with a tube, twenty inches across and forty feet long, descending through its bottom. The water in this tube acts by its own inertia as a piston to draw in air through an orifice supplied with a retaining valve, and to expel it through a ten-inch whistle. The sound produced is only comparable to itself in kind, and it is of a quality which asserts itself over all others, and of a power audible several miles even against the wind. Its dimensions have been recently largely but proportionately reduced without detracting from its usefulness. As its action depends on the undulation of the surface, and, as from its great draught it must be moored in deep water, it is only used in roadsteads or in the open sea. But it has proved so successful that it is used at some points where a light station would otherwise be required, and, in one instance, has, satisfactorily to mariners, replaced a light-ship. At the date of its last report,



COURTENAY AUTOMATIC WHISTLING BUOY.

July 1, 1880, the board had twenty-five of the whistling-buoys in position.

The purpose of a light-ship is to do the work of a lighthouse in a place where one is necessary, but where it has not been erected because of the great difficulty, not to say expense, of plac-

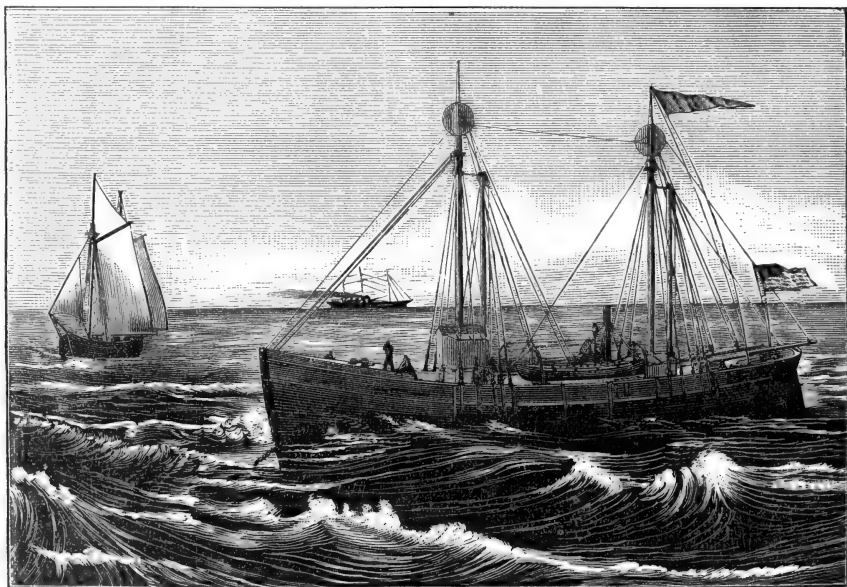
ing such a structure. But the light-ship should have the permanency and efficiency of a lighthouse, and should give as good a light in clear weather and sound as far-reaching a fog-signal in thick. To insure permanency of position is a matter of great difficulty. When moorings have been made too heavy to drag, chains have broken; when they have held, mooring-bitts have been torn out; when they have held, the ship has foundered at her anchors, or the cable has been slipped, and the ship has sought a harbor or gone to sea for safety. But under the present rules of the board rigid inspection is frequently made of their riding-gear, and the absence of a light-ship from her moorings is now quite unusual.

The board has thirty light-ships of various sizes on duty in the service. The smaller, slighter built, and older vessels are moored in sounds and bays. The larger, stronger, and later built are anchored in the open ocean. Among the latter is that on New South Shoals, some twenty-seven miles at sea, the nearest land being Nantucket; Pollock Rip light-ship, moored at the eastern entrance to Nantucket Sound; another is moored at the western entrance to Vineyard Sound; two off Sandy Hook entrance to New York Bay; another off the mouth of Delaware Bay; another on Winter Quarter Shoal, off the coast of Virginia; another on Frying Pan Shoal,

off the mouth of Cape Fear River, North Carolina; another on Rattlesnake Shoal, off the entrance to Charleston, South Carolina; another off Martin's Industry Shoal at the entrance to Port Royal, South Carolina; and the last light-ship built (1880) is on Trinity Shoal, off the coast of Louisiana. This last is fitted with a twelve-inch steam-whistle fog-signal, and is perhaps the strongest and best-equipped light-ship afloat. The light-ships on Pollock Rip and at the mouth of Vineyard Sound have fog-signal sirens operated by hot-air engines, which are to be replaced by steam-engines, as it is found that hot air endangers the health of the crew and shortens the life of the ship.

Each light-ship shows either one or two lights. Each light has eight reflectors, each twelve inches in diameter, set upon a ring which encircles the mast, and can be lighted and hoisted to the masthead by night and lowered and housed by day. These reflectors are illumined by a kind of Argand lamp, in which the sperm-oil formerly burned was succeeded by lard-oil, and that is now superseded by mineral-oil, burned in a lamp specially adapted to the purpose. The lighting apparatus is inclosed in a lantern, with large panes of glass which protect the light from the wind.

The light-ship shown in the accompanying



POLLOCK RIP LIGHT-SHIP.

cut is that upon Pollock Rip Shoal, in the broken water at the eastern entrance to Nantucket and Vineyard Sounds, Massachusetts. It was built in 1877, is about one hundred and twenty feet long, nearly twenty-seven feet

beam, twelve feet five inches hold, and is of four hundred and ten tons burden. She is schooner-rigged, with a lighting apparatus upon each mast supplied with eight burners and reflectors. It has been found so difficult to keep

this vessel from dragging her anchors that she is now fitted with moorings as heavy as those of a frigate. In spite of her brilliant lights and her powerful fog-signal, she has been repeatedly run into by passing vessels and more or less damaged, as have most of the other light-ships in the service. She has a master, a mate, two engineers, and a force of six men. Her cost was \$50,000, and it requires about \$5,000 a year to maintain her exclusive of repairs—a larger sum than is needed for smaller ships, or for those without fog-signals. It is estimated, however, that it costs \$10,000 per year to maintain and keep in repair each of the first-class light-ships in the service, and this is urged as a reason for replacing them as fast as possible with lighthouses.

The buoy is to the seaman by day what the light is at night, and what the fog-signal is in thick weather. It tells him by its size, form, color, and number how to avoid the rocks and shoals, and shows the way in and out of harbor.

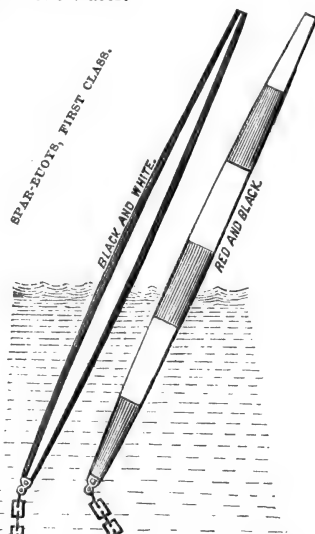
The growth of the buoy service may be measured by its cost, which was for the five years preceding the organization of the board, in 1852, about \$75,000 per year, and for the five years after about \$82,000 per year.

In 1842 there were nearly 1,000 buoys in position; in 1855 the board had 1,034; in 1860 it had 1,738; during the war it lost those on the southern coasts, but in 1867 it had so far replaced and added to them that it had 2,044; in 1875 it had 3,002; and on June 30, 1880, it had 3,140 buoys in the waters of the several districts. An appropriation of \$325,000 was made for maintaining the buoyage of the United States coasts during the year ending June 30, 1882.

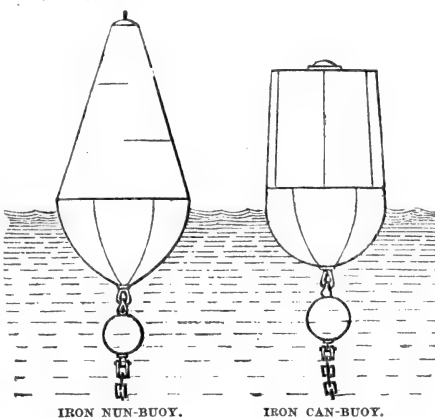
The buoy service has its own code of laws, state and national, a fleet of small tenders for its maintenance, besides a corps of contractors to attend to the buoyage of coves and inlets impracticable to the lighthouse tenders. It has its depots for the storage of iron buoys, where they are painted and numbered, or repaired, and also where wooden buoys are made ready for service. It has its own directory printed yearly, in twelve volumes, distributed gratuitously for the benefit of commerce, in which each one of the more than 3,000 buoys is mentioned by name, located by station, and is described by size, shape, color, number, and vicinity. The problems connected with its improvement, as well as its maintenance, are considered as of grave importance, and are made the subject of deep consideration by the best scientific aid at the disposition of the board.

Buoys are of wood or iron. The wooden buoys now in use are sticks from twelve to sixty feet long, of pine or spruce, but preferably of cedar. The board frequently contracts for the delivery at one of its depots of a cargo of logs, in the rough, at from \$10 to \$15 each, where they are freed of their bark, smoothed of their protruding knots, painted to the pat-

tern required to tell their allotted story, fitted at the larger end with an iron sleeve, to which the stone or iron anchor can be attached by a mooring chain, when they are packed in classes or sizes on skids to season, and finally to take their tour of duty in the water to replace others which are to rest a while on shore, be freed from acquired barnacles, take on a fresh suit of paint, and, by drying, recover their buoyancy. Spar-buoys are classified first by length and thickness, and then by acquired color; but they are interchangeable within these conditions. The cuts represent spar-buoys and their appendages, much as they appear in the water.



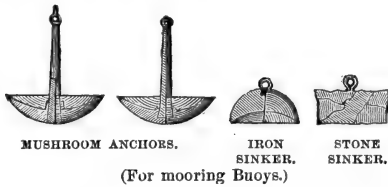
tern buoys are hollow, with air-tight compartments, and are made of three shapes, called nun, can, and ice buoys. The nun-buoy is al-



most conical in form; the can-buoy is in shape the frustum of a cone nearly approaching a

cylinder; and the ice-buoy is much like a spar-buoy, of great length, slight thickness, and of largest diameter near its middle. Each shape is classified by size, and diversified by color and number. They were once made of wooden staves, like barrels, but their rapid destruction by the *Teredo navalis* caused the substitution of boiler-iron. The cost of these buoys varies with the price of iron and cost of labor. The board's last contract for buoys, with all their attachments, except mooring-chains, was made at the following rates:

For first-class can-buoys, six feet across, and nine feet six inches high.....	\$262
For second-class can-buoys, four feet four inches across, and seven feet high.....	143
For third-class can-buoys, three feet two inches across, and four feet ten inches high.....	96



Congress prescribed by act of September 28, 1850, that red buoys, with even numbers, be placed on the right-hand side, and black buoys, with odd numbers, on the left-hand side of channels approached from seaward; that buoys placed on wrecks or other obstructions, having a channel on each side, be painted with red and black horizontal stripes; that those buoys placed in mid-channel, and which indicate that they must be passed close-to to avoid danger, be painted with white and black perpendicular stripes; and finally, that perches, with balls, cages, etc., when placed on buoys, will indicate a turning-point, the color and number of the buoy showing the side on which they are to be passed.

Buoys are exposed to many dangers, not the least of which is that of being run down and ripped open by passing steamers. As the iron buoys are made with compartments, they are rarely sunk, but their line of flotation is often lowered, and their usefulness accordingly decreased. Spar-buoys frequently lose a portion of their length, which is cut off by strokes of colliding propeller-blades. Despite state and national statutes forbidding it, vessels will sometimes make fast to buoys, thus gradually dragging them off their bearings. A buoy has sometimes been set adrift, that a reward may be obtained for its recovery; but this is not a profitable operation, as the reward paid is varied with the circumstances of each case.

The buoys' worst enemy, however, is ice, when moving in mass, and with a tide or current. A well-made, well-moored buoy, at the mouth of a narrow river, can create an ice-gorge; but usually, when the ice moves in force, the buoys net have their mooring-loops torn out, their mooring-chains broken, or their

mooring-anchor weighed; and in each case the buoy is carried out to sea, when the buoy-tenders give chase, and, if successful in its capture, return it to position. The sea-going qualities of the large iron buoys are shown by their volunteer voyages. One is now anchored off the coast of Ireland, where it was picked up, about six weeks after it had been wrenched from its place in New York Harbor, and turned over to the Irish lighthouse establishment, by which it was reported to the United States Lighthouse board, when it was presented to the Irish board, who simply added to its former marks their own, and moored it near the point where it came ashore, in commemoration of its peculiar voyage.

The importance of keeping New York Harbor and Bay well marked has moved the board to keep its iron buoys in position, notwithstanding their danger during the winter, but with a spar-buoy beside each iron buoy, as the ice that carries away the one passes over the other, and allows it to resume its position, and indicate to passing vessels where the iron buoy should be, and also to show the buoy-tenders exactly where it is to be replaced. New York Harbor was twice swept clean of iron buoys during the winter of 1880-'81, and, though some of them have been recovered, the board has been put to large expense to replace those which were lost. Still, it recognizes the fact that the loss of one steamer might cause a destruction of property many times greater than the cost of the buoys, to say nothing of the loss of life that the absence of buoys might occasion. The ice-buoy invented by Mr. J. Parsons Smith, clerk to the Lighthouse Inspector at Philadelphia, is made of boiler-iron, and is divided into compartments, so that any one may be pierced without sinking the buoy. That of the first class costs \$300, is fifty feet long, and stands twenty-two feet out of water. That of the second class costs \$250, is forty feet long, and stands seventeen feet out of water. As with wooden spar-buoys, the ice passes over them without carrying them away; but, unlike the wooden buoys, they break the propeller-blades which strike them instead of being broken, and thus, defending themselves, last many times longer than spar-buoys, and, though costing more at first, are more economical in the end.

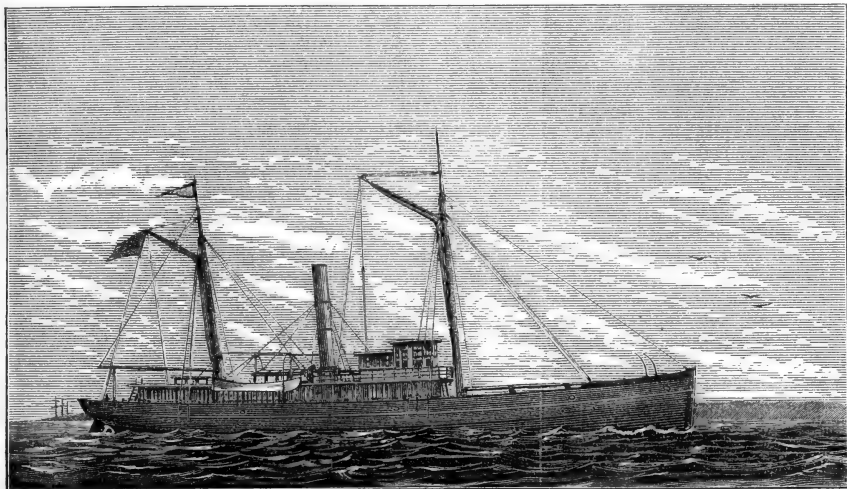
The board has a fleet of twenty-three steamers and three schooners, ranging from fifty to five hundred and fifty tons burden. It is the business of some of these steamers to attend to the buoyage of the coast, replacing the buoys which have gone adrift, exchanging every buoy for a fresh one once a year, and placing new buoys. They are also used to supply the light-houses with provisions, fuel, and minor supplies, and on them the inspectors visit the light-stations to make their regular quarterly inspections and to pay the keepers. Certain of the tenders are used for construction purposes, freighting building material to light-

house sites, and conveying building and repairing parties from station to station. The *Fern*, the largest of all, is used as a supply steamer, and yearly visits the light-stations on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. Nineteen of these vessels are employed on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, three on the lakes, two on the western rivers, and two on the Pacific coast. Thirteen of these vessels have been built for lighthouse purposes since 1870, and are in tolerable condition. Ten of the steamers and two of the schooners are poorly adapted for the service, quite old, and are only kept on duty until they can be replaced by others. The board has just built two iron side-wheel steamers, which cost about \$40,000 each, when finished and equipped, and which are one hundred and forty-six feet three inches long, twenty-three feet eight inches beam, nine feet six inches hold, and of about 300 tons burden. Of those now in use, one is under 100 tons burden, seven are between 100 and 200, seven between

200 and 300, six between 300 and 400, one between 400 and 500, and one between 500 and 600.

The steam-tender *Manzanita*, which is represented in the cut, was built in Baltimore in 1878-79, and was sent through the Straits of Magellan to the Pacific coast, where, by reason of her size and power, she is used for inspection, supply, and construction purposes. Her length is one hundred and fifty-two feet, beam twenty-six feet, and hold nearly twelve feet. She is a screw steamer, schooner-rigged, built of wood, and cost, when equipped, about \$60,000. She has a derrick attached to her foremast, operated by a hoisting-engine, which takes its steam from her boiler. She is manned by a captain, mate, two engineers, and twenty-one others. The *Manzanita* may be considered as typical of the tenders of the future, rather than of the past or present, as she is the best in the service.

The first light-keeper, of whose regular ap-



LIGHTHOUSE STEAM-TENDER MANZANITA.

pointment there is authentic information, was George Worthylake, husbandman, aged forty-three years, who was made keeper of the lighthouse on Little Brewster Island, Boston Harbor, in 1716, at fifty pounds per year, by the order of the General Court of the Province of Massachusetts Bay; and it seems that the keepers of the other seven lighthouses of colonial times were appointed in like manner.

When the General Government had assumed charge of the lighthouse establishment, the appointment of keepers was made by the President, and quite a number of the commissions bear the signature of George Washington, who took great interest in lighthouse affairs. One of the first official acts Washington, as President, performed, was to write to the keeper of Sandy Hook light, directing him to keep it

burning until Congress had opportunity to provide for its continuance. Jefferson also took personal interest in lighthouse affairs, and in its personnel. There are hanging in the office of the Lighthouse Board, at Washington, several letters from Washington and Jefferson on lighthouse matters. Among them is a letter on which is the following endorsement:

"The above is accompanied by two other letters dated respectively May 30, and June 1, 1808, which strongly recommend Jared Hand's appointment [as keeper of Montauk Point Light] to succeed his father, which were duly submitted to the President for his approval or rejection." On the letter the following endorsement appears:

I have constantly refused to give in to this method of making offices hereditary. Whenever this one be-

comes actually vacant, the claims of Jared Hand may be considered with those of other competitors.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

As their number increased, the nominations of keepers were made by collectors of customs who were the local superintendents of lights; but the appointments were made by the Secretary of the Treasury. That usage crystallized into law, and still obtains; but the nomination of the collector is forwarded to the Lighthouse Board, where it receives an endorsement which procures for it favorable or adverse action. The appointment, however, is but temporary, and continues only until the candidate has been examined, after which, if he passes, a full appointment is given him; otherwise he is dropped from the service.

The appointment of light-keepers is restricted to persons between the ages of eighteen and fifty, who can read, write, and keep accounts, are able to do the requisite manual labor, to pull and sail a boat, and have enough mechanical ability to make the necessary minor repairs about the premises and keep them painted, white-washed, and in order.

Although but one grade of keeper is recognized by law, usage has divided keepers into several, with different pay as well as different duties, and with promotion running through the various grades. At one lighthouse there may be but one keeper; at another, a principal keeper and an assistant; and there is a station where there is a principal keeper with four assistants, the fourth having the lowest grade and the lowest pay, and the others having been appointed at that grade, and promoted as merit was shown and vacancies occurred; or they may have been transferred and promoted from another station. Although persons are appointed to the service and assigned to a given station, they are frequently transferred from one station to another, as the interests of the service may demand, and, while it is usual to consult a keeper's wishes in his assignment, there is nothing in the regulations to prevent the transfer of a man appointed in Maine to a station in Georgia; and occasionally keepers are with their own consent transferred from one district to another at a great distance. Young men who have seen some sea-service are preferred as assistants at the larger stations; and at stations requiring but one keeper, retired sea-captains or mates who have families are frequently selected. At those stations where there are fog-signals, it is customary, however, to have one assistant who is able to operate its machinery and keep it in repair; and he is usually one who is something of a machinist. Such persons are graded and paid at a higher rate on their original entry into the service than others.

While there are numerous light-stations located on submarine sites, the greater number of lights have connected with them a little land which the keepers are encouraged to cultivate. Hence small farms or gardens are often

connected with stations which are cultivated by the keepers' families.

Keepers are forbidden to engage in any business which can interfere with their presence at their stations, or with the proper and timely performance of their lighthouse duties; but it is no unusual thing to find a keeper working at his station as a shoemaker, tailor, or in some similar capacity, and there are light-keepers who fill neighboring pulpits, who hold commissions as justices of the peace, and there are still others who do duty as school-teachers, without neglecting their lighthouses. As the dwellings of the light-keepers are often tastefully planned, well built, and located on picturesque sites, people in search of summer quarters have so besought keepers for accommodation that the board has been compelled to prohibit them from taking boarders under any circumstances.

The board has done much to make keepers comfortable. They are furnished with quarters for themselves, and in certain cases for their families, and, when so far distant from market as to make its carriage equal or exceed its cost, with fuel and rations; suitable boats are furnished stations inaccessible by land; and at those stations on shore, distant from markets, barns are built for their cattle and horses. Something also has been done for the intellectual needs of the keepers and their families by supplying them with libraries. These are arranged in cases so constructed that they make rather a neat appearance when set upright on a table, and they only need be closed and locked to be ready for transportation. They contain on an average about fifty volumes each, of a proper admixture of history, science, poetry, and romance, together with a Bible and a prayer-book. One of these libraries is left at a station for some three months, when it is exchanged, and the first is passed on to another station. This is usually done when the inspector makes his quarterly inspection; so each of the stations to which libraries are furnished sees some two hundred different books each year. There are now nearly three hundred of these libraries in circulation through this establishment, and more are being prepared. In their distribution preference is given to those stations most distant from towns or villages.

The board does not, as yet, uniform its employees, or pension those who become maimed or worn out in its service. Keepers are under the law paid an average sum of \$600 a year; but the rates range in individual cases from \$100 to \$1,000 a year. In March, 1881, Congress appropriated \$585,000 for the payment of its 1,015 keepers.

The discipline of the service is somewhat rigid and severe, and has been from the beginning. On December 31, 1806, Mr. Gallatin, then Secretary of the Treasury, placed the following endorsement on a letter:

The part which relates to the conduct of the keeper of Cape Henry lighthouse is submitted to the President for his decision.

It was returned endorsed :

I think the keepers of lighthouses should be dismissed for small degrees of remissness, because of the calamities which even these produce, and that the opinion of the collector in this case is of sufficient authority for the removal of the present keeper.

TH. JEFFERSON.

Now the class of men from whom keepers are selected is so good that the punishment of dismissal is infrequently inflicted. But it follows swiftly in two cases. A keeper found intoxicated is not only summarily dismissed the service, but he is instantly ejected from the station; and a keeper who allows his light to go out is dismissed without regard to his excuse or his previous good conduct. The views of the board on this subject appear in the following extract from one of its letters :

The board considers it the duty of every light-keeper to stand by his light as long as the lighthouse stands; and that for him to desert it when in danger is as cowardly as for a soldier to leave his guns on the advance of an enemy.

His failure to keep his light burning, especially in time of danger, may cause the wreck of vessels looking for it, and result in the loss of much property and many lives.

Keepers are trained to consider the care of the light and the lighthouse property their paramount duty, beyond any personal consideration; and the *esprit de corps* is such that instances have happened where the keepers on duty have, as in the case of the first light on Minot's Ledge, gone down with their lighthouse and died at their post; others where the keeper has saved his lens, letting his family shift for themselves; and there are repeated instances where the keeper has saved his lighthouse property and lost his own. A recent instance of heroism is that of the keepers of Sharp's Island lighthouse, in Chesapeake Bay. It was lifted from its foundation, thrown over, and carried away by ice early in February, 1881. The keeper and his assistant clung to the fallen house, and, although one of their boats remained uninjured, they were adrift in the bay sixteen and a half hours without fire or food, always in imminent danger, as the heavy floating ice often piled up against and threatened to swamp the house. It grounded, however, on an island shortly after midnight, at high tide, and was full of water. Being satisfied that it would not float off again, the two keepers went ashore in their boat, and when the tide had fallen, they returned, saved and took to the shore the lens, its pedestal, the oil, the library, much damaged by water, and even the empty oil-cans, and then reported the facts through their inspector to the board. Meantime the keepers of another lighthouse, fearing the ice, had deserted their post, and gone on shore. The fact that no vessels could have needed their light while the ice was unbroken, and that they returned to their post when the danger had passed, did not avail them. So soon as the fact of their desertion was determined, they were dismissed the service, and

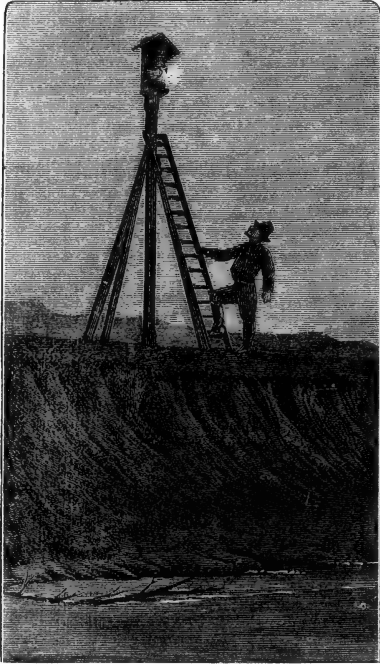
the two keepers who had spent those terrible hours afloat in Sharp's Island lighthouse, and then had saved its apparatus, were highly complimented by a letter direct from the board itself, and then were appointed to the deserters' places. Light-keepers have been conspicuously successful in their exertions to save endangered life. It is recorded of Mrs. Ida Lewis-Wilson, the keeper of Lime Rock lighthouse, in the harbor of Newport, Rhode Island, that she has saved the lives of thirteen different persons, in each instance at the risk of her own. Medals and other testimonials to her heroism have been conferred on her by individuals, by humane societies, and by State authorities. The latest recognition of her services has been made by the General Government, which, in May, 1881, conferred on her the first-class gold medal awarded by Congress to those who save life at the imminent risk of their own.

The commerce of the Western rivers was mainly restricted to motion by daylight, because of the difficulty in keeping steamboats in the tortuous channels, and in avoiding the obstructions with which the channels abound. There were in 1873-'4, on the Mississippi, Missouri, and Ohio Rivers, 1,100 steamboats, of 258,000 tons, 832 licensed barges, of 179,000 tons, and coal barges and other craft of 750,000 tons, making a total of about 1,200,000 tons. The total value of the cargoes carried by them was estimated at \$400,000,000 per year. The coal sent to market yearly, by the Ohio River alone, amounted to 4,090,000 of tons. Hence, when those interested in river commerce took vigorous measures, they had little difficulty in procuring Congressional action. In 1874, an appropriation of \$50,000 was made for a survey of the Mississippi, Ohio, and Missouri Rivers, and to establish on them temporary lights and buoys. The survey was made, a favorable report followed, and two lighthouse districts were duly established, one, the fourteenth, extending from Pittsburgh to Cairo, and the other, the fifteenth, comprising the Mississippi and the Missouri Rivers. An inspector and an engineer were appointed for each district; a steamer hastily fitted for the work was furnished to each inspector, and they proceeded to light up the rivers.

The navigation of these waters was of the most intricate character. The crossings were numerous; and, at some, technically called "blind crossings," where the banks show no diversity of outline, and where the channel is narrow, pilots were frequently delayed, and could not always avoid disaster. At many points, previous to the establishment of the lights, passage was never attempted on a dark night, but by means of the lights, the passages are made practicable at all times. The hidden obstructions are numberless, and in many places barely leave room for the passage of large steamers. There are many consecutive miles on these rivers where the wrecks average more than one

to the mile. Keepers for the river lights are selected from among the people living on and owning property along the river, and they have generally been found trustworthy, and awake to the demands of the service.

The fixed lights used, as shown in the cut, are substantially made lens lanterns, which are



A LIGHT ON THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

suspended from an arm projecting from a post, at an elevation of from eight to ten feet from the ground. They are of most service during low water, though they afford important aid at other times. At points where the channel is made very narrow by permanent obstructions, and the passage dangerous, buoys have been placed as day marks, to which floating lights are attached at night. From the testimonials received from officers and managers of different steamboat lines, boards of trade, and others interested in the navigation of those waters, these lights and buoys appear to be a great benefit to river commerce.

In 1875, \$100,000 were appropriated to maintain the lights on the Western rivers; \$150,000 in 1876; \$140,000 in 1877, the same in 1878, but \$130,000 in 1879, \$140,000 again in 1880, and \$150,000 were appropriated in 1881. There were on June 30, 1880, on the Ohio, Mississippi, and Missouri Rivers, eight hundred and nineteen of these lights, each having an average cost for its maintenance of \$156.28 per year, and all of them costing in the aggregate \$128,000 for that year. The board by the act of

March 3, 1881, was also required to light the mouth of the Red River.

The lighthouse inspector is an officer of the army or navy, the detail being changed at proper times. It is now considered that the time an officer spends on lighthouse duty aids to make up his education and to contribute to his efficiency. Hence this duty is sought in times of peace by ambitious young officers of judgment, tact, and habits of study, who can do the lighthouse establishment good service. The fourteen inspectors now on duty are all officers of the navy; one is a rear-admiral, one a captain, ten are commanders, and two are lieutenant-commanders. They serve without other than their shore-duty pay. It is the duty of each inspector to attend, under the directions of the board, to supplying the lights of his respective district; to maintain its buoyage; to keep up the discipline of the light-keepers; to inspect the light-stations, light-ships, and light-tenders, and all the lighthouse people and property in his district each quarter; to attend to the examination, promotion, and transfer of the keepers, to answer the calls made on him by the board, for special information as to the needs of commerce at specified points; to make the numerous reports to the board, on blanks provided for that purpose; to act as purchasing and disbursing officer; and he has recently been ordered to pay each keeper his salary each quarter. Commander C. J. McDougal, U. S. N., the Inspector of the Twelfth Lighthouse District, was drowned on March 28, 1881, when attempting to reach Cape Mendocino, light-station, California, from the lighthouse steam-tender. The surf-boat was upset, and the inspector, though an expert swimmer, together with three other persons, was lost. He is supposed to have been carried down by the weight of the coin on his person that he was taking on shore, to use in paying to the light-keepers their quarterly salary.

There is no specified time for which an officer of the corps of engineers shall serve as a lighthouse engineer, as he often has at the same time charge of fortification or harbor engineering works. His lighthouse duties are to prepare plans and specifications for lighthouse structures, and submit them to the board; to purchase the material, arrange for the labor, and take charge of their erection or repair; to set up and keep in repair the illuminating apparatus of each light-station in his district, and to purchase and care for the real estate, lighthouse sites, etc., of the establishment in his district. He reports to the board, when requested, as to the necessity and cost of establishing new aids to navigation. The coasts of the country show with what success the engineers have grappled with the problems of light-house engineering, not only on land but on subaqueous foundations.

Enough has been said of the routine duties of the board. But two points should be here mentioned. It is not only its duty to build

lighthouses when authorized by Congress, but it is customary to furnish Congress reasons for refusing appropriations for building unnecessary lighthouses. Each lighthouse is established by Congressional enactment. A petition from those interested, usually ship-owners and ship-masters, is presented by a Senator or the Representatives in whose district it is proposed that the lighthouse shall be located. The petition is referred to the Committee on Commerce, which asks the opinion of the Secretary of the Treasury, who refers the question to the Lighthouse Board, which in turn calls on the inspector and engineer of the proper lighthouse district to examine and report on the necessity, practicability, and cost of the proposed structure. Their reports, with such other information on the subject as the board may have at hand, are referred to its own committee on location, when a formal report and recommendation is made to the board, which report is transmitted to the Secretary of the Treasury, who in turn sends both his own opinion and the board's recommendation to the committee of the Senate or House asking the information, and on the report of that committee, if it is favorable, is based the report of the Committee on Appropriations and the action of Congress. But frequently the reports are unfavorable, and it has happened that the board has been interpellated on the same matter by several successive Congresses, and has been required to build the lighthouse it has reported was not needed.

The board often receives from those interested statements bearing on a case intended to affect favorably its report as to the need for a proposed lighthouse. Thus it often weighs rather than finds evidence, and supplements rather than institutes investigation.

The board has been called on several times to show cause why it should not be transferred from the Treasury to some other department. It has already made report against its transfer to the Navy Department and to the War Department; a bill recently was before Congress providing for its transfer to the Interior Department, and the Forty-third Congress rejected a bill providing for abolishing the board, placing the establishment again under the charge of a superintendent.

The heavy tax laid on American commerce by Great Britain as light-dues has provoked American merchants into taking steps for retaliation. Hence the Lighthouse Board has several times been called on to show cause why light-dues should not be charged upon British shipping coming into American ports, and also why the lighthouse establishment should not be made self-supporting by charging light-dues against our own commerce. It has uniformly responded that light should be as free as air, that its work was done not only in the interests of commerce, but for the sake of science and humanity, and that it should be supported from the national treasury as are the

army, the navy, or as is the Coast Survey or Life-Saving Service.

The board has its own drafting room, where it prepares the plans and specifications of many of its more important lighthouses and light-ships, and where it examines and revises, if need be, the plans submitted by its engineers.

In the home office at Washington, the board has preserved, bound in some five hundred volumes of from five hundred to one thousand pages each, the letters it has received, and in as many more volumes the copies of letters it has written. In those received are recorded the results of the experience of the lighthouse establishment. The board has made that available by a unique subject card index. It is contained in six cases, each of which has thirty-two drawers, in each of which is an average of 1,750 cards, all containing something over 300,000 cards. In addition to this subject index, which of course has many cross entries, and therefore many duplicates, it has a chronological personal index of the same matter running through some thirty volumes, in which there are, say, 130,000 entries.

There were on July 1, 1880, in use the following aids to navigation operated by the lighthouse establishment:

First-order lights.....	47
Second-order lights.....	26
Third-order lights.....	65
Fourth-order lights.....	204
Fifth-order lights.....	128
Sixth-order lights.....	160
Range lenses.....	10
Lens lanterns.....	14
Reflectors on lighthouses.....	10
Stake-lights on rivers.....	819
Light-ships.....	31
Whistling-buoys in position.....	25
Other buoys in position.....	3,115
Fog-signals, steam or hot air.....	57

The average sum paid for maintaining an average light-station of each class was during the year ending June 30, 1880:

For a first-order light-station.....	\$2,584 67
For a second-order light-station.....	2,205 91
For a third-order light-station.....	1,851 92
For a fourth-order light-station.....	1,258 38
For a fifth-order light-station.....	870 66
For a sixth-order light-station.....	502 27
For an outside lightship of recent build.....	8,140 42
For an inside lightship of old build.....	3,955 54
For an average fog-signal operated by steam or hot air, not counting the salary of its operator, who was paid as lightkeeper.....	484 00
For a steam-tender of recent build.....	15,722 20

There are 9,959 nautical miles of lighted coast on the ocean, gulf, bay, sound, lake, and river shores, not counting the Ohio, Mississippi, and Missouri Rivers, which are lighted on a different and cheaper plan. The sums actually expended in lighting and buoying these 9,959 miles of coast during the year ending June 30, 1879, amounted to \$1,708,700. And in this sum the \$97,000 expended in maintaining the fifty-four fog-signals operated that year is not included. Hence the cost of lighting and buoying the United States coast was for that year \$171.57 per nautical mile.

The appropriations made by act of March 8, 1881, for the maintenance of the United States Lighthouse Establishment for the year ending June 30, 1882, amounted to \$2,525,400, of which \$476,400 were appropriated for new works, or for finishing those previously commenced and not then finished.*

ARNOLD B. JOHNSON,
Chief Clerk Lighthouse Board.

LITERATURE, AMERICAN, IN 1880. The cheap republications of English books have so diminished the trade of the respectable houses which reprint by arrangements with the authors or allow royalties, that as a consequence American publishers have depended much more upon American authors for their supply of new works than heretofore. Of ninety books published lately by the Harpers, exclusive of the Franklin Square Library, fifty-four were by American authors, and many of these have been republished in England. Of forty-nine of the publications of Charles Scribner's Sons, approximately covering the year 1880, forty were written by Americans, of which twenty-eight were new works, and half of this number were reproduced on the other side. Of thirty books issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons, comprising their more important publications in 1880, eighteen were of American authorship. And in the reproductions of foreign books by American publishers not one half are reprints of English books, a large proportion being special translations made for the publishers from the Continental literatures by native writers.

The entries in the "Publishers' Weekly" for the year, comprising the lists of the more prominent publishers of the country and the more notable books published by others, added together and classified, give the following approximate computation of the more respectable publications of 1880:

CLASS.	No. of works.
Fiction.....	292
Juvenile books.....	270
Theology and religion.....	289
Biography, memoirs, etc.....	151
Education—language.....	131
Description, travel, etc.....	115
Medical science.....	114
Poetry and the drama.....	111
Literary history and miscellany.....	106
Political and social.....	99
History.....	73
Useful arts.....	63
Law.....	62
Natural sciences.....	56
Fine arts and illustrated works.....	44
Domestic and rural.....	43
Amusements, sports, etc.....	32
Humor and satire.....	30
Music (chiefly church and school).....	24
Mental and moral philosophy.....	22

Total books reported..... 2,076

In *Theology* the publications of 1880 are remarkable for their value and originality, though not surpassing in number those of former years. Matthew Pool's "Annotations upon the Holy Bible" (New York, Carters) is a model commentary for familiar use, being at the same time faithful and learned in substance, and popular and lucid in style. "The Life and Writings of St. John," by the late Rev. Dr. James M. Macdonald, is a fine example of the studies of the religious nature and personality of personages of the Scriptures which have multiplied of recent years (Scribners). Francis H. Underwood's "The True Story of the Exodus of Israel" gives the conclusions of Brugsch-Bey, reached after his prolonged investigations of the monuments of Egypt, corroborating the Scriptural account of the sojourn in Egypt and escape of the Israelites (Boston, Lee & Shepard). "Fifteen Sermons," by William Rollinson Whittingham, are characteristic discourses of the lately deceased vigorous and earnest Bishop of Maryland. "Sabbath Essays" are argumentative papers read at the Sabbath Conventions in Massachusetts (Boston). "The Christian Preacher" (New York, Randolph) is a reproduction of lectures in the Yale Divinity School on the character and attainments which befit a clergyman, by Rev. Dr. Howard Crosby. "Faith and Character" (New York, Scribners) is a collection of sermons on the true type of healthy religious life, by Rev. Dr. Marvin R. Vincent. "The Limitations of Life, and other Sermons," is a volume of eloquent discourses on personal religion, by Rev. Dr. William Taylor (New York, Armstrong). "The Influence of Jesus" is a series of elegantly written and effective lectures of similar purpose, by Rev. Phillips Brooks. The "Sermons Preached on Various Occasions by James de Koven, D. D.," containing a memoir, by Rev. Dr. Morgan Dix, is a collection of characteristic discourses by one of the most ardent and devoted of Christian teachers, who clung tenaciously to the old traditions and beliefs (published by D. Appleton & Co., of New York, for the benefit of Racine College). The translation of Dr. Gieseler's learned "Text-Book of Church History" has been completed, since the death of Professor Henry B. Smith, who translated the first four volumes and a portion of the last, by Miss Mary A. Robinson (New York, Harpers). "The Congregationalism of the Last Three Hundred Years," is a valuable contribution to the history of Protestantism, by Henry Martyn Dexter (New York, Harpers). The "Oriental and Biblical Journal" is a new quarterly, de-

\$222.11 to the mile, while it cost the United States \$171.57 per mile.

* M. Allard, Inspecteur-Général des Ponts et Chaussées [the managing head of the French lighthouse establishment] gives, in the "Annales des Ponts et Chaussées" for October, 1880, some statements from which it appears that there are 1,550 nautical miles of coast lighted and buoyed by the French Bureau des Phares, at a cost during 1879 for maintenance, of 7,730,000 francs, or of 1,155 francs per nautical mile. Taking the franc at 5-20 to the dollar, it seems that it cost France

But, then, France had that year twenty-five lighthouses and fifty-three buoys to the hundred miles of coast, while the United States had in that year but nine lighthouses and forty-two buoys per hundred miles of coast. Then, again, France had but four fog-signals, while the United States had fifty-four; and France had no river lights worth mentioning, according to M. Allard, while the United States maintained 737 during that year.

voted to research in the Bible lands, edited by Rev. Stephen D. Peet (Chicago, Jameson & Morse). The Rev. E. C. Bissell, D. D., is the editor of an edition of the "Apocrypha of the Old Testament," which forms a supplementary volume to Lange's "Commentary," of which the publication has been completed (New York, Scribners). The "Longer Epistles of Paul" is a valuable exegetical work by the Rev. Henry Cowles, D. D. (New York, Appletons). "Studies in the Mountain Instruction" is one of the Rev. George Dana Boardman's books of devout and lofty religious contemplation (New York, Appletons). Professor T. C. Murray's "Origin and Growth of the Psalms" (New York, Scribners) is one of the most thoughtful and original religious works of the year. The "Studies in the New Testament," by the Rev. Dr. Charles Robinson, D. D., is another of the numerous aids to the understanding of the Scriptures; as are also Calderwood's "Parables of our Lord," and Taylor's "Gospel Miracles." "The Age-Temptation of American Christians" is a popular book of religious reflections (New York, Randolph). "The Foundations of Christianity," by the Rev. Dr. J. Monro Gibson (Chicago, Jansen, McClurg & Co.), is a vigorous and clear example of modern religious thought. The "Sacraments of the New Testament," by the Rev. G. D. Armstrong (New York, Armstrong), is an elaborate account of the sacraments of the Protestant and also those of the Catholic Church. "Christ bearing Witness to Himself" (New York, Randolph) is a volume of thoughtful lectures by the Rev. George A. Chadwick, D. D. A "Compendium of Christian Theology" (New York, Phillips & Hunt) is a systematic course of Biblical, dogmatic, and historical theology in outline, by William Burt Wilder, D. D.

The number of works on subjects connected with *Philosophy* is small, but includes some of considerable originality and depth. Some valuable translations have also been published. The development theory, as applied to ethics, receives an able contribution in "The Morals of Evolution," by M. J. Savage (Boston). In "The Emotions," Dr. McCosh draws a line of demarkation between the psychological excitement and the physiological phenomena attending the expression of the emotions. "Natural Science and Religion" (New York, Scribners) is a reprint of lectures by Professor Asa Gray, expressing the concurrent acceptance of the theory of the evolution of species and the revelations of the Bible. "Life: its True Genesis," by R. W. Wright (New York, Putnams), is a sharp polemic against the evolutionist school. The "Theory of Thought" is a treatise on deductive logic, which follows the old Aristotelian principles, but in analysis and systematic treatment contains much which is original, by Noah K. Davis (New York, Harpers). "The Perception of Space and Matter," by Rev. Johnston Estep Walter, propounds an original and philosophical theory of perception (Bos-

ton, Estes & Lauriat). The translation of Professor Eucken's "Fundamental Concepts of Modern Philosophic Thought" (New York, Appletons) is a lucid exposition of the position of the introspective philosophers with regard to the fundamental problems of being, which, for want of a popular interpretation, have of late been neglected for less abstract studies. Lange's great work on the "History of Materialism" has been published in a translation (Boston, Houghton).

Of publications on the *Natural Sciences* there have appeared but few original treatises in book form during the year. For the popular presentation of the theoretical conclusions and important discoveries of the scientific world the public depend in a great measure upon British authors. Several translations of extensive works in other languages have been made and published in this country, and all the important English books of popular interest have been reproduced. The original scientific workers in the United States, who are becoming more numerous and their labors more productive, find admirable vehicles for the publication of their results in the scientific periodicals, the reports and transactions of scientific societies, and, lately, in the publications which are issued at the expense of some of the larger universities. The aid and encouragement which is extended to science by the Government is not generally appreciated. Though the principle is deprecated by many, the extent of this encouragement and the value of the subsidized labors to science and to the country are disproportionately greater than the costs incurred. The important publications of the scientific bureaus connected with the Government, and those of the States, deserve notice from their increase and improvement. Among the Government publications may be mentioned "Henry's Contribution to the Electro-Magnetic Telegraph," by William B. Taylor; "Report on the Lands of the Arid Regions of the United States," by J. W. Powell; Colonel Garrick Mallory's "Introduction to the Sign Languages among the North American Indians," a Smithsonian publication; Lieutenant Sigsbee's "Deep Sea Soundings," the magnificently illustrated account of hydrographic work on the American coast; the "Monographs on the Cotton Worm," by Charles V. Riley, and the "Chinch-Bug," by Cyrus Thomas; G. K. Gilbert's "Report on the Geology of the Henry Mountains," an important original work upon volcanic action; Hayden's "Reports on the Geological Survey of the Territories"; "The Narrative of the Second Arctic Expedition made by Charles F. Hall," edited by Professor J. E. Nourse; and Dr. Baird's "Fishery Reports."

The "North American Entomologist," A. R. Grote, editor, is a new scientific monthly, published in Buffalo; Nicol's chapters from the "Physical History of the Earth" is a well-planned book on the changes of the planet

(New York, Harpers). A "Refutation of Darwinism" has been written by T. W. O'Neill (Philadelphia, Lippincott). Dr. Prantl's "Text-Book of Botany," translated from the German, and edited by S. H. Vines, is an excellent compendium of the modern structural and physiological botany, presenting the discoveries and generalizations which have only recently elevated this branch into the position of a genuine natural science. Niaudet's "Galvanic Batteries" (New York, Wiley) is a thorough treatise on the subject. The "Science of Life," by J. H. Wythe, M. D. (New York, Phillips & Hunt), is a treatise on biology from the orthodox standpoint. Du Bois's "Thermo-Dynamics" (New York, Wiley) is a most elaborate and exhaustive treatise. The more important reprints of foreign publications are: Huxley's "Crayfish"; "Darwin's "Power of Movement in Plants"; Lindsey's "Mind in the Lower Animals"; Roscoe and Schorlemmer's "Chemistry"; Ball's "Astronomy"; Bastian's "Brain as an Organ of Mind"; and Maudsley's "Pathology of Mind." The "American Journal of Philology" is a quarterly, edited by Professor Basil Gildersleeve, of Johns Hopkins University, in Baltimore.

Professor Alexander Winchell, in "Pre-Adamites," while expounding his own thoughtful views on the first appearance of man, conveys a great deal of anthropological knowledge in a readable and systematic form (Chicago, Griggs). "The Mound-Builders," by J. P. McLean (Cincinnati, Clarke), is a general compendium on the subject, and an account of the author's own researches in Ohio. The first annual report of the Archaeological Institute of America, established in Boston in 1879, contains several learned papers by Lewis H. Morgan, Joseph T. Clarke, and other members (Cambridge.)

Among numerous excellent *educational treatises* on scientific subjects may be mentioned, Edward S. Dana's Text-Book of Mechanics (New York, Wiley); "The Orthoëpist," the best and most convenient guide to the correct pronunciation of English words, by Alfred Ayres (New York, Appletons); and "Chemical Exercises in Qualitative Analysis," by George W. Rains, M. D. (New York, Appletons), introducing younger students to laboratory practice and experimental study. Professor T. R. Lounsbury's "History of the English Language" (New York, Holt) is a manual for the accurate student. William Swinton's "Masterpieces of English Literature" is a book which will help materially to impart that knowledge of our literature and its development, which has lately become so prominent a study in schools (New York, Harpers). "Ballads and Lyrics" (Boston, Houghton) is a book of similar purpose and excellence, being a well-selected anthology for school use, made by Henry Cabot Lodge. "The Science of English Verse" is a scholarly and scientific treatise on prosody, by Sidney Lanier (New

York, Scribners). "Words and their Uses" and "Every-Day English" (Boston, Houghton) are by Richard Grant White, the popular grammatical critic. Mayo W. Hazeltine, in "British and American Education" (New York, Harpers), makes a just and thorough comparison of the two systems of higher education.

Technical works on the most various branches of practical knowledge have for many years been produced in considerable numbers in the United States. Many of these are elaborate treatises which rank high in their special departments for completeness, accurate learning, and logical and perspicuous exposition. The number issued of such works of the highest class is increasing from year to year. Colonel William Pratt Wainwright's "Radical Mechanics of Animal Locomotion" (New York, Van Nostrand) is a military treatise, but has a general practical and scientific interest. "The Field Engineer," by William Findley Shunk (New York, Van Nostrand), is a manual for railroad engineers. Appletons' "Cyclopædia of Applied Mechanics" is a very complete and extensive illustrated dictionary of mechanics and engineering, edited by Park Benjamin. Corthell's "History of the Mississippi Jetties" is a thorough technical account of those works (New York, Wiley). Among the many other practical and theoretical works on mechanical and industrial subjects may be noted Leaning's volume on "Quantity Surveying"; Dunbar's new book on "Paper-Making" (New York, Spon); Searle on "Field Engineering" (New York, Wiley); Burr's "Stresses on Bridges"; and Rickett's "Assaying" (New York, Wiley). "Strategos" (New York, Appletons) explains an adaptation of the German war-game, elaborated by the author, Lieutenant Charles A. L. Totten, for the use of American students of tactics, which has been taken up with much favor by American military men.

Armstrong's "Cattle-Feeding" is an elaborate practical treatise on this important subject (New York, Wiley). "Scientific Agriculture" is a valuable compendium, in clear and popular language, by N. T. Lupton, LL. D. (New York, Appletons). Edward P. Roe's "Success with Small Fruits" (New York, Dodd & Mead) is as pleasant to read as it is useful and sensible.

The publications of the year on subjects connected with *Medicine* from their number and excellence show that in this as well as in other branches, and perhaps more than in other branches, the cultivation of solid and thorough learning, particularly of the sort which has an immediate practical bearing, is becoming more general. The numerous popular books on medical and hygienic subjects by competent authors is a gratifying phenomenon which is not confined to the United States, although this country leads in this important line of progress. Dr. George M. Beard gives the results of his exhaustive study of the nervous infirmity of Americans in "A Practical Treatise on Ner-

vous Exhaustion" (New York, Wood). Dr. John Wilson has written a suggestive volume on "Health and Health Resorts" (Philadelphia, Porter & Coates). A valuable work on European medicinal springs is Dr. Edward Gutmann's "Watering-places of Germany, etc." (New York, Appletons). Dr. Beard's "Sea-Sickness" propounds an entirely new theory of the cause and treatment of that malady (New York, Treat). "The Summer and its Diseases," by James C. Wilson, M. D.; "Winter and its Dangers," by Hamilton Osgood, M. D.; "The Throat and the Voice," by J. Solis Cohen, M. D.; and "Brain-Work and Overwork," by Dr. H. C. Wood, are some of a series of American "Health Primers" edited by Dr. W. W. Keen (Philadelphia, Blakiston). Dr. J. M. Anders's "Hygienic and Therapeutic Relations of House-Plants" (Philadelphia, Lippincott) treats of a subject of practical concern, and gives the results of interesting observations. Other treatises on hygiene and medicine for popular use are, "The Throat and its Functions," by Louis Elsberg (New York, Putnams), and "A Doctor's Suggestions to the Community," by Dr. D. B. St. John Roosa (New York, Putnams). Contributions to sanitary science are "Our Homes," by Dr. Henry Hartshorne (Philadelphia, Blakiston); and "Water Analysis for Sanitary Purposes" (Philadelphia, Blakiston), a reliable manual by the noted chemist, Dr. Frankland. Special treatises of interest and value are Roosa and Ely's "Ophthalmic and Otic Contributions" (New York, Putnams); Alt on "The Human Eye" (Putnams); the translation of Wecker's large work on "Ocular Therapeutics" (New York, Wood); Jacobi on "Diphtheria"; Bosworth's "Diseases of the Throat and Nose," and Robinson on "Catarrh"; the translation of Frey on the "Microscope"; Rosenthal's revised work on nervous diseases (New York, Wood); and Gross on "Tumors of the Mammary Gland" (New York, Appletons). A pharmaceutical journal in German, of scientific scope, is edited by Dr. George W. Rachel, and published in New York.

The excellent methodical treatises on the *Law*, of which the juristic literature of America possesses a great number, are receiving new accessions; and, concurrently, some of the legal writers are turning their attention to the preparation of popular expositions of the theory and operation of the laws for the instruction of lay-readers, a commendable practice, pregnant with beneficial consequences. B. V. Abbott's "Judge and Jury" (New York, Harpers) is a pleasantly instructive outline of the more important laws now in force in the United States, the changes which the law has undergone, the system of the judiciary, etc. "The General Principles of Constitutional Law in the United States," by Thomas M. Cooley (Boston, Little, Brown & Co.), is an able analytical and historical treatise in concise form of the American Constitution and its present interpretation and workings. Bige-

low's "History of Procedure in England" is a learned work upon a subject connected with the history of our jurisprudence (Boston, Little, Brown & Co.). Special treatises issued by the same publishers are Bigelow's "Bills, Notes, and Checks"; Benjamin Robbins Curtis's "Jurisdiction and Peculiar Jurisprudence of the Courts of the United States"; F. F. Heard's "Principles of Pleading in Civil Actions"; Professor C. C. Langdell's "Summary of the Law of Contracts"; "Schouler on Bailments, including Carriers, Innkeepers, and Pledge"; and "The Trial by Jury," a text-book prepared for the Harvard School, by Thomas Starkie. The "Brief Synopsis of the Collection Laws of the United States and Canada" (New York, Appletons) supplies information which was greatly needed by business men in an accurate and handy book. The "American Manual of Parliamentary Law," by George T. Fish (New York, Harpers), is an excellent new hand-book of the recognized customs of deliberative assemblies (New York, Harpers).

Among the American books on *Art* and the history of the arts, the following are worthy of notice: Three excellent manuals for students and amateurs are "Pottery Decoration under the Glaze," by M. Louise McLaughlin, "Instructions in the Art of Modeling in Clay," by A. L. Vago, and "Charcoal Drawing without a Master," by Karl Robert, all published by Robert Clarke & Co., of Cincinnati. "Some Practical Hints on Wood Engraving," by W. J. Linton (Boston, Lee & Shepard), is a harsh diatribe against the experiments and innovations of the new school of artistic wood-engraving, by one of the early leaders in the movement which he deplures. "Great Lights in Sculpture and Painting" (New York, Appletons) is a manual for young students of art history, by S. D. Doremus. The elaborate "History of Painting" by Woltmann and Woermann is produced in New York by Dodd, Mead & Co. "The American Art Review" is an æsthetic journal of rather high standing and purpose, published in Boston by Estes & Lauriat.

The handy volume on "Great Singers," by George T. Ferris (New York, Appletons), is a very agreeable, gossipy account of the famous lady opera-singers of bygone times. Louis Nohl's "Life of Mozart," translation by John J. Lalor, is a model musical biography (Chicago, Jansen, McClurg & Co.). Schumann's volume of essays and criticisms, entitled "Music and Musicians," has been translated and published with annotations by Fanny Raymond Ritter (New York, Schuberth & Co.).

No comprehensive work of *History*, of American authorship, has appeared during the year, but a few books of research on special subjects have come out. Of outline sketches and digests for popular reading and instruction there is an abundant supply. Dr. Schliemann was assisted in his "Researches and Discoveries on the Site of Troy," a magnificent volume, published in this country by Harpers, by the la-

bors of several of the most eminent European archaeologists. "The Origin of the Homeric Poems" (New York, Harpers) is a translation by Professor Lewis J. Packard of a remarkable lecture by Dr. H. Bonitz, which is much read in Germany, summing up the great controversy and the investigations concerning the authorship of Homer which have been going on for nearly a century. Professor Herbermann's "Business Life in Ancient Rome" (New York, Harpers) is a fine monograph on antique commerce and industrial methods. "Caliph Haroun Alraschid and Saracen Civilization," by E. H. Palmer (New York, Putnams), is the authentic history of the famous Saracen monarch by E. H. Palmer, the Orientalist.

Professor Henry M. Baird has written a good historical monograph, evincing earnest labor in a congenial field of research, on the "Rise of the Huguenots in France" (New York, Scribners). Henry P. Johnston's "Observations on Judge Jones's Loyalist History of the American Revolution" (New York, Appletons) is intended to refute the misstatements of the spirited and witty but slanderous and vituperative diary, first published in 1879, lest these errors should creep into other works. "New England Bygones" and "Old-Time Child-Life" are pleasant descriptions of American life in early times, by E. H. Arr (Philadelphia, Lippincott).

Books upon *Politics and Economy* are becoming more numerous. Although American writers on these subjects are not divided into well-defined schools of thought as in other countries, and although they do not derive the assistance which they might from the enormous new European literature on these subjects, many desultory and occasional disquisitions are published upon special matters which have become prominent questions for speculation and opinion. The "Miscellaneous Writings," by Francis Lieber, have been published by Lippincott & Co. "A True Republic," by Albert Stickney (New York, Harpers), arraigns party government, and advocates civil-service reform. New numbers of Putnams' "Economic Monographs" are "Free Ships," by Captain John Codman; "Labor-making Machinery," by Frederick Perry Powers. "Labor" and "Socialism" are series of lectures on topics connected with these subjects, by Joseph Cook. "The Interoceanic Canal and the Monroe Doctrine" is an anonymous vindication of the exclusive policy regarding the canal. "The Action of the United States Tariff," by Alfred Tylor, an English thinker, suggests an unsuspected effect of protection (New York, Putnams). "Free Land and Free Trade" is a plea for unrestricted commerce and a warning against land monopoly, by Samuel S. Cox (New York, Putnams). H. W. Richardson's short account of "The National Banks" is not only a correct description but an able defense of the system (New York, Harpers). "The Elective Franchise in the United States," by D. C. Mc-

Millan (New York, Putnams), gives a searching examination of the working and defects of the present American elective methods, and proposes as a remedy for the caucus the elevation of the primaries into a condition for spontaneous and authoritative action, qualifications for voters at primary meetings, and direct nominations of party candidates. Henry George's "Progress and Poverty," published in library form by Appletons, is one of the most original and profound works in political economy which has appeared lately in any country, and which is so recognized, being translated and studied in various European languages; the author has, independently and without aid from their writings, taken the advanced position of the later school of German writers on theoretical jurisprudence and national economy. Blanqui's famous "History of Political Economy" has been translated into English for the first time, by Emily J. Leonard (New York, Putnams). "Certain Dangerous Tendencies in American Life" [by Harrison] is a book containing much shrewd thought, and is a strong presentation of the author's peculiar views (Boston, Houghton). Bolles's "Financial History of the United States" (New York, Appletons) is a learned and valuable work. The "Political and Legal Remedies for War," by Sheldon Amos (New York, Harpers), gives a thoughtful examination of the subject. Atkinson's "Railroads of the United States" ably discusses the political aspects of transportation. Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's "Modern Society" (Boston, Roberts) gives the reflections of a bold and acute female thinker on social subjects. "Homicide North and South" is an interesting statistical study of the relative frequency of personal violence in the different sections of the Union, by H. V. Redfield (Philadelphia, Lippincott). Dr. E. C. Wines, the energetic laborer for prison reform, has published a volume entitled "The State of Prisons and of Child-saving Institutions in the Civilized World," a description of the penal and reformatory institutions and methods of every country, comprising even those of Oriental nations. "The State and the Liquor Traffic" is a paper by the Secretary of the Board of Health of New Jersey, Ezra M. Hunt, intended to show that the license system was originally adopted for restrictive, and not for revenue purposes (New York). "A Century of Dishonor" (New York, Harpers) contains a disclosure of the injustice to the Indians resulting from the policy and practice of the United States Government in its relations with the tribes [by Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson]. The Indian question is discussed more fully, and more calmly and objectively, in "Our Indian Wards," by George W. Moneypenny, ex-Commissioner of Indian Affairs (Cincinnati, Robert Clarke & Co.).

A large number of excellent works of *Travel* and geographical description have been published. Nathaniel H. Bishop's "Four Months

in a Sneak-Box" (Boston, Lee & Shepard) is a narrative of a voyage down the Mississippi in a small boat. John Mortimer Murphy's "Sporting Adventures in the Far West" (New York, Harpers) contains the suggestions of an experienced sportsman. A. Judd Northrup's "Camps and Tramps, etc." (Syracuse), is an account of hunting and fishing adventures in the Adirondacks and Michigan. "Canoe and Camera" is a description of a fishing excursion in the Maine lakes, by Thomas Sedgwick Steele (New York, Orange Judd & Co.). Marion Harland's [Mrs. Terhune's] account of European travel, "Loiterings in Pleasant Paths" (New York, Scribners), contains useful suggestions for invalid travelers. Howard Payson Arnold has written an agreeable narrative of travel in a seldom trodden corner of Europe in "Gleanings from Petrosina and the Upper Engadine" (Boston, Houghton). Samuel S. Cox's "Search for Winter Sunbeams" (New York, Appletons) is a second edition of the entertaining and comical observations of that witty author on the shores of the Mediterranean. Frederick A. Ober's "Camps in the Caribbees" (Boston, Lee & Shepard) is an entertaining account of a naturalist's adventures in the little known Lesser Antilles. "New Colorado and the Santa Fé Trail" is a lively, graphic account of scenes in the far West and adventures of travel by A. A. Hayes (New York, Harpers). "Brazil: the Amazons and the Coast" (New York, Scribners) is an entertaining narrative of travel in an interesting region, by Herbert H. Smith.

"The Russian Army and its Campaigns in Turkey" is by Lieutenant F. V. Greene, military *attaché* to the United States Legation in St. Petersburg. The new edition of Lippincott's "Gazetteer" is the completest geographical dictionary published.

Biographical works and volumes of personal reminiscences form an unusually large proportion of the year's publications. In religious biography several notable works have appeared. "Heroes of Christian History" (New York, Armstrong) is a series of sketches of eminent religious men by English and American authors: lives of William Wilberforce, by John Stoughton, D. D.; Henry Martin, by Canon Charles D. Bell; and Philip Doddridge, by Charles Stanford, D. D., have been published. A memoir of the Rev. Dr. Charles Hodge has been written by the Rev. A. A. Hodge, D. D. (New York, Scribners). The "Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg," by Anne Ayres (New York, Harpers) is a biography of one of the most eminent of American divines. On the still more celebrated and influential Dr. Channing the "Life" by his nephew has been reissued on the occasion of the centennial of his birth, and a volume of "Reminiscences," by Elizabeth Palmer Peabody, and a memorial essay by Charles T. Brooks (Boston, Roberts), have been published. The life of another eminent clerical thinker is recounted in the "Life and Letters of Horace Bushnell" (New York,

Harpers). "Memorials of Frances Ridley Havergal," author of tender religious poetry, have been prepared by her sister, M. V. G. H. (New York, Randolph), and several volumes of her writings have also been published during the year. "Sister Augustine, an Old Catholic" (New York, Holt), is a translation from the German memoir of Amalie von Lassaulx, the story of a remarkable life of devotion to religious convictions and to benevolent works. "A Model Superintendent" is a sketch of the life and labors of Henry P. Haven, by H. Clay Trumbull (New York, Harpers). Professor Henry Boynton Smith's memoir, edited by his wife (New York, Armstrong), is an interesting biography of an amiable and accomplished scholar.

An edition of Madame d'Arblay's memoirs of English court life, revised and edited by Sarah Chauncey Woolsey, is called "The Diary and Letters of Frances Burney" (Boston, Roberts). Henri de Lacretelle's "Lamartine and his Friends," translated by Maria E. Odell (New York, Putnams), gives the reader a familiar acquaintance with the brilliant poet-statesman and other great Frenchmen of the nineteenth century. C. H. Jones has written sketches of the lives of Macaulay and Gladstone (New York, Appletons). "Certain Men of Mark" (Boston, Roberts) contains sketches of living historical characters, by George Makepeace Towle. The long-delayed publication of the "Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat," now completed (New York, Appletons), has accomplished an important mission in substituting the image of a real man, though in many respects an ignoble one, for the floating vision of ideal virtues and vices, and superhuman powers, which political panegyrists and detractors have left of Napoleon.

"Abraham Lincoln and the Abolition of Slavery in the United States" (New York, Putnams) is a life of Lincoln, written by Charles Godfrey Leland, with enthusiastic admiration and intelligent appreciation for the war President's true virtues and achievements. "Anecdotes of Public Men" is a volume of intensely interesting reminiscences by Colonel John W. Forney (New York, Harpers). The "Memoir of Governor Andrew" contains personal reminiscences of the late Governor of Massachusetts, by Peleg W. Chandler (Boston, Roberts). The "Memoir of Henry Armit Brown," edited by Professor J. M. Hoppin (Philadelphia, Lippincott), preserves the memory of a gifted orator and high-minded politician whose early death was a national loss.

Mrs. John T. Sargent's "Sketches and Reminiscences of the Radical Club of Chestnut Street, Boston," and Charles T. Congdon's "Reminiscences of a Journalist" (Boston, Osgood), present interesting pictures of literary and intellectual society in America. "My College Days," by Dr. Robert Tomes, is a frank and garrulous narration of personal reminiscences of school and college life in New York,

Hartford, and Edinburgh. Henry Wikoff's "Reminiscences of an Idler" is a sprightly, entertaining narrative of a careless life of social pleasure and adventure (New York, Fords). Jane Grey Swisshelm has published a volume of personal recollections under the title of "Half a Century" (Chicago). "Elihu Burritt," edited by Charles Northend (New York, Appletons), is an account of a man who deserves to be remembered as a philanthropic agitator, though more famous in his day as a self-taught linguist. The "Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer" is an interesting account of early California life, by P. H. Burnett, the first Governor of the State (New York, Appletons).

Literary History and Criticism have received many excellent contributions. Hermann Grimm's "Life and Times of Goethe" has been translated by Miss S. H. Adams (Boston, Little, Brown & Co.). The translation of the correspondence of Catherine Elizabeth Goethe, mother of the poet, with her son and others, made by Alfred S. Gibbs (New York, Dodd, Mead & Co.), has proved a popular book. Dr. Scherr's critical and historical biography of Schiller has been translated by Elizabeth McClellan (Philadelphia, Kohler). "Studies in German Literature" is a series of lectures by Bayard Taylor, which, although written for delivery before students, reveal throughout his unlimited knowledge of literature and his rare critical insight (New York, Putnams). "Madame de Staël," by Abel Stevens (New York, Harpers), is a thorough and well-sifted collection of all facts which are connected with the life of this famous woman, and is an exceedingly interesting work. "Aspects of German Culture," by Granville Stanley Hall (Boston, Osgood), is an analysis of contemporary life and thought in Germany by the keen observer who has written on German subjects for the New York "Nation."

"Shakespeare: A Biographic and Æsthetic Study," is a gracefully written essay, speculating on the life and character of the great poet (Boston, Lee & Shepard). "Shakespeare's Morals" is another reflective essay, in which the moral convictions of Shakespeare are deduced from his writings, by Arthur Gilman (New York, Dodd, Mead & Co.). The "New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare," which is being prepared by Dr. Horace Howard Furness (Philadelphia, Lippincott), is the work of an accomplished scholar possessing fine critical discernment, and, what is equally important, an accurate appreciation of the taste and demands of the public in an edition of Shakespeare. Henry James's study of Hawthorne, which has provoked many strictures and various comments, is very conscientiously thought out and characteristic of the author. Eugene Lawrence's series of "Literature Primers" (New York, Harpers) closes with the "Primer of American Literature." "Great Authors of All Ages" is an imperfect and careless com-

pilation, but contains selections from a large number of writers, especially in English literature, by S. Austin Allibone (Philadelphia, Lippincott). Rev. E. Cobham Brewer's "Reader's Hand-Book" (Philadelphia, Lippincott) is a handy reference volume containing the names, fictitious, historical, and legendary, which are common subjects of allusions and parallels in fine literature, and giving epitomes of the plots of dramas and fictions, and other such literary information.

A posthumous volume of "Essays and Critical Notes" by Bayard Taylor, published by Putnams, contains confidential revelations of the professional life of an author following high ideals of art, but forced to descend to more remunerative work. Among the other books of essays and literary criticism the following are noticeable: "Self-Culture," by James Freeman Clarke (Boston, Osgood); Frederick Metcalfe's "The Englishman and the Scandinavian" (Boston, Lothrop), a study of the ancient Norse literature; Bartol's "Principles and Portraits" (Boston, Roberts); and Professor Francis Bowen's "Gleanings from a Literary Life" (New York, Scribners).

Two volumes of social essays may be selected for notice: "Penciled Fly-Leaves," consisting of essays on familiar, every-day American subjects conceived in a poetic spirit, by John James Piatt (Cincinnati, Clarke); and "Causerie" [by William A. Hovey], in which are preserved some excellent specimens of the kind of bright newspaper-writing which is too good to serve for a moment's entertainment and then be cast aside, as is usually the fate of such literature, however elegant and fine (Boston, Roberts).

In poetry there have been but few noteworthy publications, and none of extraordinary excellence. "Ultima Thule," by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, and "The Iron Gates, and other Poems," by Oliver Wendell Holmes (Boston, Houghton), contain recent and before uncollected poems. A collection of the poems of Richard Henry Stoddard has been issued by Scribners. "Hesperus and other Poems" is a collection from one of the junior poets, Charles De Kay (New York, Scribners). Susan Coolidge has a collection of "Verses" (Boston, Roberts). The "Poems" of George Arnold are published by Osgood & Co. A collection of Lucy Larcom's poetry is entitled "Wild Roses of Cape Ann and other Poems" (Boston, Houghton). Mrs. Anne Field's poems on classical themes are given in a collection named "Under the Olive" (Boston, Houghton). "Echoes of Half a Century" is a collection of the poems of William Pitt Palmer (New York, Putnams). "All Round the Year" is the title of a budget of new poems by Elaine and Dora Goodale (New York, Putnams). "The Microcosm and other Poems" is an elegantly printed volume of poetry, by Dr. Abraham Coles (New York, Appletons). The collection of the poems of Frank O. Tick-

nor, M. D., a lately deceased Southern writer of verse, includes the pathetic ballad of "Little Giffen" (Philadelphia, Lippincott). Another volume of Southern verse is Father Ryan's "Poems" (Mobile). "The Maid of Northumberland," a drama by Daniel Bedinger Lucas (New York, Putnams), is also a Southern production. "Three Friends' Fancies" is a collection of simple and sincere verses by three Southern ladies. The fine short poems of T. B. Aldrich have been published in a collection entitled "XXXVI Lyrics and XII Sonnets" (Boston, Houghton). The first complete translation of Schiller's works has been published in Philadelphia by J. Kohle and edited by Charles J. Hempel.

The *Novels* of the year are numerous, and many of them of high character. The "Undiscovered Country," by W. D. Howells, is a gracefully handled delineation of an intellectual type not uncommon in America, that of a devotee to a speculative hypothesis; his crotchets were also a typical one, being connected with the theories of modern spiritualism. "Dr. Heidenhoff's Process," by Edward Bellamy (New York, Appletons), is a remarkably artistic and effective story, containing many life-like details strung upon an ingenious and fanciful thread. "A Fool's Errand," by One of the Fools [Albion W. Tourgee], is a political novel in which the author, who had filled a judgeship in North Carolina during reconstruction, attacked the South so trenchantly and bitterly, and presented tales of Southern barbarity and persecution with so skillful a simulation of historical candor and reality, that the intended political effect was very successfully accomplished, a more momentous effect than has been produced by any other pamphlet of late years. This partisan novel was followed by a second of like import—"Bricks without Straw." Mr. Tourgee had previously published a tale of Western life, called "Figs and Thistles," in which the untrained but somewhat graphic power of his episodes and the lack of every quality of a coherent plot are seen undisturbed by the political interest of his other novels (New York, Fords). A "Reply to the Fool's Errand" (New York, Hale) was written by Mr. Royall, of Virginia. "Democracy" (New York, Holt) is a political satire of broader purpose, in which the roguery of practical politics is painted with a moderate degree of skill and truth. "The Virginia Bohemians" is a tale in which the characteristics of Southern life before the war are exhibited with an instinctive and delicate touch, though the scenes and incidents are placed in the present day, and nothing in the story itself bears the stamp of dramatic realism, by John Esten Cooke (New York, Harpers). "The Stillwater Tragedy" is a romance of crime combined with a love-story, both parts as well done as might be expected from the accomplished author, T. B. Aldrich, but hardly well blended (Boston, Houghton). George W. Cable's "The Grandissimes" is an

historical novel of the highest order, whose scene is laid in Louisiana at the time of the annexation (New York, Scribners); Cable's pictures of life are artistic and real, showing qualities in which American novelists have before proved themselves wanting, and in his portrayal of feminine character he ranks with the highest artists of any land. In "The Confessions of a Frivolous Girl," Robert Grant has produced one of the best satirical sketches of fashionable society which has appeared (Boston, A. Williams & Co.). "The Worst Boy in Town" is by the author of "Helen's Babies" (Jack Habberton), and in a similar vein. "Salvage" (Boston, Roberts) is a well-conceived though imperfectly sustained story. "A Foreign Marriage" (New York, Harpers) describes the fortunes of a selfish and ambitious beauty and an aspiring artist. "Tales of the Chesapeake" is a collection of good dialect sketches, by George Alfred Townsend (New York, American News Co.); as is also "Camp and Cabin," tales of Western life, by Rossiter W. Raymond (New York, Ford). One of the best works of the kind ever executed in the only field for such a work which our country presents is "Uncle Remus's Folk-Lore," by Joel Chandler Harris (New York, Appletons), a genuine collection of the legendary tales, which have animals for their actors, current among the Southern negroes, the embellishments of characteristic negro humor and fancy adding to their value as a collection of myths, while imparting a quality of irresistible fascination; the only perfect reproduction of the negro dialect which is embodied in this collection gives it, even in a higher degree than the myths which it preserves, a lasting philological importance. "Cape Cod and All Along Shore" (Franklin Square Library) is a collection of amusing stories illustrating characteristics of New England people, by Charles Nordhoff. Julian Hawthorne's "Sebastian Strome" is a work of considerable power, and contains many striking and original features, though lacking artistic unity; it accomplishes the difficult task of drawing base and wicked characters without making them unreal beings incapable of awakening a human interest and a degree of sympathy (New York, Appletons). "Golden-Rod" is a pleasing and refined society story (New York, Harpers). "A Strange Disappearance," by Anna Katherine Green (New York, Putnams), is a well-wrought-out story with a mystery, like her former one of "The Leavenworth Case." "His Majesty Myself" (Roberts's "No-Name Series") is a fine example of character-drawing and graphic depiction of social life. "The Heart of It," by W. O. Stoddard (New York, Putnams), is a realistic study by a new author. "Uncle Jack's Executors" is a pleasant story of three professional young women, by Annette Lucille Noble (New York, Putnams). "Rodman the Keeper" is the title of a series of sketches of Southern life, remarkably poetical and dra-

matic in conception, and rich in descriptive beauties and fine delineations of character, by Constance Fenimore Woolson (New York, Appletons). "Odd or Even?" is a story of New England, by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney (Boston, Houghton). "Confidence" (Boston, Houghton) is one of Henry James, Jr.'s, analytical studies of Americans abroad. Sylvester Judd's "Richard Edney and the Governor's Family" is a tale of the New England of the last generation, truthful in incident but speculatively psychological (Boston, Roberts). "Louisiana," by the popular Mrs. Frances Hodgson-Burnett, has for its theme a subject which she has before treated of, the transition of a girl from homely surroundings to metropolitan elegance (New York, Scribners). "A Hopeless Case," by Edgar Fawcett (Boston, Houghton), is a delineation of the artificialities of Knickerbocker society. "Mrs. Beauchamp Brown" (Boston, Roberts) is a less refined and less truthful picture of the fashionable life of Boston. "Radder Grange," by Frank R. Stockton (New York, Scribners), is a delightful extravaganza written in a rich and original vein of humor. "Unto the Third and Fourth Generation," by Helen Campbell, is a fatalistic romance, containing some strong life-like traits of a crime and its results (New York, Putnams). "From Madge to Margaret" depicts the growth of a woman's character, by Carrol Winchester (Boston, Lee & Shepard). Henry James, Jr., lays the scene of "Washington Square" in New York a generation back; it is published with Du Maurier's illustrations by Harpers. "The Diary of a Man of Fifty, and A Bundle of Letters" are two short stories by this keen analyst of character (New York, Harpers). "A Fair Barbarian" is one of the most powerfully written of the stories of Mrs. Frances Hodgson-Burnett; it is a novelette dealing with the life of Americans in Europe, and can be compared with the best of Henry James's for excellent characterization (Boston, Osgood). "Hope Mills" (Boston, Lee & Shepard) is a story of American factory-life, by Amanda M. Douglass, resembling in plot and treatment the English story, "Probation," by Miss Jessie Fothergill. Colonel Forney's novel, entitled "The New Nobility: A Story of Europe and America" (New York, Appletons), is stamped with the enthusiasm of a democratic thinker. "A Day of Fate" is another successful novel by the popular Rev. E. P. Roe (New York, Dodd & Mead). "Mashallah!" is a pleasant story, describing incidents of Egyptian travel, by Charles Warren Stoddard (New York, Appletons). "Poverina" is a delicious story of Italian life (New York, Appletons). The most popular of the other novels of the year are Miss S. Warner's "End of a Coil" (New York, Carters); the "Head of Medusa," a striking story, by Miss Fleming (Boston, Roberts); Wallace's religious historical romance of "Ben Hur," in which the action is placed in the age of Christ, and in which all the knowledge bear-

ing on the life of the founder of Christianity that can be collected from pagan sources is made use of (New York, Harpers); Miss F. W. Peard's entertaining and wholesome story of "Mother Molly" (New York, Putnams); the anonymous novel entitled "Beauty's Daughters" (Philadelphia, Lippincott); and "Roy and Viola," a successful novel by Mrs. Forrester (Philadelphia, Lippincott). The "Twins of Table Mountain, and other Stories" is a collection of tales by Bret Harte (Boston, Houghton). "Manch" is an entertaining story of the South by a Southern lady, Mary E. Bryan (New York, Appletons). Among the most interesting foreign novels which have been translated for the English-reading public are the following from French authors: Théophile Gautier's "Capitaine Fracasse," one of the masterpieces of historical romance-writing, as vivid and natural as it is artistic and picturesque, which is given to English readers for the first time, in two translations, with the indelicate scenes of the original left out, that of M. M. Ripley (New York, Holt), and Ellen Murray Beam's (New York, Putnams). René de Pont Jost's "No. 13 Rue Marlot," translated by Virginia Champ- lin, is an exceedingly well-constructed detective story (Boston, Lee & Shepard). Edmond About's "Story of an Honest Man," which conveys moral lessons in an agreeable manner (New York, Appletons); as a presentation of the intrinsic worth and honor of the simple obedience to the dictates of civil duty and benevolence in humble station it has never been surpassed; "Angèle's Fortune" is one of Theuriet's smooth and refined stories, translated by Mary Neal Sherwood (Philadelphia, Peterson); another of Theuriet's productions is published in Appletons' "Handy Volume Series," under the name of "Young Maugars." "Nana" (Philadelphia, Peterson), translated by John Stirling, is one of the most vivid and successful of Zola's portraiture of vice. "The Sisters" and "Homo Sum" are translations of the fine historical romances of the Egyptologist, Georg Ebers (New York, Gottsberger). Auerbach's simple and charming tale of "Brigitta" has been translated and published by Holt & Co. in their "Leisure-Hour Series"; his "Foresters" has also been translated (New York, Appletons). "The Spellbound Fiddler" (Chicago, Griggs) is a Scandinavian romance by Kristofer Janson, translated by Auber Forrester.

LITERATURE, BRITISH, IN 1880. In Great Britain, as on the Continent, there is an abatement of power and originality in works of imagination and invention, without any diminution in quantity. In fiction a greater number of productions attain a fair and tolerable degree of excellence than ever before, but none have the impress of great genius. In poetry a good number of finished products appear, but the general want of vigor and spontaneity, the cultivation of difficult versification, and the search for new models in other literatures, be-

tray a critical rather than a creative epoch. Science engenders the most vigorous and original thought. Philology and criticism, æsthetic and literary, are cultivated assiduously. The philological study of the Bible is pursued by English theologians with great zeal, incited by the example of Ewald and other German Hebraists, from whose bold and speculative conclusions, however, the British Biblical scholars are beginning to recoil.

As the result of these new, critical researches in the Hebrew and Greek Scriptures, an entirely new theological literature is springing up. The controversy with the scientific men about the evolutionary theories is dying out, and many theologians have become reconciled to these hypotheses. Rev. T. K. Cheyne, one of the most accomplished of English Hebraists, has in progress a translation and exegesis of the prophecies of Isaiah. The Rev. Dr. Cunningham Geikie's "Hours with the Bible" (New York, Pott) is a work containing the knowledge which modern research and orthodox criticism afford for the elucidation of the earlier books of the Bible. "The Speaker's Commentary," edited by Canon F. C. Cook (New York, Scribners), gives in convenient shape the results of orthodox philological criticism of the Bible. Canon Farrar's "Life and Works of St. Paul" (New York, Dutton) is the completest and most real presentment which has yet been given of the personal character and religious mission of the great apostle, and of all that is known of his life and the scenes in which it was passed. "Christian Institutions" is a series of connected essays by Dean Stanley upon the sacraments, rites, creeds, clergy, and other ecclesiastical subjects, being a kind of antiquarian and historical inquiry into the origin of the leading features of the English Church (New York, Scribners). P. Le Page Renouf, in "The Origin and Growth of Religion, as illustrated by the Religion of Ancient Egypt" (New York, Scribners), follows the new synthetic and comparative method of tracing the development of civilization. "The Metaphysics of the School" is an elucidation and defense of the scholastic philosophy, by Thomas Harper, S. J., of which the first volume has appeared (London, Macmillans). The "Manliness of Christ" is a series of lectures by Thomas Hughes, intended to convey his ideas of a stalwart Christian character (Boston, Houghton). Dr. Caird's temperate and liberal "Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion" is a welcome contribution to the controversy between scientists and theologians (New York, Macmillan). "The Manifold Witness for Christ," Boyle Lectures, by Alfred Barry, D. D., is a dignified and able defense of Christianity. "The Foundations of Faith" contains the Bampton Lectures of Henry Wace on the same subject. The "Dictionary of Christian Antiquities," edited by Dr. William Smith and Samuel Cheetnam (London, Murray), is made up of interesting and erudite articles on all subjects in

ecclesiastical archæology, by eminent scholars. Paul Isaac Hershon has placed before English readers a great number of sample extracts from the Talmud, in a "Talmudic Miscellany," selecting especially those passages which throw light upon the Bible.

"Unconscious Memory," by Samuel Butler, is an able critical examination of some of the mooted philosophical questions, marred, however, by bitter attacks upon other thinkers (London, Bogue). "Studies in Deductive Logic" is a manual by Professor W. Stanley Jevons.

The first clear and comprehensive account of Spinoza and his system of philosophy which has been given in English, is presented in Frederick Pollock's "Spinoza, his Life and Philosophy" (London, Kegan Paul). "Wish and Will" is a thoughtful and original work on psychology by George Lyon Turner (London, Longmans). "The Story of Philosophy," by Aston Leigh (London, Trübner), is intended to awaken a popular interest in philosophy, and is a most entertaining account of the Greek philosophers.

Among a large number of learned treatises on Oriental philology and religion, those enumerated below are the most important. "Chinese Buddhism" is a volume of critical and historical papers by the Rev. Dr. Joseph Edkins, who has made use of Chinese sources. "The Religions of China" contains a critical examination of Confucianism and Taoism compared with Christianity, by James Legge, Professor of Chinese at Oxford. The continuation of the translation of "The Sacred Books of the East," under the editorship of Max Müller, includes the first part of the "Zend-Avesta" (the Vendidad), translated by James Darmesteter in Vol. IV; the "Pahlavi Texts," translated by E. W. West, Vol. V; and the "Institutes of Vishnu," translated by Julius Jolly, Vol. VII (Oxford, Clarendon Press). "Cradle Land of Arts and Creeds," by Charles J. Stone, attempts to trace the Christian religious doctrines to Indian originals. Robert Needham Cust, the author of "Linguistic and Oriental Essays," is filled with a strong affection and respect for the Indian race, and discusses with great intellectual grasp and courage the religious and political questions and the historical problems which relate to the Indians and the future of India (London, Trübner). "India, Past and Present," by Shoshee Chunder Dutt (London, Chatto & Windus), consists of a number of ably and lucidly written essays on Indian subjects by a Hindoo who is versed in the thought and literature of his own race, but is more thoroughly imbued with European culture.

The extraordinary development of natural science which received its first impetus in England, is still going on without any sign of cessation. An unusual number of important original works have appeared in 1880, the chief of which have been reprinted in the United States. Professor Huxley's "Crayfish" (New

York, Appletons) is the most successful argumentative and explanatory work on the Darwinian theory which has yet been addressed to the general public, as well as an excellent and original scientific monograph upon the family of crustaceans which is selected to illustrate the author's doctrine. Huxley's "Introductory Science Primer" (New York, Appletons) is an important essay upon the aims and methods of modern science. Professor E. Ray Lankester's "Degeneration" (London, Macmillan) is an original contribution to the Darwinian doctrine, giving to the degeneration of species an important part in organic evolution. Alfred Russel Wallace's "Island Life" is an elaborate and important treatise upon the conditions and character of insular faunas and floras, complementary to his "Geographical Distribution of Animals" (London, Macmillan). "Mind in the Lower Animals in Health and Disease," by Dr. W. Lauder Lindsay (New York, Appletons), is a cogent and original treatise, written from the materialistic standpoint, presenting a mass of evidence to prove that animals possess a psychical nature differing only in degree from that of man. "Man and Beast Here and Hereafter" is a genial defense of the belief that animals have immortal souls, and a good-humored recital of the remonstrances the author provoked by announcing his belief, by Rev. J. G. Wood. Dr. Bastian's new book, "The Brain as an Organ of Mind" (New York, Appletons), is a work of great importance on psychology and the physiological aspects of mind. Charles and Francis Darwin's work on the "Power of Movement in Plants" (New York, Appletons) records some of the most important discoveries in vegetable physiology ever made (see CIRCUMNUTATION).

There has been issued the first part of a great work on the infusoria, by W. Saville Kent (London, David Bogue). The first volume of the final report, prepared under the superintendence of Sir Wyville Thomson, of the "Results of the Voyage of H. M. S. Challenger" has been printed, and contains the report on "Zoölogy." "Ideal Chemistry" suggests problems in chemical science, and contains conjectures on the fundamental conditions of matter, by Professor Brodie, of Oxford (London, Macmillan). W. Mattieu Williams, one of the best popular writers on science, has written "A Simple Treatise on Heat" (London, Chatto & Windus). "Ponds and Ditches" is a pleasing popular exposition of scientific knowledge, by M. C. Cooke. Professor Wurtz has contributed to the "International Scientific Series" an admirable history and explanation of "The Atomic Theory," translated by E. Cleminshaw (London, C. Kegan Paul & Co.). Karl Semper's excellent book on "The Natural Conditions of Existence as they affect Animal Life" has been translated. "Fossil Men and their Modern Representatives" (London, Hodder & Stoughton) gives an able argument in refutation of the doctrine of evolution based

upon anthropological research, by Professor J. W. Dawson, of Montreal. Professor W. Boyd Dawkins has written an exhaustive work on "Early Man in Britain and his Place in the Tertiary Period" (New York, Macmillan). Macmillan has published a translation of Pasteur's "Studies in Fermentation." "Electric Induction," by J. E. H. Gordon (London, Low), is a republication of lectures before the Royal Institution, explaining in popular language the accepted theory of electricity and the facts which support it. "Geodesy," by Colonel A. R. Clarke (Oxford, Clarendon Press), is the first treatise on the subject in the English language. Professor M. Foster's "Text-Book of Physiology" is an admirable treatise embodying the latest advances of the science (London, Macmillan). "The Poetry of Astronomy" contains Richard A. Proctor's latest popular scientific essays; another of his recent productions is "The Stars and the Earth" (St. Louis, Jones). "The Power of Sound," by Edmund Gurney, is an elaborate scientific treatise on music.

"Therapeutics and Materia Medica," by C. E. Armand Semple; "Forensic Medicine and Toxicology," by W. Douglass Heming, and "Aids to Anatomy," by George Brown, are students' manuals (New York, Putnams). "Eye-sight, Good and Bad" (London, Macmillan) is a practical treatise on the care of the eye by Robert B. Carter. On sanitary subjects there have appeared "Health and Healthy Homes," by George Wilson (Philadelphia, Blakiston), adapted to American conditions; Professor Corfield's "Dwelling-Houses" (New York, Van Nostrand); and "Health," a popular treatise on personal hygiene (New York, Appletons), by the same author.

The passion for travel preceded the development of scientific tastes in England. Since the acquirement of scientific knowledge has become a part of the higher education, the descriptions of travels have a better fund of interesting material to draw upon than the scraps of classical learning and antiquarian speculations which used to flavor such works. The widely extended imperial interests of Great Britain cause the English to feel more directly concerned with many remote lands than the people of other countries, and actuate the preparation of profound studies of those lands by trained political administrators or by other investigators who have given their subjects prolonged attention. "Portugal, Old and New," is a volume of intelligent observations and researches by Oswald Crawford, for a long time British consul at Oporto (New York, Putnams). "Siberia in Europe" gives an account of an ornithological tour to Northeast Russia, by H. Seebohm. "The Gardens of the Sun" is an account of a naturalist's visit to Borneo, by F. W. Burbidge (London, Murray). "Africa, Past and Present," by an Old Resident [Mr. Moister], is a brief summary of the history of African exploration (New York, American Tract Society). "Recollections of South Africa at the Time of

the Annexation of the Transvaal" is an exceedingly interesting account of the Boers by Theodore M. Tromp, a Hollander, who lived among them as the secretary of President Burgers (Leyden). "My Journey round the World," by Captain S. H. Jones-Farry, is a lively account of travels in America, the Australian colonies, and the Orient. A similar recountal of travels is entitled "Far-Out," by Lieutenant-Colonel W. F. Butler. Mrs. Brassey's "Sunshine and Storm in the East" is a description of a voyage in the Mediterranean, by a lady who has already won the esteem of the public by the refined and intelligent qualities of her narration of travels (New York, Holt). Henry Havard's new book, "The Heart of Holland" (Franklin Square Library), is of the same excellence as his others on the subject. "Holland and its People" is a translation by Caroline Tilton from the Italian of Edmondo de Amicis, a brilliant describer of lands and customs (New York, Putnams). "Columbia and Canada," by W. Fraser Rae (New York, Putnams), is a sketchy criticism of American things from hasty observations. Miss Isabella L. Bird has produced two very interesting books, "A Lady's Life in the Rocky Mountains," recounting the experiences of a fearless and observant lady explorer in unfrequented ways, and "Unbeaten Tracks in Japan," one of the best descriptive works on that country which has appeared (New York, Putnams). Oppert's "A Forbidden Land" is an important work of geographical and historical research in and concerning Corea (New York, Putnams), translated from the German. Sir Edward J. Reed's "Japan" is an admirable historical account and analysis of the social conditions of Japan, with a narrative of a visit to that country, which forms the second volume (London, Murray). "Turkey, Old and New," is a more labored and exhaustive account of the Ottoman Empire than the previous books which have appeared on the subject, by Sutherland Menzies. Robert Spence Watson's "Visit to Wazan" is an interesting narrative of travels in Morocco (London, Macmillan). Ball's "Jungle Life in India" is a diary kept by the author while working on the geological survey, and contains a vast amount of scientific information (London, De la Rue). "The Great African Island" is a popular description of Madagascar, by James Sibree (London, Trübner). Captain Gill's "The River of Golden Sand" (London, Murray) is a full account of his interesting travels in China. "Our Future Highway," by V. L. Cameron (London, Macmillan), relates to the possible railway connection with India by the Tigris route. Major H. G. Raverty's "Notes on Afghanistan and Part of Baluchistan" (London, Eyre & Spottiswoode) is an important treatise containing historical and geographical data derived from Oriental authors. A series of descriptive works upon the principal countries of the world is being issued by Sampson Low & Co., of which there have appeared "The West Indies,"

by C. H. Eden, and "Peru," by Clements R. Markham (New York, Scribner & Welford). Laurence Oliphant's "Land of Gilead" is an account of a tour of inspection, undertaken with a view to the colonization of Palestine with European Hebrews, a plan which the author conceived would greatly aid in the preservation and reformation of the Turkish Empire (New York, Appletons).

Political economy shows signs of entering upon a new stage of progress. The marks of a fresh advance are more apparent in the periodical literature than in the published treatises. The authority of the great names of the political economists of the past is at last waning, as the generalizations of the theoretical economy have long been disregarded in practical legislation, and the sociological investigations of English scholars are generating as a natural fruit new conceptions of the organization of civilized society. "Popular Sovereignty" is the title of a book which contains a cogent and earnest defense of the principle of popular self-government and the democratic idea, by Charles Anthony, Jr. (London, Longmans). A translation has been made of Dr. Luigi Cossa's admirable "Guide to the Study of Political Economy," a product of the older orthodox school of economy. "Principles of Property in Land" is a theoretical discussion of the land problem on general grounds of right and the common weal, in which liberal but not rash and unpractical views are expressed, by John Boyd Kinnear (London, Smith, Elder & Co.). "Free Land," by Arthur Arnold (London, C. Kegan Paul & Co.), is a clear and interesting treatise on land tenures, advocating free trade in land, and a peasant proprietorship. Among the special books on the land question in Ireland, the chief are "Irish Distress and its Remedies," by James H. Tuke; "The Parliamentary History of the Land Question," by R. Barry O'Brien; "Hibernian Horrors," by Alfred Austin; "The Land Question, Ireland;" "The Life's Work in Ireland of a Landlord who tried to do his Duty," by W. Bence Jones; "A Short Statement concerning the Confiscation of Improvements in Ireland," by a Working Landlord; "Parnellism Unveiled," by Philip H. Bagenal. "Hodge and his Master," by Richard Jeffries, is a very spirited and persuasive presentation of the extremely conservative and aristocratic sentiments regarding the peasantry. "Round about a Great Estate" is a delightful portrayal of the incidents and diversions of English rural life, by the same author.

No important work of history has appeared, but several interesting monographs, carefully digested summaries, and interesting discussions of recent history, have been published. Herbert Spencer's great work of "Descriptive Sociology, or Groups of Sociological Facts," is still in progress; the installment on the "Hebrews and Phœnicians" is the work of Dr. Richard Scheppegg. "The Aryan Village in India and Ceylon" is an interesting contribution to so-

ciological knowledge, by Sir J. Phear (London, Macmillan). Henry Brugsch-Bey's "History of Egypt under the Pharaohs, derived entirely from the Monuments," was translated by the late Henry Danby Seymour, and the work completed and prepared for the press by Philip Smith (London, Murray). "The Criminal Code of the Jews, according to the Talmud," gives the evidence of the wisdom and humanity of the Hebrew criminal jurisprudence (London, Smith, Elder & Co.). Lady Charlotte Jackson's "Old Paris" (New York, Holt) is an entertaining anecdotal history of the French court. James Geddes, in his "History of the Administration of John De Witte," of which the first volume has appeared (New York, Harpers), is working up a period of great importance in the history of political progress with commendable labor and judgment. Thomas Hodgkin, in "Italy and her Invaders" (Oxford, Clarendon Press), has written a history of the fall of the Roman Empire which shows profound study and acumen, containing valuable new matter upon a subject which has previously been handled by some of the ablest historians, and generalizations of great depth and boldness. Reginald Lane Poole's "History of the Huguenots of the Dispersion at the Recall of the Edict of Nantes" (London, Macmillan) recounts the fortunes of the emigrants, the interesting information having been gathered and verified with much labor. Vernon Lee, in "Studies of the Eighteenth Century in Italy," writes of Italian culture and society during a period of which almost nothing has previously been told in English literature. C. F. Johnston has given very interesting, well-arranged, and scholarly summaries of the history of the minor and less-known countries of Europe in his "Historical Abstracts" (London, C. Kegan Paul & Co.). Standish O'Grady has attempted to construct a "History of Ireland" from the ancient legendary lore, presenting the traditions in all their romantic and mythical details with genuine love for his subject (London, Low). "An Anecdotal History of the British Parliament" (New York, Appletons) is a fascinating book by George Henry Jennings, stimulating the study of history, and containing some valuable out-of-the-way information. Kinglake's great work on the "Invasion of the Crimea" ends with the sixth volume. Sir Charles Gavan Duffy's "Young Ireland," though covering the period of the former agitation, throws much light upon the present troubles in Ireland (New York, Appletons). "A Guide to Modern English History," by William Cory (New York, Holt), is an instructive commentary on British political history. C. A. Fyffe's "History of Modern Europe," of which the first volume has been published (London, Cassell), is a compendious, comprehensive, and philosophical review of European politics since the French Revolution. "A History of our own Times," by Justin McCarthy, deals with the history of England during the reign of Victoria, and,

while written with the skill of an accomplished author who possesses the art of enchainning the attention of the popular reader, it presents the views and conclusions of an enlightened and advanced political thinker, so moderately and considerately expressed as to offend the susceptibilities of none (New York, Harpers). Green's "History of the English People" has also been concluded, ending with the overthrow of Napoleon in 1815 (New York, Harpers). "England, her People, Polity, and Pursuits," by T. H. S. Escott (New York, Holt), is an outlined exposition of the data of the English social and political system.

Of memoirs and biographies there have appeared a large number, some of them important from the light they throw upon history, some of them relating to people of interesting personality, and some embodying critical studies of a high character. "Caroline von Linsingen and King William the Fourth," translated from the German, purports to give letters from that lady to the English King, and to reveal the fact that they were secretly married. Theodore Martin has published the fifth and final volume of his "Life of the Prince Consort" (New York, Appletons). "The Life, Times, and Correspondence of the Right Rev. Dr. Doyle, Bishop of Kildare and Leighlin," by W. J. Fitzpatrick, is a new and greatly augmented edition of the memoirs of one of the most illustrious and influential Irishmen of the century. Louis Kossuth's "Memoirs of my Exile," translated by Ferencz Jausz (New York, Appletons), is not so much a narrative of personal experiences as an impassioned protest against the extinction of Hungarian national independence. "Francis Deák" (London, Macmillan) is an account of the life and work of that illustrious Hungarian patriot and statesman. "Four Centuries of English Letters" contains typical and entertaining selections from the correspondence of every remarkable epistolary writer from the Paston letters to those of Prince Albert—W. Baptiste Scoones, editor. The "Life and Letters" of Chief-Justice Campbell has been prepared by his daughter, Mrs. Harcastle. The "Memoirs of Prince Metternich," which appeared in 1879, have been translated into English by Mrs. Alexander Napier (New York, Scribners). Guizot's memoirs by his daughter, Madame de Witt, have been translated by M. C. M. Simpson, "Monsieur Guizot in Private Life" (London, Chapman & Hall). "The Early History of Charles James Fox" is by George Otto Trevelyan, the most brilliant biographer of the time (New York, Harpers). Henry W. Luey's "Gladstone" (Harpers) is a well-written biographical sketch of the Premier. The keen and profound critical perceptions of Georg Brandes are directed to a worthy subject in his study of "Lord Beaconsfield," translated by Mrs. George Sturge (New York, Scribners). A memorial sketch of the remarkable wife of the historian Grote, "Mrs. Grote, a Study," is by Lady Eastlake (London, Murray). Dr. W.

G. Blaikie's "Personal Life of David Livingstone" is compiled mainly from his unpublished journals (New York, Harpers). "The Life of Joseph Barker" (London, Hodder & Stoughton) is the interesting autobiography of that remarkable religious neologist and political visionary. "The Life and Work of Mary Carpenter" is a finely written, ennobling relation of a life passed in the service of humanity, by J. Estlin Carpenter (London, Macmillan). In the series of biographical sketches, which are intended to offer a coherent review of modern German literature, and which are given under the title of "German Life and Literature," the author, Alexander Hay Japp, seeks to depose Goethe from the lofty pedestal upon which his German and English admirers have placed him. "Etienne Dolet, the Martyr of the Renaissance" (London, Macmillan), is an account of one of the most interesting figures of the period of the Reformation, and one of the most intellectual and progressive men of that progressive age, written by Richard Copley Christie. Mrs. Oliphant has written a sympathetic sketch of "Cervantes" for Blackwood's series of "Foreign Classics." An excellent and extensive biographical "Dictionary of Musicians," edited by George Grove, has just been completed (London, Macmillan). "Cowper," in Morley's series of "Men of Letters," is by Goldwin Smith, and ranks with the best of these biographical essays (New York, Harpers). Edward Dowden's "Southey," in the same series, is a careful and judicious memoir of a poet who has undeservedly lapsed further from public thought and attention than most of the subjects of these sketches. Adolphus William Ward's volume on "Chaucer" is well calculated to awaken a popular interest in the father of English poetry. The sketch of "Byron" is by John Nichol. Froude's "John Bunyan" in this series (New York, Harpers) is calculated to attract the attention of the reader, who will be pleased by the perusal of this thoughtful biographical study. "Alexander Pope," by Leslie Stephen, gives a severe estimate of the man, which may be warranted, but hardly an appreciative estimate of his genius. "Reminiscences by Thomas Carlyle" (New York, Scribners) consists of some sketches of an autobiographic character found among the papers of the late author by Mr. Froude; they are full of the frank opinions and candid criticisms of the great Scotchman upon books and people. "Samuel Lover," by A. J. Symington, is an agreeable account of the amiable and light-hearted novelist (New York, Harpers). "Thomas Moore, the Poet," is an equally interesting memoir by the same author (New York, Harpers). He has also prepared a readable, panegyric sketch of the life of William Cullen Bryant. The translation of Dr. Kraus's "Erasmus Darwin" (New York, Appletons), the learned essay of the German scholar in which the poet-naturalist's position in the history of science is vindicated, is prefaced by a

more interesting writing, namely, a delightful biographical account of his grandfather by Charles Darwin. Alfred Henry Huth's "Life and Writings of Henry Thomas Buckle" (New York, Appletons) is an interesting biography of a remarkable thinker.

"Essays on Art and Archæology" is a volume of learned review articles by C. T. Newton upon Greek art (London, Macmillan). Professor Mahaffy's "History of Classical Greek Literature" is an excellent conspectus which will inspire a livelier interest in the study of the Greek classics (New York, Harpers). John Addington Symonds's "Sketches and Studies in Southern Europe" (New York, Harpers) is a book of Italian travel, containing æsthetic and literary studies by the well-known historian of the Renaissance; "Studies of the Greek Poets" is a revision of his two former books on the subject, prepared for publication in America, characterized by the elegant diction and æsthetic perceptibility of the author, though out of his chosen field (New York, Harpers). Anthony Trollope has published a "Life of Cicero" (New York, Harpers), with the object of vindicating the character of the Roman orator from the charges of selfishness and unpatriotic conduct. Among the host of small books which are common nowadays few are as admirable in plan and execution as the sketches of classic authors edited by John Richard Green, in which series have appeared "Euripides," by J. P. Mahaffy; "Virgil," by H. Nettleship; and "Sophocles," by Lewis Campbell (New York, Appletons). The interesting collection of "Popular Romances of the Middle Ages," made by Sir George W. Cox and Eustace Hinton Jones, has been reprinted by Henry Holt & Co. In William J. Rolfe's edition of Shakespeare, each volume contains a single play with notes and various readings (New York, Harpers). Alexander James Duffield has given to English readers, for the first time, "The Ingenious Knight Don Quixote de la Mancha," the masterpiece of Cervantes, in an unadulterated, literal translation. The ribald interpolations of Phillips and Matteaux and the paraphrases and additions of Smollett so altered and corrupted the work that all the English translations of "Don Quixote" have been but loose adaptations, differing essentially in style and in sense from the original.

With the exception of Tennyson, Browning, and Swinburne, the poets who have published during the year claim attention rather from the skill and melody of form than by the power and freshness of their poems. Tennyson's recent poems of miscellaneous character are collected in "Ballads and other Poems" (Boston, Osgood). "Songs of the Springtides" is the title of a volume of noble poems by Algernon Charles Swinburne, among the best that he has produced. "The Heptalogia; or the Seven against Sense: a Cap with Seven Bells," is a volume of exceedingly keen satirical parodies [attributed to A. C. Swinburne]

of the styles of certain famous poets (London, Chatto & Windus). Edwin Arnold's shorter poems have been collected and published by Roberts Brothers. The second series of the "Dramatic Idyls" of Robert Browning contains poems which are, like his other poetry, informed by the subjective moods and feelings of the poet, and equally involved and enigmatic in their expression, and as richly clothed as ever with the picturesque imagery and descriptive touches and the dramatic adornment, which give to his poesy its peculiar, invigorating charm. Ernest Myers, whose "Puritans" and other former poems displayed technical dexterity and freshness of thought, in "The Defense of Rome" handles the theme of the recent development of nationalism among European peoples with poetic eloquence, employing rhymed hexameters with rare skill (London, Macmillan). "New and Old" is a volume of verse by John Addington Symonds, which exhibits all the delicacy of perception, the graceful poetic diction, and mastery of form which would be expected from that elegant prose-writer, but lack, as might also be expected, poetic originality and vigor. "Genevra" and "The Duke of Guise" are two tragedies which evince a fine dramatic instinct as well as an intimate knowledge of history. The "Ode of Life" (Boston, Roberts Brothers) is a poetical discourse on the conditions of life and the nature of man, conceived in the spirit of a fine Christian philosophy, by the author of "The Epic of Hades" [L. Morris].

British fiction is as prolific as ever. The purpose and method of the new novels are often admirable, and in none more so than in those of some of the younger authors; but no successors have yet appeared to replace the great masters of the English school of fiction, who have now all passed away. "Endymion" (New York, Appletons) is precisely such a shrewd, witty, and guarded political novel as the author of "Vivian Grey" might be expected to write after attaining the position and experience of the Earl of Beaconsfield. It is a skillfully confused masquerade of real historical characters and paraphrase of political events and phenomena. Thomas Hardy's powerful and successful story, named "The Trumpet-Major," has been published by Houghton & Co. The new novel by Ouida [Louise de la Rame], entitled "A Village Commune" (Philadelphia, Peterson), is entirely free from the moral eccentricities of her previous writings, being an eloquent disclosure of the political oppression to which the Italian peasantry is subjected under the existing municipal system. One of the most striking and popular of Ouida's novels in her ordinary manner is "Moths," a cynical picture of society (Philadelphia, Lippincott). May Laffan, whose spirited and lifelike pictures of Irish political society, "Hogan, M. P.," "The Honorable Miss Ferrand," etc., were published anonymously, has appended her name to her latest novel,

"Christy Carew," another story of Dublin life (New York, Holt). "Mademoiselle de Mersac," by W. E. Norris, is an excellent novel, its scenery and pictures of society artistic and true to nature, its character-drawing masterly and delicate, sprightly in its development, but leading to an appropriate tragic ending (Harpers' Franklin Square Library). Rhoda Broughton's "Second Thoughts" is a great improvement on the reckless stories which formerly flowed from her pen, higher-toned and more studious, displaying her vivacity and genuine artistic talent to much better advantage (New York, Appletons). "Mary Auerley" is a fine story by R. D. Blackmore, in his earlier manner (Franklin Square Library). "The Duke's Children," by Anthony Trollope, is more like his best novels than his other recent productions (Franklin Square Library). William Black's "White Wings" is a popular story, very similar to his former productions (Franklin Square Library). Mrs. L. B. Walford's "Troublesome Daughters" is a delightfully humorous and faithful picture of English life. Mary Cecil Hay is one of the best of contemporary story-tellers, and her depiction of winning young female characters is unrivaled; "For her Dear Sake" is one of the best of her productions (Franklin Square Library). Other numbers of this series of novels for the million are Georgiana M. Craik's "Two Women" and Frank Frankfort Moore's "Daireen," two graceful love-tales; "Reata," by E. D. Gerard, the work of a promising beginner, prolix, but containing good pictures of Austrian life and a well-constructed plot; "The Pennant Family," by Anne Beale, a thrilling tale of wrecking on the Welsh coast; Mrs. Molesworth's love-story of "Miss Bouverie"; "A Sylvan Queen," a pleasant picture of English rural life; "The Return of the Princess," a graphic contrast of the Mohammedan customs of Egypt and European life, in a fictitious correspondence translated from the French of Jacques Vincent, by Laura E. Kendall; W. W. Synge's lifelike and interesting story of "Tom Singleton"; "Barbara," by Miss M. E. Braddon; "Sir John," by the author of "Anne Dysart," and "Little Miss Primrose," by the author of "St. Olaves," two pleasant and refined novels; "The Queen of the Meadow," a delightful pastoral tale by Charles Gibbon; Mrs. Oliphant's "The Greatest Heiress in England," which quite sustains the high standard of this conscientious artist, and turns upon an eccentric will by which the actions of the amiable heroine are fettered; "Sweet Nelly, my Heart's Delight," by Walter Besant and James Rice, a charming historical novel whose scene is laid in old Virginia and London in colonial times. "Loukis Laras, Reminiscences of a Chiote Merchant during the War of Independence," by D. Bikelas, is a Greek romance which was published in Athens in 1879, and has since been translated into several languages; the present English translation is by J. Gennadius (London, Macmillan). "Matri

mony" is a later novel by W. E. Norris, less original than "Mademoiselle de Mersac," but showing keen observation and a knowledge of society in different countries. "Johnny Ludlow" is a new novel by Mrs. Henry Wood, lifelike, and marked by genuine humor and pathos. "A Life's Atonement," by David Christie Murray, a new author, displays constructive ability and good powers of delineation. "A Confidential Agent," James Payn's latest novel, is one of his best. "Dimplethorpe" is a charming idyllic novel by the author of "St. Olaves." Amelia B. Edwards's "Lord Brackenbury" is a well-worked-out story, whose interest depends upon an act of self-sacrifice on the part of the hero. "Ellice Quentin" is printed with four other stories by Julian Hawthorne, all of them based upon fine dramatic conceptions which are well wrought out and told in a terse and vigorous style. "Mehalah" is a powerful story of tragic interest by a new author. "Passages from the Diary of an Early Methodist," by the late Richard Rowe, is a remarkably vivid and truthful picture of religious and social life in England in the time of Wesley (Strahan).

LITERATURE, CONTINENTAL, IN 1880.
FRANCE.—In this country every original work is followed by a number of others which seem more like imitations written for sale than serious labors. This explains, perhaps, the extraordinary assaults on the Christian theology contained in Dufay's "La Légende du Christ," and Wilfrid de Fonvielle's "Miracles devant la Science." Ernest Rénan has followed up his remarkable Hibbert Lectures with a profound study on Marcus Aurelius. Naville defends the truths of Christianity with ability in "Jésus Christ." Hovelacque's volume on the Avesta is one of the best works which has appeared on the Zoroastrian religion. Sayous discusses the relations between the Jewish and Mohammedan religions in "Jésus Christ d'après Mahomet." Pierret, in his essay on Egyptian mythology, considers it a degraded monotheism instead of a developed paganism. Lenormant's "Des Origines de l'Histoire d'après la Bible" compares the Bible account of the beginnings of history with the Persian, Assyrian, and Babylonian records. Jules Mohl's valuable contributions to Oriental philology have been published in a collection. Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire has published a dissertation on the Aristotelian philosophy.

Important cyclopædic works which are in progress are Victor Gay's dictionary of mediæval and Renaissance art; Saglio's dictionary of Greek and Roman antiquities; Vivien de Saint-Martin's geographical dictionary, and his atlas; and Elisée Réclus's work on "Universal Geography," the latest installment of which treats of Asiatic Russia; the corrected edition of the "Biographie Universelle des Musiciens"; the fifth edition of Vapereau's "Dictionnaire des Contemporains"; Godefroy's colossal dic-

tionary of mediæval French, and several other similar works.

A host of publications relating to various periods of French history has been published. Upon some events and characters of past ages much new light has been cast by records which were before unknown or inaccessible. Besides the memoirs of Metternich and Madame de Rémusat, the biography of Marshal Davoust by his daughter, Madame de Blocqueville, and the researches of Jung into the early life of Napoleon, are interesting books. The correspondence of Coray, which has just been published, contains interesting details concerning the Reign of Terror. Thoughtful studies of Danton have been written by Dubost and Dr. Robinet. Wallon is completing the work of Mortimer-Ternaux on the Revolution. The speeches of Thiers and Gambetta have been collected. Madame de Witt's reminiscences of Guizot are a valuable addition to his memoirs.

Victor Hugo, in his "Feuilles d'Automne," shows no loss of vigor. Sardou's "Daniel Rochat," De Bornier's "Noces d'Attila," and Deroulède's "La Moabite" were the three dramatic events of the year. Zola has followed "Nana" with the "Soirées de Médan." Henry Gréville with "La Cité Ménéard," and Erckmann-Chatrian with "Le Grandpère Lebigre" and "Un Vieux de la Vieille," still hold their own.

BELGIUM.—The chief philosophical publications of the year are Charles Loomans's analytical "Essais de Psychologie," and J. Delbœuf's original investigations on the phenomena of sleep, given in "Le Sommeil et les Rêves." Two extensive histories of Belgium have been called out by the politico-religious conflict which agitates the country, that of Namèche from the Ultramontane, and that of Veicamer from the Liberal standpoint. "Cinquante Ans de Liberté" is a remarkable survey of recent history written by several Liberal politicians. Théodore Juste and many others have produced works on the fifty years of Belgian independence. General Vander Meere and other veterans of the Belgian Revolution have published memoirs. There are as many books of antiquarian and local interest and reprints of old documents as usual. Several excellent works upon the older national history have been published by Gachard, Duverger, Wauters, and other historians. A curious "Histoire de Belgique," by Van Bommel, who has just died, is transcribed from the texts of writers of every age. V. Brants has published an important historical essay on the condition of the rural classes down to the close of the eighteenth century. To this department belongs also the small book of Hermann Pergameni, "Les Guerres des Paysans," of which the range extends from the time of the Roman Empire down to the *jacquerie* of Galicia in 1846, and to the revolts in Ireland. Paul Devaux, the Liberal politician, recently deceased,

wrote a pregnant study on the political history of ancient Rome.

Bibliography has been cultivated by Vanderhaegen, Alphonse Willems, and others. Guillaume de Coster has written a systematic treatise on aesthetics; E. Leclercq, some fine studies of the Flemish painters; and E. Vanderstraeten, an account of music in the Low Countries before the nineteenth century. "Over de Alpen," the account of the art critic Max Rooses of his æsthetic observations in Italy, is the finest literary production of the year, and is to be translated into English. Vanden Brande is at work on a fine history of the Antwerp school, in Flemish.

Among philological works are Scheler's dictionary of the Walloon language; the translation from the Sanskrit of the "Story of Rama" of the poet Bhavabhuti; the manual of the sacred Persian language, or Pehlevi, by C. de Herlez, etc. An important treatise on international law is being written by Professor Laurent. Émile de Laveleye has published in book form his "Lettres d'Italie." Burdo has written an account of his travels in the Niger region; Dr. Dutrieux published a book on the commercial resources of Africa, and in favor of an international league for their development. Baron Lahure has published a relation of his sojourn in Dutch Malasia before 1830. In poetry and fiction in French may be mentioned the poetical writings of J. Demoulin, Bailly, Verdevaine, De Baillet, Gillion, and Nizet, the poems and dramas of Comte Maurice Duchastel, and the historical plays and dramatic sketches of Charles Potvin, the first of living Belgian poets; and in prose fiction the stories of C. Lemounier, and of Émile Leclercq. In Flemish literature, the tender poems of Gentil Antheunis, "Leven, Lieven, en Zingen" ("Life, Love, and Song"), and E. Hiel's "Songs for Great and Small Children," are noticeable for freshness of manner and originality. Hendrik Conscience, the great novelist, has written two sketches based upon his personal reminiscences. "Uit het dagelyksch Leven" ("From Daily Life"), by Vander Ven, is a naturalistic story. "Baas Colder," is a collaborated novel, by Teirlinck and Styns. In dramatic compositions the Flemish literature is as prolific as ever: the best productions are a comedy ("Three Old Friends") and a proverb ("A Cloudlet before Marriage"), by Emiel van Goethem.

HOLLAND.—A number of the prominent Dutch authors have died during the year. Cremer, the writer of didactic fiction, left a fine tale on the evils of gambling, called "Monte Carlo." Dr. van Vloten has published a second volume of old Dutch farces, and the expected edition of Maerlant's "Merlin." A few poems of Honigh and Miss Stratenus are the only noticeable contributions to poetical literature. The principal productions in fiction are Bruning's "Alice"; Mrs. van Westhrene's "Philip's Eerzucht"; "Zyne Zuster," by the lady who uses the pseudonym of "Van Walcheren"; "Konings-

droom," a satirical novel by Jan Holland; and Mrs. Bosboom-Toussaint's "Raimond de Schrynwerker." Vosmaer's "Amazone" is also a notable production.

GERMANY.—The enormous volume of literature of every class which issues from the presses of Germany seems to be still swelling. But this productivity is hardly a sign of greater intellectual activity; for it is the lighter, popular literature which makes up the increment. In philosophy, if extreme diversity in the fundamental positions is a sign of fruitfulness, German speculative thought was never more prolific. "To return to Kant" seems to be the watchword of all the schools; but each sets up a Kant of its own. Dühring, of the materialistic school; Hartmann, the mystic philosopher; and Liebmann, Vaihinger, and other followers of the "critical" school of Lange, have published works during the year. Gustav Biedermann has constructed a scheme of all the knowable in his "Philosophie als Begriffswissenschaft." Lotze, the most distinguished German philosopher of the time, has completed his system, which commenced with the "Logik," with the publication of the "Metaphysik." Eduard von Hartmann presents the evidence of his assertion of the disruption of Christian theology in "Die Selbstersetzung des Christenthums." Zahnsen, in his "Realdialektik," expounds a new paradoxical philosophy.

Popular scientific lectures are a new phenomenon in Germany. Not less than five collections of these have been published during the year. Helmholtz, Zeller, and other distinguished professors give explanations of scientific principles before popular audiences.

A number of interesting historical monographs have been published, among which G. Wolf's tract upon the relations of Prussia and Austria in the time of Joseph II, Adam Wolf's "Culturbilder aus Oestreich," and the history of the city of Berlin, by Adolf Streckfuss, may be noticed. Bruno Bauer, the philosopher, has arraigned in a tone of bitter condemnation the new German Empire and its founder in his tractate "Zur Orientirung über die Bismarck'sche Era."

The autobiography of Louis Schneider is a singularly frank recountal of the life of a man who was first a subordinate actor in a second-rate theatre, then a servant in the Prussian King's household, then a spy of Russia, and finally the confidant and military adviser of the Czar Nicholas. The record of a nobler life is given in the memoir of Gottfried Semper, artist and patriot, by his son. New letters of Goethe and of his mother have been brought to light in Pirazzi's "Aus Offenbach's Vergangenheit," and in the La Roche family correspondence, and others have been published in Geiger's "Goethe Annual," which contains also a life of Bettina von Arnim by her son-in-law.

Scherer is engaged upon a history of German literature. Otto Brahm has published studies

of the German plays of chivalry. Those of Count Toerring Seefeld, a contemporary of Goetz von Berlichingen, have recently been unearthed. Eduard Devrient and August Hartmann, among others, have written upon the Passion Play.

On art, the most important books are Jacob von Falke's history of costumes; Starke's work on the archaeology of art; Ernst Foerster's "Farnesina Studien"; Bruno Bucher's manual of art-history; and the studies of Italian paintings in German galleries, by Lermolieff [Morelli]. Dohme's illustrated biographical history of art is about completed. A new volume of artists' letters has been published by Ernst Guhl. The final report of the Austrian archaeological excavations on the island of Samothrace has been published. Of the German explorations in Olympia and Pergamos only preliminary reports have been issued.

Travels in Persia and Turkey are recounted by a diplomat under the pseudonym of "Charikles." Max Nordau has a graphic account of travel "From the Kremlin to the Alhambra." L. Steub and J. F. Leutner have written two amusing accounts of life and nature in the Tyrol. Wilhelm Rossmann's art letters from southern Italy have been followed by another volume of observations in monasteries of the characteristics of the Roman and Greek Catholic religions. Hermann von Schlagintweit's great work of "Reisen in Indien und Hochasien" is ended with the publication of the fourth volume. Lauth's "Bilder aus Ägyptens Vorzeit" supplements Ebers's great book on Egypt, with which splendid work may be classed Emil Schlagintweit's "Indien in Wort und Bild." Other books of travel are the posthumous volume of Dr. Buchholz's diaries made during his travels in Western Africa; Lux's account of explorations back of the Loando coast; Pogge's diary of travel in the same region; Holub's "Sieben Jahre in Süd-Africa," the English translation of which is published by Sampson Low & Co.; "Die Karawanenstrasse von Ägypten nach Syrien," and other illustrated works by the same author [the Grand-Duke of Tuscany].

The voluminous work on the geography of the United States by Friedrich Ratzel has been completed.

The works of Georg Buechner and Ludwig August Frankl, two of the most notable of the champions of political freedom in the past generation, have been collected for the first time. Buechner died young, and is only known in literature by his famous revolutionary drama of "Dantons Tod." An unfinished work of similar character has been found among his papers. Frankl, the veteran Austrian poet, has done as good work as any contemporary German poet, especially in the poems which celebrate Judaism and depict the sufferings of the Hebrew race; and he would have written still better had he not been fettered by the Austrian censorship. Oscar von Redwitz, another

political poet of a different stamp, gives, in the versified story of the monk Odilo, an allegorical apology for his own conversion from Ultramontane romanticism to nationalism, and to the approval of the Bismarckian achievements.

Arthur Fitger adopts in the collection he has this year published, "Winternächte," an earnest tone, as becomes the author of a work as remarkable as his tragedy. Julius Wolff, the author of the "Wilder Jäger," a piece which attained a great popularity, has followed it up with a "Tannhäuser," of a similarly romantic strain. Rudolf Baumbach has published "Frau Holde," a poem based upon a Thuringian saga. The "Lieder der Freude" of Siegfried Lipiner, and the ambitious "Weihgesänge" of Adolf von Schack, are mystical and obscure lyric productions. Bodenstedt, in his newest collection, gives an admirable reproduction of the spirit and style of his rhymes of "Mirza Schaffy" in the lays and aphorisms of "Omar Chadjah." The year has produced a new German lyric poet of Swiss nationality, Rudolf Niggeler. Ernst Heller's collection of German-Swiss poets includes many, such as the Byronic Ferdinand von Schmidt, August Corrodi, and Alfred Hartmann, who have long been in repute in Germany.

To the drama belongs Arthur Fitger's tragedy "Die Hexe." The author has taken his material, scene, and customs from the same East Frisian race from which Heinrich Kruse has derived the plot and characters of his play "Die Gräfin." Fitger depicts in "Die Hexe" the terrible situation of a heroine whose mind becomes imbued with skepticism in the midst of an age of implicit religious faith and superstitious aversion toward heretics, and with historical tact lays his plot in the neighborhood of the fanatical peasantry of both churches on the lower Rhine, and within the horizon of the influence of Spinoza. A new tragedy by Kruse, "Der Verbannte," is founded upon the story of the Danish Minister, Count Ulfeld, and his wife, Princess Leonora Christina. The material of Kruse's "König Erich" has been subjected to a different but able treatment in a tragedy by Josef Weilen. "Robert Kerr" is another historical tragedy by Adolf Wilbrandt, which lacks consistency. Ferdinand von Saar, the most brilliant of German dramatists, has produced a picture of causeless jealousy in "Tempesta." Other dramatic works of the year of conspicuous merit are "Prinz Eugen," by Martin Greif; "Das Dokument," by Countess Wickenbourg-Almásy; "Rolf Bernd," by Count von Putlitz; "Gräfin Lea," by Paul Lindau; and L'Arronge's popular comedy, called "Haus Lonei."

The leading novelists have each of them published some new work during the year. Freitag's great historical series, "Die Ahnen," has been brought to a close. Auerbach's simple but masterly story of Swabian humble life, "Brigitta," was printed in a translation in America almost simultaneously with its ap-

pearance in Germany. Spielhagen has published a tragic tale of love, entitled "Qui si sana." Ebers's "Die Schwestern," a story of Egypt in the time of the first Ptolemy, has also been published in English. Ferdinand Meyer's "Der Heilige" is an excellent historical novel, based on the life of Thomas à Becket. Alexander Schindler has written a delightful historical romance of the time of the Reformation, entitled "Die Goldschmieds-Kinder." Theodor Storm has published "Die Söhne des Senators," another of his accurate sketches from real life. Rudolf Lindau, a disciple of French naturalism, has contributed "Aus der guten Gesellschaft." Theodor Fontane, in "L'Adultera," has made a psychological study of immorality. "Die Boehminger" is a new novel by Heinrich Laube. Friedrich Uhl's "Die Botschafterin" is a romance drawn from the last period of the Polish monarchy. "Das Goldene Kalb" is a satirical novel on the financial fever. "Meister Amor" is a novel of artist-life by Wilbrandt. "Ein Kampf um's Recht" is the latest novel of Franzos, and is the story of a zealot for justice, like Kleist's famous "Michael Kohlhaas," in a Polish setting. Marie von Abner-Eschenbach has written some clever short stories. Paul Heyse's "Die Eselin" is a powerful pessimistic tale.

DENMARK.—A sharp controversy broke out between the Romanticist and Realist schools of poetry and criticism, in consequence of an attack upon the new tendencies made by C. Ploug, which was replied to by the upholders of the "literary Left," whose foremost representatives are Schandorph and Drachman. The best poems of the year are Drachman's fairy tale, "Eastward from the Sun, and Westward from the Moon," his national epic of "Tordenskjold," and his collection of lyrics, called "Youth." Collections have been published of the poems of Grundtvig, and of other poets. Novels and tales have been published by Etlar, Ewald, Schandorph, and others. Gjellerup, author of "The Idealist" and "Young Denmark," has produced a fine story of ancient times, but tendentia like his other works, called "Antigonus." Of historical writings, the most popular is the "History of Denmark and Norway," begun by Troels Lund. Hansen's "Fifteen Years Abroad" has been translated into English.

SWEDEN.—Ahnfelt has compiled from original sources interesting revelations of "Swedish Court Life." Hildebrand is at work on an extensive history of Swedish culture in the middle ages. Novels and tales of Lea [Mrs. Wettergrund], Nordensvan, Bondesson, and Santesson, and the stories of the Lapps, by "Gubben Noah," show commendable qualities. Nordenskjöld's account of his voyage has been published in several different languages. A remarkable economical treatise by K. Wicksell adopts the Malthusian theories. Professor Rudin's work on Kierkegaard is intended to glorify his religious character, and correct the

effects of the critique of Brandes. C. D. af Wirsén and Emil von Qvanten are the principal poetical writers of the year. Rydberg has published a volume of religious reflections. Hedin has concluded his work on the women of the French Revolution, and has written a remarkable pamphlet in defense of the development of the militia system.

NORWAY.—Lyric poetry has died out; and in prose fiction the simple pastoral tale of a few years ago is no longer cultivated. Ibsen and Björnson have turned their hands to the drama, and, with less success, Jonas Lie. Kjelrand, a young author, has produced a striking novel called "Garman and Worse," and Lie a good sea-novel in his earlier manner. Professor O. Rygh has commenced an important work on Scandinavian archæology, and Professor Dietrichson has published an interesting inquiry into the origin of the typical portrait of Christ. Professor Sophus Bugge has published his work on the connection between the Hebrew and the Greco-Roman religions and the Scandinavian mythology.

RUSSIA.—The Pushkin festival was the signal for a reawakening of interest in literature. The most notable product of that occasion was the "Author's Diary," of Dostoieffsky. This author's novel, called "The Brothers Karamazov," is one of the most powerful literary productions of the age. In "A Literary Evening" Gontcharof discusses realism in literature in an interesting manner. Inferior to Dostoieffsky's great novel, but good of their several kinds, are "Serious People," by K. Orlofsky [C. Golovin]; Potiekhin's "Young Sprouts," a socialistic novel; Polonsky's "Cheap City," drawn from actual experiences; Danilefsky's historical novel, named "Mirovitch"; and the satirical pictures by Stehendrin [Saltykov], called "The Golovlefs" and "Beyond the Frontier." Among a large crop of dramas, "A Heart, not a Stone," by Ostrofsky, is the best. Among the historical writings, Kostomarov's "Ruina," on an interesting period of Russian history, is the best. "Rome et Démétrius," by Father Paul Pierling, throws some new light on the episode of Demetrius. In criticism, literary history, science, philosophy, and in political economy, an unusual number of books have been published, some of which show much thought and study.

POLAND.—Kraszewski continues his historical romances, the last being "Cracow in the Days of King Ladislaus Lokietek," and has written a powerful sketch of contemporary life in "The Troubled Spirits." Sienkiewicz is a new author, whose letters from America, Rome, and Paris have won him celebrity. Lam and Wilczynski have each written a successful humorous novel.

ITALY.—Considerable interest is taken in folk-lore, the popular drama, etc.; and literary history and criticism in general were never more cultivated. An anecdotal history of Venice and its people is an interesting produc-

tion. Professor Brunialti has discussed the Turkish question with intelligence. A statistical study of suicide by Professor Morselli, and economical monographs by Rossi and Errera, are of interest, as well as Gabaglio's "History and Theory of Statistical Science," and Sicilian's "Problems of Modern Education." The new translation of the New Testament, by Carlo M. Curci, Priest of the Company of Jesus, one of the most distinguished thinkers among the Italian clergy, is remarkable, not merely as a critical work containing scholarly new interpretations, but much more so as the signal of a radical reform movement in the Church, with which Pope Leo himself is supposed to be identified.

SPAIN.—Popular scientific writings, translations from the classics, and publications of inedited or rare works, are three gratifying classes of books which come from the Spanish presses with unusual frequency. Oviedo's "Las Quinquagenas de la Nobleza de España" is the most important of the latter class. His "Batallas" is also to be printed. Collado's poems and the "Vision de Fray Martin," by Nuñez de Arce, are works of merit. Romano's "Memorias de un Setenton" is a retrospect of Spanish events for fifty years.

LOGAN, JOHN ALEXANDER, soldier and statesman, was born in Jackson County, Illinois, February 9, 1826. His father, Dr. John Logan, who came from Ireland to Illinois in 1823, served several terms in the State Legislature. His mother was Elizabeth Jenkins, a Tennessean. He was indebted for his early education to his father, and to such schools as were maintained for short periods in the new settlements. When the war with Mexico occurred, he volunteered as a private, but was soon chosen a lieutenant in the First Illinois Infantry. He did good service as a soldier, and for some time was adjutant of his regiment. After his return from Mexico he began the study of law with his uncle, Alexander M. Jenkins. In 1849 he was elected Clerk of Jackson County. In 1852 he graduated at the Louisville University, was admitted to the bar, and commenced the practice of his profession. His popularity and success led to his election to the State Legislature in the fall of that year, and in the year following as prosecuting attorney for the third judicial district—a position he held till 1857. He was elected a member of the Legislature again in 1853, and was reelected in 1856 and 1857. He was a Presidential elector in 1856 on the Buchanan and Breckinridge ticket. In 1858 he was elected a Representative from Illinois in the Thirty-sixth Congress, as a Douglas Democrat, and was reelected to the Thirty-seventh Congress in 1860. In the Presidential campaign of that year he earnestly advocated the election of Stephen A. Douglas, but on the first intimation of coming trouble from the South he did not hesitate to declare that, in the event of the election of Abraham Lincoln, he would "shoulder his musket

to have him inaugurated." In July, 1861, during the extra session of Congress called by President Lincoln, fired by the enthusiasm of the hour, he left his seat, overtook the troops that were marching out of Washington to meet the enemy, and fought with distinguished bravery in the ranks of Colonel Richardson's regiment at the disastrous battle of Bull Run, being among the last to leave the field. Returning home the latter part of August, he resigned his seat in Congress, believing he could serve his country better in the field than in its legislative halls. He organized the Thirty-first Illinois Infantry, and was appointed its colonel September 13th. His first encounter with the foe was at Belmont, in November, where he led a successful bayonet-charge and had a horse shot under him. He led his regiment in the attack on Fort Henry, and at Fort Donelson, while gallantly leading the assault, he was severely wounded, which incapacitated him for active service for some time. Reporting again for duty to General Grant, at Pittsburg Landing, he was, March 5, 1862, made a brigadier-general of volunteers. He took an important part in the movement against Corinth, and subsequently was given the command at Jackson, Tennessee, with instructions to guard the railroad communications. In the summer of 1862 his constituents urged him to become a candidate for reelection to Congress. In a letter declining he says: "I have entered the field to die, if need be, for this Government, and never expect to return to peaceful pursuits until the object of this war of preservation has become a fact established." During General Grant's northern Mississippi campaign General Logan commanded the Third Division of the Seventeenth Army Corps, under General McPherson, exhibiting a skill and bravery which led to his promotion as major-general of volunteers, dating from November 26, 1862. He participated in the battles of Port Gibson, Raymond, Jackson, and Champion Hill. In the siege of Vicksburg he commanded McPherson's center, and on the 25th of June made the assault after the explosion of the mine. His column was the first to enter the captured city, and he was made its military governor. He succeeded General Sherman in the command of the Fifteenth Army Corps in November, 1863. In May, 1864, he joined General Sherman's army, which was preparing for its march into Georgia; led the advance of the Army of the Tennessee in the fight at Resaca, repulsed Hardee's veterans at Dallas, and drove the enemy from his line of works at Kenesaw Mountain. At Atlanta, July 22d, where General McPherson fell in the hottest of the fight, General Sherman says, in his report of that battle: "General Logan succeeded him, and commanded the Army of the Tennessee through this desperate battle with the same success and ability that had characterized him in the command of a corps or division." After the fall of Atlanta, September 1, 1864, he went home and took a promi-

nent part in the Presidential campaign of that year. He rejoined his troops, who had accompanied General Sherman in his famous "march to the sea," at Savannah, and remained in active service with Sherman's army till the surrender of the Confederate forces under General Joseph E. Johnston, April 26, 1865. On May 23d he was appointed to the command of the Army of the Tennessee, but, as soon as active service in the field was over, he resigned his commission, stating that he did not wish to draw pay when not on active duty. He was appointed Minister to Mexico by President Johnson, but declined. In 1866 he was elected a Representative from Illinois to the Fortieth Congress as a Republican, and served as one of the managers in the impeachment trial of President Johnson. He was reelected to the Forty-first Congress, and did good service as chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs in securing the passage of an act for the reduction of the army. He was reelected to the Forty-second Congress, but before that body convened he was chosen by the Illinois Legislature a Senator of the United States for the term beginning March 4, 1871. He succeeded Vice-President Wilson as chairman of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs at the beginning of the third session of the Forty-second Congress, December 2, 1872. After the expiration of his term of service, March 3, 1877, he resumed the practice of law in Chicago. He was again returned to the United States Senate, and took his seat on the convening of that body in extra session, March 18, 1879. Both in the House and Senate he has maintained his reputation for brilliancy and success gained in the field. While a Representative, his most important speeches were: "On Reconstruction," July 12, 1867; "On the Impeachment of President Johnson," February 22, 1868; "Principles of the Democratic Party," July 16, 1868; on a resolution introduced by General B. F. Butler protesting against counting the electoral vote of Georgia, February 12, 1869; "Removing the Capitol," January 22, 1870. In the Senate his most noted speeches have been: "Vindication of President Grant against the Attack of Charles Sumner," June 3, 1872; a reply to Senator Gordon on the "Klux in Louisiana," January 13, 1875; "On the Equalization of Bounties of Soldiers, Sailors, and Marines of the Late War for the Union," March 2, 1875; "On the Power of the Government to enforce United States Laws," June 28, 1879. On the 6th of June of the present year he delivered an able and eloquent speech on the "Fitz John Porter case," which has added greatly to his reputation as a forcible and effective speaker. General Logan is a man of fine presence, rendered striking by his jet-black hair and strongly marked features. He possesses in a high degree those traits of character which win success—a strong personal magnetism, undaunted courage, and untiring industry. November 27, 1855, he was married

to Miss Mary S. Cunningham, a daughter of Captain Cunningham, Register of the Land-Office at Shawneetown, Illinois. She is a lady of superior education and rare social qualities, who has taken a deep interest in her husband's career, and has done much to aid in his advancement by her genial intercourse with his supporters, and the care with which she has attended to his large correspondence.

LOUISIANA. The State of Louisiana began the year 1880 with a new Constitution which the people had adopted in December, 1879. This power of reorganization of the political law of the State, Louisiana has frequently exercised. Her first Constitution was framed in 1812, when she applied for admission to the Union. It required that the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and legislators should have had a long residence in the State, with a landed estate and a further qualification as to age. Judges were appointed for life. In 1845 a second Constitution was formed to check the Legislature in granting charters to banking and other corporations, and to restrain those already in existence. In 1852 the State desired an elective judiciary for a short term, and railroads, and power to issue bonds, and so a third Constitution was framed. In 1861 the State made a fourth Constitution, and seceded from the Union. In 1864 and 1868 a fifth and sixth Constitution were made to restore the State to the Union. In 1879 the State adopted its seventh Constitution. There were many limitations upon legislative, executive, and judicial powers, and there is no small confusion in the language. Stability in the constitution of government, experience and skill in the administrative departments, and vigilance on the part of the people, alone prevent disorder. On the 12th of January the Legislature met in New Orleans, and, being the first Assembly under the new Constitution, its labors were chiefly directed to the supplementing of that instrument, and the passage of laws to promote the smooth working of the various departments of the newly organized State government. The executive and legislative officers chosen under this Constitution were inducted into office on the 14th of January. Not long after, there was appointed a judiciary composed for the most part of Judges who appeared on the bench for the first time. The Governor, Louis A. Wiltz, in his first message to the Assembly, reminded that body that, their sessions having been changed from annual to biennial, it became their duty to provide in advance for all financial and other contingencies which might arise during that period. The capital having been changed to Baton Rouge, in preparation for their next meeting, they must repair the former Capitol in that town, and take measures for the sale or conversion of property belonging to the State in New Orleans. Special laws must be passed in reference to the liens and privileges of mechanics and laborers, and the responsibility of corporations and companies for work done for

their benefit, so that labor and capital might receive from the law that equal protection to which they are entitled. A Board of Health must be constituted with undoubted authority, under due restraint. It should keep out foreign diseases without destroying intercourse with the outer world. "In behalf of our industrial and commercial interests, we must find some means of adequate protection that will not paralyze the business and blockade the ports and thoroughfares of the State." They were to appoint a time for holding Congressional elections, and to require that, according to time-honored custom, Presidential electors should be chosen directly by the people. The right of suffrage, however obtained, must be conceded and carried out in good faith. A Bureau of Agriculture must be organized, and one of its duties must be the encouragement of immigration. The Federal Government should maintain the levees, but, until it does, the State must depend on its own resources so far as they go. After recommending that some method of capital punishment more humane than hanging should be substituted in the Code, the Governor proceeds to discuss the support of public education, and to treat the difficult subject of State finance.

The first act passed by the General Assembly at the regular session of 1880 was a concurrent resolution "protesting against the recognition of William Pitt Kellogg as United States Senator from the State of Louisiana, and requesting the admission of Henry M. Spofford, the duly elected Senator from the State of Louisiana." Act No. 13 gives authority to railroad companies to borrow money to construct and repair railroads, etc., and to issue bonds or other obligations secured by mortgage upon their franchises, right of way, etc., with power to sell, pledge, or dispose of said bonds. Act No. 22 authorizes the Governor to employ counsel to represent the State in the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of the State of New Hampshire against the State of Louisiana. This suit is of a nature so novel as to ask further notice. It was brought before the Supreme Court of the United States in January, 1880, by the State of New Hampshire against the State of Louisiana for the amount of two hundred and ten dollars, being the sum of six coupons of interest, on as many consolidated bonds, which were not paid at maturity in January, 1880. The General Court of New Hampshire in July, 1879, passed an act to authorize any citizen of that State to make an assignment of the unpaid obligations of any of the States to that State, and directed the Attorney-General of New Hampshire to institute a suit in the name of the State in the Supreme Court to collect them. The assignor was to provide for all costs, charges, and expenses, and the Attorney-General was to be his "trustee," and to keep the amount of collections for his benefit. The Constitution of the United States confers authority upon the Supreme Court to

determine controversies between two or more States. This power was conferred in order that the States might settle their respective claims for boundary and jurisdiction which existed when the Declaration of Independence separated the colonies from Great Britain. Every one of the original thirteen States has had disputes on these subjects, and a number have been presented to the Supreme Court; others were settled by compact under the sanction of Congress. None have supposed before now that a State could by her own initiative obtain assignments of claims, and make use of the Supreme Court as an instrument to collect them for her assignors.

There was an erroneous impression after the adoption of the Federal Constitution in the Convention, in 1787, that a citizen of one of the States, or an alien, might sue another of the States for debt or for wrong. Hamilton notices and confutes this error in the eighty-first number of "The Federalist." Madison and Marshall repelled the existence of any such faculty during the debates on the Constitution in Virginia. Four Judges of the Supreme Bench maintained their jurisdiction in the cause of Chisholm, a citizen of South Carolina, against Georgia in the Supreme Court of the United States in 1793.

Immediately after, William Vassal, a British subject, brought a suit to set aside confiscations of his property in Massachusetts against that State in the Supreme Court of the United States. The process was served on John Hancock, then the Governor of that State. He convened the General Court in extra session, and in a speech of great excellence denied the authority of the Court, and affirmed that such a suit was contrary to the principles of a federal government, and urged the removal from the Constitution of any words that might seem to warrant such a jurisdiction. The General Court so determined, and in 1794 a Senator from Massachusetts introduced into the Senate and caused to be adopted what is now the eleventh amendment, prohibiting a construction of the Constitution to allow a citizen or subject of any State to sue a State. The cases of Chisholm and Vassal were never prosecuted to judgment. No attempt has since been made to use the powers of that Court at the suit of individuals. The case of New Hampshire against Louisiana is now before the Supreme Court, and the decision either way will form a tide-mark when the story of this transition period in the history of the United States is recorded.

Acts Nos. 41 and 56 created and defined the duties of a Bureau of Agriculture and Immigration, and provided for the registration thereby of lands, public or private property, offered for sale in Louisiana. No. 43 was a joint resolution requesting members of Congress to use their influence to obtain the passage of a bill to secure from loss the depositors in the Freedmen's Savings-Bank and Trust Company. Act

No. 60 instructed members of Congress from the State to procure the passage of an act changing the law in relation to the election of United States Senators to the sessions of the General Assemblies next preceding the time at which such Senators are to take their seats. No. 61 requested the Senators and Representatives of Louisiana in Congress to provide in any act conferring upon any railroad company all the rights, privileges, and franchises of any defaulting railroad company, that any *bona fide* settler upon any tract of public land so forfeited and annulled be entitled to all the rights of preëmption, homestead, and purchase to said tract that are assured to him by the preëmption laws of the United States. Act No. 71 provided for the payment of the officers, schools, and charities of the State, and for the payment of the interest upon its public debt. An appropriation of \$360,000 was made to pay interest coupons on consolidated bonds and interest on the new issue of State bonds in July, 1880, and January, 1881; and a similar amount to extinguish this indebtedness in July, 1881, and January, 1882. That part of the new Constitution which referred to the scaling of the debt was submitted as a separate proposition to the people, and received a large majority of votes. To pay the interest accorded, the tax authorized and required is three mills on the dollar. Bondholders at their option may refund and receive the new bonds, representing three-fourths of the face value of the old bonds, and bearing four per cent. interest from the date of refunding. If all the old bonds were thus refunded, they would amount to about \$9,000,000, requiring \$360,000 per annum to meet the interest at four per cent. As consols at the assembling of the Legislature were selling below fifty cents on the dollar, and refunding would offer a six per cent. investment to purchasers of bonds, it seemed probable that refunding would become general, and the Legislature acted upon the advice in the Governor's message, "The only safe course is to assess the whole three mills."

The finances of Louisiana caused a painful and urgent discussion in the Constitutional Convention. The civil war occasioned a subversion of the conditions of property and labor in the State. For some years there was anarchy in the relations of capital and labor. There were disorder, waste, and profusion in the management of the Treasury. The State was reduced to insolvency. In 1874 the last and not the least guilty of these administrations proposed a settlement. There was a funding of bonded and floating debt, both being reduced forty per cent. The rate of interest is seven per cent. per annum. A specified tax was to be imposed, collected, and paid out for interest. The bonded debt at this period was \$22,439,800. The disputed debt was \$3,901,000. There was also a floating debt of \$1,006,839.

It must be borne in mind that the expenditures which had caused this rapid growth of indebtedness had not been made on public works, which would enrich or embellish the country. Roads, levees, the highways of commerce, even the public parks and gardens, everything, great or small, connected with the public welfare, was neglected, and the public money, on what pretense soever it was wrung from a ruined people, served the sole purpose of enriching strangers.

Besides the actual indebtedness above mentioned, there was authority to issue bonds to corporations of different kinds, exceeding the debt there stated. Nor did this statement embrace the bonds of the State loaned to property banks, nearly half a century ago, amounting now to some seven million dollars, which are a claim upon the State.

The Convention determined that the demands upon the State arising from this debt were beyond its ability to discharge, and it fixed the interest at two per cent. for five years; three per cent. for fifteen years; and four per cent. for fourteen years, till the maturity of the bond. One installment of interest was pretermitted. A tax was imposed to meet this changed condition of the consolidated debt.

At this date the amount of the consolidated bonds is \$11,531,000; the disputed debt remains \$3,901,000, with an addition of about fifty per cent. for interest. The bonds loaned to the property banks will become a burden to the State for some four or five million dollars, it being understood that the banks are able only to redeem a portion of the sum due.

The debt of New Orleans is greater than the State debt, and its government is more costly. Five eighths of the burden of State taxation is borne by the city. The debt of the city mostly concerns its citizens, and any plan for its settlement must be submitted to them for approval. The Convention remitted to the Legislature the whole question of the city debt. The Governor in his message counseled the establishment of a syndicate to acquire the outstanding city bonds at their current market value. The syndicate might by refunding, or in some way, bring the interest within the compass of the two-mills tax. A change in the city charter in the interest of retrenchment was also proposed. Accordingly, Act No. 133 was passed by the Legislature "to liquidate the indebtedness of the city of New Orleans, and to apply its assets to the satisfaction thereof; to create a Board of Liquidation and prescribe their duties; and to provide for a fiscal agent and for the levying of a sufficient tax to pay said interest." It created a syndicate of six citizens to form a permanent "Board of Liquidation," with control of all matters relating to the bonded debt of New Orleans, and having power to issue bonds, signed by the mayor and Administrators of Accounts and of Finances,

payable in fifty years, and bearing interest at four per cent.; the entire issue not to exceed \$10,000,000. The syndicate is empowered to retire and cancel all the valid debt of the city, exchanging it for these bonds, or buying it up with their proceeds. Not more than fifty cents of the new bonds shall be given for one dollar of the face value of the old obligations. In doubtful or fraudulent cases the liquidators are to reject the obligations until the courts have pronounced on their validity. The administrators are to turn over the entire real and personal property of the city to them to be disposed of by the board, and the proceeds are to be added to the "city debt fund." This act is not to be construed as affecting the "Premium Bond Act," but the city authorities are to transfer to the board all moneys collected in accordance with that act. After paying the interest coupons of the bonds issued under this act, the surplus moneys are to be applied by the liquidators to the retiring of any valid obligations of the city of New Orleans, whether bonds or judgments. The City Council is required to levy an annual tax sufficient to pay all interest on bonds issued under this act.

The Board of Liquidators report a bonded debt of \$15,309,938.65. The certified and floating debt of the city of New Orleans, December 31, 1880, was as follows:

Floating debt.....	\$1,267,147 10
Judgments on bonds.....	\$225,000 00
Judgments on consolidated coupons.....	12,000 00
Judgments on other coupons.....	7,727 43
Judgments on claims.....	615,504 86
Total registered judgments.....	863,232 29
Interest coupons on consolidated bonds matured to June 1, 1876.....	\$31,821 75
Less amount converted into judgments.....	12,000 00
	\$19,821 75
Interest coupons on other bonds matured to July 1, 1875, unpaid.....	\$287,036 83
Less amount converted into judgments.....	7,727 43
	279,308 90
Total interest coupons.....	229,130 65
Total bonded debt.....	15,309,938 65
Total bonded and floating debt.....	\$17,736,505 69

There has been some progress in the improvement of Louisiana by the construction of lines of railroad during the year. The city of New Orleans has been connected with Houston, and thence with western Texas and the States north by the completion of the Morgan, Louisiana and Texas Railroad, and the Louisiana Western Railroad to the Texas line. The Vicksburg, Shreveport and Texas Railroad, to connect Vicksburg with Texas along the Ouachita River, will be completed during the coming year. The railroad from New Orleans to connect with the Southern Pacific Railroad at Marshall is progressing, and is to be completed during 1881. The connection with Mobile along the Mississippi Sound by railroad has fallen under

the control of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad, and it brings the city into closer relations with the North through Georgia and Tennessee. The Chicago, St. Louis and New Orleans Railroad Company connects New Orleans with the great cities of the West, and furnishes admirable facilities for commercial intercourse with the Northwest. Its managers have formed connections with Europe and the southern states of this continent, whereby the prosperity of the states and communities related to the company must be improved.

More important than commerce, and essential to its existence, is the public health. In 1880 rains were abundant, and the temperature was moderate during the summer and autumn. Rigid quarantine regulations were enforced upon the seacoast. In the cities care was taken to observe sanitary regulations in respect to cleanliness, and the use of disinfectants and purifying agents. The death-rate in New Orleans during every month of this year is less than in any corresponding month for twelve years. The diseases which spread terror whenever their appearance has been detected, have not affected any portion of the State, and the year closed in Louisiana with a better spirit of hopefulness than has been observed for twenty years.

The most important question before the people of the State is that which concerns the colored population. The introduction of a population which had no traditions of civilization, culture, progress, or of advancement to higher conditions than barbarism, to the possession of the powers, faculties, and rights of the most advanced people of the earth, and to require of them to perform the obligations and duties incident to such a possession, must be admitted to have been a perilous experiment. Every analogous experiment has proved a failure, and it had come to be regarded as an axiom in political philosophy that there should be protection, guidance, and preparative measures and strict precautions to afford any hope of success in subduing the appetites, passions, and inclinations of such a race, and thus to discipline and improve them. The report we have to make is that there is improvement in the condition of the colored population. There is among the white population a disposition to aid in measures of amelioration. There is a spirit of kindness and good-will. There are no antipathies or grudges. Habits of thrift and providence are not the result of any legislation, nor do they become established in a community or among a race in a single generation. The most that can be said is that there is room for encouragement and no cause for despair.

There is no large emigration of this population to note; the vagrant disposition probably exists. They are easily beguiled by alluring offers of an improved condition, and they have a child's love of variety; but there has been no motive for persons to make these offers to

them. They are not a desirable population, either at the North or the West. No change in the habitation of this race is probable. The prevalent opinion in Louisiana is that the loss of a very large number of the blacks, and the introduction of colonists from the Northern States and the south of Europe, would be advantageous to the Southern States. No such hegira has taken place in 1880. A diffusion of the colored population over a wider extent of territory, where there are diversities in works of industry, could not but be beneficial to the country. There were strikes in some parts of this State, but they were similar to the labor troubles elsewhere, and were devoid of race antagonism. It was not a rising of blacks against whites, but of employees against employers. In the parishes of St. James, St. John the Baptist, and St. Charles, during the month of March, negroes went from plantation to plantation, requiring others who had not joined in their movement to desist from work, and even to leave these parishes. They rode about in armed bands, broke into cabins, frightened the inmates, took quiet laborers from their work in the fields, and whipped them. No outrages were committed except on colored persons. The Governor's proclamation produced no effect upon the rioters, and the militia was called out and sent to the two or three points of disturbance. The ringleaders were arrested without bloodshed or difficulty, and were brought to New Orleans, tried, and imprisoned. The other strikers appointed a conference committee to arrange their difficulties with the planters. A colored Senator, Demas, wrote out the following petition in behalf of the St. Charles strikers, which shows the misconception of their rights under which they acted:

NEW ORLEANS, March 23, 1880.

To His Excellency Governor WILTZ, of the State of Louisiana.

The undersigned, having pleaded guilty to trespass before Judge Augustin, holding court at St. Charles Court-House on Saturday, March 20th, and having been brought to New Orleans to serve out their sentence, ask you for a remission of the same on the following grounds:

We, as well as the majority of our people, were misled as to our rights when we acted as we did in the recent strike; and when we were guilty of trespass, we did not know we were exceeding our rights; we really thought we had a right to go where other laborers were working, even though it was on the property of an individual, and induce those laborers to join us.

We now understand we have no such rights; we understand we have no right to go on the property of other people against their will, and we propose to obey this law hereafter.

We feel sure the laborers in our parish understand this question now, and are equally certain they never understood it before.

We feel sure the laborers in our parish will respect the law, as we intend to hereafter, and believe quietness and peace will continue from this time, and that when laborers differ with their employers hereafter about the price of their labor, it will be in a peaceable manner, and with law always on their side.

For these reasons, your Excellency, we would ask a remission of our sentence, and allow us to return to our wives, our children, and our work.

This was signed by the prisoners, and the Judge and the militia officers concurred in recommending that Executive clemency be extended. They were accordingly released, and quiet was restored.

The crops for the year ending September 1, 1880, show a satisfactory condition. The Sugar-Planters' Association has done much to produce concert of action and improved methods of culture and manufacture. The progress in manufacture is proved by the out-turn of 60,000,000 pounds of clarified sugar. The season was not favorable, but the crop, though smaller, brought more money than its predecessor.

YEAR.	Hogheads.	Pounds.	Barrels of molasses.
1878-'79.....	208,571½	251,088,860	322,044
1879-'80.....	172,424	211,740,062	274,440

The comparative value of the sugar-crop, since 1850, is as follows:

YEAR.	Total crop, pounds.	Average price per hoghead.	Total value.
1850-'51.....	231,200,000	\$60 00	\$12,678,000
1855-'56.....	254,600,000	70 00	16,200,000
1859-'60.....	225,100,000	82 00	18,200,000
1861-'62.....	528,300,000	55 00	25,100,000
1865-'66.....	19,900,000	137 50	2,847,000
1869-'70.....	99,500,000	120 00	10,442,000
1870-'71.....	168,900,000	98 00	14,261,000
1871-'72.....	146,900,000	108 00	13,911,000
1872-'73.....	125,300,000	100 50	10,900,000
1873-'74.....	103,200,000	95 50	8,555,000
1874-'75.....	134,500,000	95 00	11,265,000
1875-'76.....	165,450,000	88 00	11,578,000
1876-'77.....	194,964,000	95 50	15,646,000
1877-'78.....	149,469,000	72 00	9,007,000
1878-'79.....	251,088,868	65 00	13,557,115
1879-'80.....	211,740,062	87 50	15,360,000

Cotton is still the great feeder of every other form of industry. The following tables give the

NEW ORLEANS COTTON STATEMENT.

STOCK.	1879-'80.	1878-'79.
	Bales.	Bales.
Stock at the beginning of the year....	4,595	4,086
Net receipts.....	1,459,049	1,174,894
Receipts from Mobile.....	167,277	177,724
Receipts from Texas.....	56,620	78,818
Receipts from Florida.....	58	160
Excess from loose, waste, lintens, etc.	15,258	12,486
Total supply.....	1,782,754	1,442,659
Exports and local consumption, year..	1,700,485	1,438,048
Stock at the close of the year.....	22,269	4,610

NEW ORLEANS EXPORTS.

COUNTRIES.	1879-'80.	1878-'79.
	Bales.	Bales.
Great Britain.....	901,675	669,718
France.....	274,912	218,499
Continent.....	239,106	380,021
Channel ports.....	6,576	8,208
Mexico.....	19,672	17,305
Coastwise.....	256,848	192,388
Local consumption.....	1,696	1,909
Total.....	1,700,485	1,438,048

The succeeding table shows the comparative value of receipts:

SEASON.	Receipts at New Orleans.	Average price per bale.	Total value.
	Bales.		
1866-'67.....	780,490	\$125 10	\$97,639,299
1870-'71.....	1,548,136	65 25	101,015,874
1872-'73.....	1,407,821	84 87	118,760,758
1874-'75.....	1,157,597	65 40	75,706,843
1875-'76.....	1,604,441	52 55	84,473,849
1876-'77.....	1,889,774	52 00	72,268,248
1877-'78.....	1,689,453	40 05	81,159,658
1878-'79.....	1,426,081	48 00	61,221,483
1879-'80.....	1,112,999	55 00	94,213,845

This is the share of Louisiana in handling the crop of 1879-'80, which reached in the aggregate 5,761,252 bales.

The rice-crop has decreased from 154,518 barrels in 1878-'79 to 100,169 barrels in 1879-'80. Low water and storms alike proved disastrous. There is growing opposition to this culture. The rice-flumes too often prove the little rift which ends in the breakage of the levee and ensuing crevasses. Besides, the irrigation of the rice-fields is unwholesome. The malarial fever, not fatal but painful, which afflicted lower Louisiana during the autumn of 1880, is popularly attributed to this cause. The record of the foreign commerce of New Orleans shows that imports and exports have expanded nearly fifty per cent.

COMMERCE.	1879-'80.	1878-'79.
Domestic exports.....	\$93,335,880	\$68,624,797
Imports.....	10,915,042	7,141,989
Total.....	\$104,250,922	\$75,766,686

The value of the coffee imported was \$3,991,308, with an increase of 30,666,469 pounds.

The progress of the grain-trade movement by the Mississippi route, in spite of low water and insufficient tonnage, proves the natural advantages of river transportation for the surplus products of the West. The exports of grain were as follows:

EXPORTS.	Bushels of corn.	Bushels of wheat.
Total in 1878-'79.....	3,598,832	1,901,929
Total in 1879-'80.....	9,421,126	5,254,705
Increase this year.....	5,822,314	3,352,776

The barge system is found to be the most economical method of transportation. The capacity of a barge varies from 18,000 bushels to 100,000. The hull of the steamer Great Republic has been transformed into a barge of that dimension. From five to ten barges are towed at once. The run from St. Louis to New Orleans occupies about nine days. The average cost of transportation is about seven and one half cents a bushel. A stationary elevator was erected in New Orleans in 1868, with a capacity to transfer 30,000 bushels daily. There are five floating elevators, with a com-

bined capacity of 25,000 bushels daily. Besides these, there are others in process of construction. The floating elevators have proved very successful. The ships anchor in the stream, thus avoiding all wharfage dues, while an elevator on each side empties the contents of the barges into her hold, thus economizing storage dues. The charge for transferring is one half cent a bushel. The freight to Liverpool is about eight pence. The insurance is low. Four companies in New Orleans formed themselves into a syndicate for the purpose of insuring entire cargoes, dividing risks and profits. During the year the syndicate has not lost a vessel.

Besides the barge system, other projects are begun in regard to this trade. The Illinois Central Railroad Company are constructing an elevator and warehouse at Cairo, with a capacity of 600,000 bushels. Another elevator is being built at Belmont. These erections will allow easier transport down the Mississippi, as the barges will escape the numerous obstructions to navigation between St. Louis and Cairo. It has been demonstrated that no damage results to grain conveyed to Europe through Southern waters. On the contrary, it is the easier, cheaper, and safer route. During this year 135 sailing-vessels and 183 steamers, 318 vessels in all, cleared from the port of New Orleans, loaded wholly or chiefly with grain.

It has been contemplated to employ the Great Eastern in this trade. There is no obstacle to prevent her safe entrance to the harbor of New Orleans at any time. The jetties are an assured and permanent success. The walls extend about two and one eighth miles into the Gulf, one thousand feet apart. They are strongly built, and capped with a concrete as hard as stone. The action of the waves has thrown in sand and sediment outside the walls, forming a natural and permanent embankment, protecting them completely from injury by the water. An official report at the close of December shows that the condition of the jetties is excellent. No bar is forming in front, or anywhere in the vicinity. As required by law, there is a channel two hundred feet wide at the bottom, whose least depth is twenty-six feet, while its central depth is over thirty feet.

What is specially needed in Louisiana is small industries, which will give remunerative employment the year round. There has been some progress in manufactures. The census reports a capital of \$4,261,790 employed in boot and shoe manufacture, exclusive of custom-work:

Foundries and machinery.....	\$1,005,200
Moss-factories.....	153,000
Cotton-seed oil-factories.....	2,742,000
Saddlery.....	356,651
Slaughtering animals.....	1,793,560
Refining sugars.....	1,400,000
Tobacco.....	432,055
Rice-mills.....	1,505,000
Planing and lumber mills.....	267,280
Flour and grist mills.....	380,500
Cigars.....	512,862
Car-building.....	250,000
Artificial ice.....	158,000
Box-factories.....	151,128

Blacksmithing.....	\$186,000
Candies and confectionery.....	388,126
Cotton-presses.....	761,500
Cooperage.....	207,204
Carriage and wagon making.....	161,100
Copper and tin smithing.....	181,519
Coal-gas.....	789,800
Marble and granite works.....	127,390

These are all the manufactories in New Orleans which employ a capital of over \$100,000.

On the 12th of April the Democratic party elected the following delegation to the Cincinnati Convention: at large, John McEnnery, W. A. Strong, Patrick Mealey, and Charles Parlange; first district, John Fitzpatrick, J. D. Houston; second district, J. W. Patton, E. A. Burke; third district, J. L. Brent, John Clegg; fourth district, S. M. Morrison, James Jeffries; fifth district, G. W. McCranie, J. W. Goldman; sixth district, M. D. Kavanagh, William Duncan.

The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, By the Democratic and Conservative party of the State of Louisiana in convention assembled, for the purpose of electing sixteen delegates to the Cincinnati Convention, that we present to our political brethren the name of Winfield Scott Hancock as a candidate well adapted, in our judgment, to nationalize the issues of the approaching Presidential contest, and to give assurance of our desire to promote concord, insure tranquillity, the supremacy of the lawful authorities, and the perpetuity of our republican institutions. We hereby express our decided and unqualified preference for his nomination, and our belief that, if so nominated, his election will be ratified by the whole people.

Resolved further, That the sixteen delegates of this State are instructed to vote as a majority thereof may decide, except that they are hereby specially instructed to vote for the maintenance of the two-thirds rule, as it has been established in all the late Democratic Conventions.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Louisiana have heard with the deepest regret that certain Democratic members of the United States Senate have made objections to, and placed obstacles in the way of, the adoption of the majority report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, in the matter of the illegal and fraudulent claims of William P. Kellogg, who now occupies the seat in that body justly and legally due to the Hon. H. M. Spofford.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Louisiana, in convention assembled, does most earnestly urge upon all the Democrats in the United States Senate to seat the Hon. H. M. Spofford, the rightful and duly elected member from Louisiana.

The Republican party in Louisiana sent two sets of delegates to the Chicago Convention. The Dumont faction, who were seated, were: H. C. Warmoth, James Lewis, H. T. Ludeling, A. J. Dumont, William P. Kellogg, Richard Simms, A. S. Badger, Samuel Wakefield, A. H. Leonard, Don A. Pardee, William Harner, J. S. Matthews, W. L. McMillen, David Young, I. Henri Busch, and Jack Wharton.

The Beattie contesting delegation were: At large, Taylor Beattie, P. B. S. Pinchback, S. T. Allain, W. P. Kellogg. Congressional district delegates: Cyrus Bussey, J. R. G. Pitkin, Dr. H. A. Duperrier, J. R. Beckwith, A. A. Maurice, J. S. Davidson, Dr. B. T. Kenney, Octave Ray, Governor Hawkins, Thomas A. Cage, Henry Demas, and J. B. Gaudet.

At the regular Republican State Convention the following resolutions were adopted on Monday, May 24th:

We, the Republicans of Louisiana, in Convention assembled, reaffirm our allegiance and devotion to the Republican party and the principles which gave it birth. Believing that it is on the threshold of a battle that will give it a new lease of life and power, we declare our firm belief that this is a nation and not a league; that the General Government has and ought to exercise the right of protecting the purity of the ballot-box by throwing around it the safeguards necessary to procure a full and free expression of its citizens, irrespective of race, nationality, or sections; that having taken charge of the reins of government at a critical period of the country's history, followed by a war that cost us thousands of lives and millions of treasure, we point with pride and admiration to its grand achievements, in the rapid payment of the public debt, the reduction of taxation, and the restoration of general prosperity, by giving us a bond which is at par the world over. We call upon the Republicans of the North in the coming struggle to see that the nation takes no step backward by denying or abridging the rights of any class of its citizens; that while we can not have our voice and influence felt in the affairs of state, we look anxiously and pray earnestly for the success of those principles where free speech is tolerated and where fair play obtains. Having confidence in the patriotism, character, and intelligence of those who will assemble in convention at Chicago, we hereby declare our hearty and united support for its nominees.

A university for the higher education of colored boys was opened in New Orleans, at the expense of the State of Louisiana, during 1880. There are no data from which the number of children, white and black, in this State, can be collected. The Superintendent of Education reports as follows:

No returns from the following twelve parishes have been received: Bienville, Calcasieu, East Carroll, Lafourche, Livingston, Lincoln, Morehouse, Natchitoches, Ouachita, Plaquemines, Sabine, and Webster.

In the table below is given a list of the educable youth of those parishes that have been heard from:

Ascension.....	5,022	Assumption.....	4,756
Avoynes.....	4,894	Baton Rouge, East... ..	5,534
Baton Rouge, West... ..	2,199	Bossier.....	5,160
Caldwell.....	1,852	Cameron.....	743
Carroll, West.....	7-8	Catahoula.....	3,094
Claiborne.....	6,013	Concordia.....	3,900
De Soto.....	5,095	Felicia a, East.....	4,584
Felician a, West.....	4,129	Lafayette.....	4,879
Franklin.....	1,857	Madison.....	3,764
Grant.....	2,098	Orleans.....	56,947
Iberia.....	5,270	Pointe Coupée.....	5,085
Iberville.....	5,291	Rapides.....	7,361
Jackson.....	1,708	Red River.....	2,194
Jefferson.....	2,542	Richland.....	2,690
St. Bernard.....	1,176	Tangipahoa.....	3,821
St. Charles.....	1,951	Tensas.....	4,854
St. Helena.....	2,383	Terrebonne.....	5,574
St. James.....	4,252	Union.....	4,431
St. John.....	2,927	Vermilion.....	8,690
St. Landry.....	11,978	Vernon.....	1,729
St. Martin.....	4,009	Washington.....	1,178
St. Mary.....	5,560	Winn.....	1,867
St. Tammany.....	2,077		

The apportionment of the current school fund, the proceeds of the one-mill tax, among the different parishes of the State in proportion to the number of educable children in each, is as follows:

PARISHES.	Amount.	PARISHES.	Amount.
Ascension.....	\$1,255 50	Madison.....	\$941 00
Assumption.....	1,196 50	Morehouse.....	716 50
Avoyelles.....	1,223 50	Natchitoches.....	2,395 75
Baton Rouge, East.....	1,383 50	Ouachita.....	990 50
Baton Rouge, West.....	549 75	Orleans.....	14,236 75
Bienville.....	892 50	Plaquemines.....	804 00
Bossier.....	1,290 00	Pointe Coupée.....	1,274 25
Caddo.....	1,610 50	Rapides.....	1,315 25
Caldwell.....	977 75	Red River.....	548 50
Calecaieu.....	463 00	Richland.....	672 50
Camerson.....	157 60	Sabine.....	670 00
Carroll, East.....	621 25	St. Bernard.....	294 00
Carroll, West.....	185 75	St. Charles.....	457 75
Catahoula.....	773 50	St. Helena.....	595 75
Claiborne.....	1,503 25	St. John Baptist.....	731 75
Concordia.....	975 00	St. James.....	1,063 00
De Soto.....	1,273 75	St. Landry.....	2,994 50
Felliciana, East.....	1,143 50	St. Martin.....	1,092 25
Felliciana, West.....	1,032 25	St. Mary.....	1,390 00
Franklin.....	464 25	St. Tammany.....	519 25
Grant.....	521 50	Tensas.....	1,218 50
Iberia.....	1,317 50	Terrebonne.....	1,398 50
Iberville.....	1,322 75	Tangipahoa.....	805 25
Jackson.....	425 75	Union.....	1,107 75
Jefferson *.....	798 00	Vermilion.....	922 00
Lafourche.....	1,422 25	Vernon.....	430 00
Lafayette.....	1,094 75	Washington.....	444 50
Lincoln.....	718 75	Webster.....	737 50
Livingston.....	444 25	Winn.....	466 75
Total.....			\$68,750 00

Redistricting for members of Congress has not yet been ordered. The United States census of 1880 gives Louisiana a white population reaching 455,063, and a colored population of 485,200. The whole population is 940,263. This shows an increase during the last decade of 213,988. The population in 1870 was, whites, 362,065; blacks, 364,210; aggregate, 726,275.

The debt of the State of Louisiana on January 30, 1880, was as follows:

Consolidated bonds at 7 per cent. not yet accepting the provisions of the new Constitution.....	\$11,449,500
Consolidated bonds accepting new constitutional provisions, and stamped for reduced interest of 2 per cent.....	156,600
New constitutional bonds issued for \$238,300 old bonds, at 75 cents, and bearing interest at 4 per cent.....	175,025
Total debt, old and new bonds.....	\$11,781,125

Holders of old bonds are not compelled to scale at seventy-five cents on the dollar and take new four per cent. bonds, but the State Treasurer believes that they will prefer that mode. In that event the refunded debt will be \$8,879,550 at four per cent. interest. The option is the face of the consolidated debt with two per cent. for five years, three per cent. for fifteen years, and four per cent. thereafter. There can be no increase beyond the funding of a few outstanding bonds, which have not yet been converted into consolidated bonds, and which do not amount to \$250,000.

The assessment of the parish of Orleans in 1880 was.....	\$97,352,405 72
The assessment of country parishes in 1880 was.....	79,276,227 00

Total assessment of Louisiana in 1880 was \$176,628,632 72

The rate of taxation is six mills.

LUTHERANS. The following is a summary of the statistics of the Lutheran Synods in America, as they are given in the "Church Almanac" (Philadelphia) for 1881:

* This amount is subdivided as follows: Right bank, \$635.50; left bank, \$162.50.

SYNODS.	Minis- ters.	Congre- gations.	Communi- cants.
I. GENERAL COUNCIL.			
Ministerium of Pennsylvania.....	201	935	82,558
Ministerium of New York.....	70	67	22,683
Pittsburg Synod.....	71	133	12,309
Texas Synod.....	80	30	4,550
District Synod of Ohio.....	32	63	5,895
Augustana Synod (Swedish).....	141	311	39,979
Michigan Synod.....	28	45	4,432
Canada Synod.....	24	53	6,343
Indiana Synod.....	14	32	2,425
Holston Synod.....	13	27	2,900
Total in ten synods.....	624	1,151	184,974
II. GENERAL SYNOD, NORTH.			
Maryland Synod.....	66	95	12,614
West Pennsylvania Synod.....	63	112	18,290
Hartwick Synod.....	29	32	4,055
East Ohio Synod.....	45	90	5,252
Franeckan Synod.....	22	32	2,943
Allegheny Synod.....	56	141	11,560
East Pennsylvania Synod.....	74	105	15,151
Miami Synod.....	28	32	3,280
Wittenberg Synod.....	42	64	6,098
Olive Branch Synod.....	19	31	1,800
Northern Illinois Synod.....	34	47	2,074
Central Pennsylvania Synod.....	37	84	7,410
Iowa Synod.....	25	26	1,089
Northern Indiana Synod.....	44	80	4,000
Southern Illinois Synod.....	10	17	957
Central Illinois Synod.....	21	31	1,597
New York and New Jersey Synod.....	50	39	6,195
Susquehanna Synod.....	41	61	6,963
Pittsburg Synod.....	27	54	4,531
Kansas Synod.....	31	32	1,043
Nebraska Synod.....	25	30	1,344
Wartburg Synod.....	37	35	4,725
Middle Tennessee Synod.....	15	15	812
Total in twenty-three synods.....	841	1,255	128,813
III. GENERAL SYNOD, SOUTH.			
Synod of North Carolina.....	24	48	4,659
Synod of South Carolina.....	33	47	5,344
Synod of Virginia.....	29	49	4,150
Synod of Southwest Virginia.....	20	49	2,575
Mississippi Synod.....	7	9	365
Georgia Synod.....	9	12	1,100
Total in six synods.....	122	214	18,223
IV. SYNODICAL CONFERENCE.			
Joint Synod of Ohio (6 synods).....	183	236	99,651
Joint Synod of Missouri (5 synods).....	693	870	256,395
Wisconsin Synod.....	87	150	47,615
Norwegian Synod.....	172	522	135,251
Minnesota Synod.....	34	54	14,063
English Conference of Missouri.....	7	8	1,000
Total in six synods.....	1,176	1,990	554,505
V. INDEPENDENT.			
Tennessee Synod.....	27	78	7,636
Buffalo Synod.....	17	22	3,200
Synod of Iowa (German).....	189	235	20,500
Hange's Nor. Evan. Luth. Synod.....	22	80	6,000
Conference of Nor. Dan. Luth. Church.....	66	299	19,621
Augustana Synod (Norwegian).....	21	53	7,090
Synod of Maryland (German).....	39	45	1,420
Ansargi Synod.....	22	68	3,898
Dan. Evan. Luth. Church in America.....	9	13	1,500
Augsburg Synod (German).....	5	1.	1,378
Immanuel Synod.....			
Total in eleven synods.....	369	913	63,353
Grand total.....	8,182	5,553	944,868

The statistics given in other Lutheran almanacs widely differ from the above. An almanac published at Allentown, Pennsylvania ("Lutherische Kalender"), gives a total of 3,174 ministers, 5,683 congregations, and 700,418 communicants; while, according to the "Lu-

theran Almanac," of Chicago, there are 3,177 ministers, 5,693 congregations, and 703,382 communicants.

"The Church Almanac" gives lists of four theological institutions under the care of the General Council, four under the care of the General Synod, North, five under the care of the Synodical Conference, one under the care of the General Synod, South, one Norwegian-Danish, and one Swedish seminary; three colleges connected with the General Council, four with the General Synod, North, four with the Synodical Conference, two with the General Synod, South, and four with individual Synods; thirteen classical schools, and nine seminaries for young ladies.

The *General Council* met at Greensburg, Pennsylvania, in October. The Rev. D. A. Spaeth was chosen President. The business was almost entirely transacted in English, although the German language had heretofore been considerably used in the proceedings of the Council. The Constitution for congregations, which had been under consideration for several years, was completed and was adopted, and recommended to the churches. The continued discussion of the theses on pulpit and altar fellowship, which had been likewise under consideration for several years, was deferred. A plan for the reorganization of the mission work was adopted, although it was not considered wholly satisfactory, as the best arrangement that could be made at present. It directs that home missionary operations within the territory of the several synods shall continue to be under the care and control of such synods; makes provision for the special care of several missions, which it names by particular synods; authorizes the Executive Committee on Home Missions to assign unoccupied territory to any other district synod able to do work beyond its own bounds; directs that the reports of all missionary operations be sent to

the Executive Committee, and that the committee have regard to all demands for home missionary labor beyond the bounds cared for in the plan, and endeavor to make provision for the supply of it; and withdraws the recommendation formerly made by the Council that the district synods transmit to the Council's Treasurer of Home Missions one fifth of all the moneys collected for home missions. A silver medal which had been prepared in commemoration of the seventh Jubilee of the adoption of the Augsburg Confession and the third centenary of the publication of the Book of Concord was approved. The receipts for the Home Mission Fund were reported to have been \$3,385.

The *General Synod, South*, met in its twelfth Convention in Richmond, Virginia, May 6th. The district synods of South Carolina, Virginia, Southwest Virginia, and Georgia, were represented, and a commissioner was present from the North Carolina Synod. The Rev. J. Hawkins was chosen President. A proposition was made, in which was included the offer of a considerable gift of property, for the removal of the Theological Seminary from Salem, Virginia, to Charlotte, North Carolina. The Synod decided that, inasmuch as the seminary had been recently removed from Lexington, Virginia, to Columbia, South Carolina, and again from Columbia to Salem, Virginia, it was inexpedient at the present time to remove it again. The North Carolina Synod having sent a commissioner to inquire into the doctrinal position of the body with a view to organic union with it, the Synod recorded a declaration that it regarded the symbols and testimonies of faith which were adopted subsequently to the Augsburg Confession as in accord with, and an unfolding of, its teachings, and invited the North Carolina Synod to consummate the contemplated union as soon as possible.

M

MAINE. The decision of the Supreme Court of Maine, by which the organization of the Legislature by the Republicans was sustained, was rendered on the 16th of January. (See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.) On the 17th Daniel F. Davis formally notified General Chamberlain that he had that day been "legally elected to the office of Governor and Commander-in-Chief," and "duly qualified to perform the duties of that office." He submitted at the same time a copy of the opinion of the Judges. In acknowledging the receipt of this communication, General Chamberlain said: "As it is manifest that this opinion establishes the legality of your election, and that you are duly qualified as Governor, I have the honor to report to you that I consider my trust under Special Order No. 45 as at an end."

On the 20th the following resolution, offered by Mr. Eugene Hale, of Ellsworth, was adopted in the House of Representatives, eighty-five votes being recorded in its favor, and sixty-four members being recorded as absent:

Whereas, The Fifty-ninth Legislature of the State of Maine, as elected by the people of the State at its last annual election, has met and has legally organized with a full quorum in each House, under the opinion of the Justices of the Supreme Judicial Court, and has duly and legally proceeded to elect a Governor and Executive Council and other State officers, all of whom have been duly qualified, and have entered upon their respective duties in the customary places of the State-House where the business of the State is transacted: therefore be it

Resolved, That the Senate and House of Representatives will forthwith proceed to legislative business touching the varied interests of the people of Maine, their finances, their courts, their public schools, the

fisheries, the adaptability of the laws to the new constitutional amendments, the fixing of a just and fair basis for the coming valuation of all the property in the State, so that taxation may fall justly and fairly upon the people, and such other subjects as may naturally and fittingly come before the Legislature. And we desire and hereby give notice to all the people of the State that any bodies or collection of men outside of the Legislature here and now duly and legally assembled and organized as before mentioned, who may meet in any place, claiming to act as the Legislature of the State of Maine, are wholly without right or authority so to act, and are proceeding in violation of the Constitution and the laws of the State.

The "Fusionists" made some show of resistance, and submitted to the Supreme Court their own statement of facts, with questions as to the legality of the Senate and House as organized, in view of the facts as stated by them. A reply, signed by all the Judges, was rendered on the 27th, with regard to the organization of the Legislature. It says:

It remains to be considered whether there is a legally organized Legislature in existence, entitled to enact laws that must be binding upon the people and the courts of the State. The action of those controlling the proceedings on the first Wednesday of January, 1880, has not been acquiesced in by a quorum of those appearing to have been elected to either House. It is a matter of history that after unsuccessful resistance to the illegal action of the officers attempting to create the legislative organization on that day, a majority of the persons who appeared to be elected to the two Houses formed an organization of themselves. They refrained from forming an independent organization until the 12th day of January, hoping until then to obtain their rights in some other way. They were forced into such a position by the illegal action of the minority of the members, whose action they were not obliged to submit to, and which they could in no other reasonable manner resist. The organizations made on January 12th were made by a majority of the members appearing to be elected, and having the *prima facie* right to seats. The point is raised by the statement and questions submitted, that no legal organization could be formed on January 12th, because no notice of the intended action was given to the minority, or non-attending members, so as to enable them to participate therein. The minority were not excluded. The organization was made in a public manner. The minority were at the time claiming to be, and are still claiming to be, the lawful Legislature. It is not to be presumed that they would have abandoned that organization at that time had notice been given. We do not think that the want of notice invalidates the organizations of January 12th. There may be irregularities in the manner in which such organizations were formed, but the voice of the people is not, on that account, to be stifled, nor the true government to fail to be maintained. No essential defects anywhere exist, but only such departure from ordinary forms as circumstances compelled. History can never fail to declare the vital fact that the organizations of January the 12th were formed by full quorums of persons appearing by the records and returns as duly elected members of either House.

It can not be that such a construction must be given to the Constitution of the State as will subvert the plain and obvious intention of its framers, or place it in the power of a few men to perpetuate their hold upon the offices in the gift of the people, in defiance of the will of the voters, constitutionally expressed and ascertained, because their own neglect of duty has made some departure from directory provisions and ordinary forms inevitable.

A legally organized Legislature being now in existence, and exercising its constitutional functions, it follows that no convention of members-elect of either

House can exist which can be treated as a nucleus for another organization. Two governments are claiming to be in existence as valid and entitled to the obedience of the people. Both can not rightfully exist at the same time; but one government can be recognized and obeyed. The responsibility and solemn duty are imposed upon us to determine which is entitled to judicial recognition.

We, therefore, after due deliberation and consideration of all matters involved, affirm and declare our judgment to be that the Senate, whose presiding officer is the Hon. Joseph A. Locke, and the House of Representatives, whose presiding officer is the Hon. George E. Weeks, constitute the legal and constitutional Legislature of the State.

On the 5th of February a joint order of the two Houses was passed, providing that a committee of three Senators and seven Representatives should "examine into the condition of the election returns lately given up to the Secretary of State, the warrant and appropriation books, and all other books and papers of the Governor and Council for the year 1879, and extending to the first Wednesday of January, 1880, and report to this Legislature what suppression or alterations, if any, have been made in said returns, and what means have been resorted to for such purposes; and, also, in what cases and in what manner the will of the people, as shown in the last annual election, has been disregarded and attempted to be defeated, either by illegal construction of said returns, or changing or tampering with them, or by whom the same has been done, or attempted to be done." The committee was further ordered to report upon all "undue and illegal expenditure of the money of the State by or under the direction of the Governor and Council for the period before mentioned, or by any officer of the State, or by any employee of or contractor with the State during said time."

The report of the investigating committee was made on the 18th of March. It gives an extended summary of the evidence taken, and enters into a discussion of the facts at some length. The conclusion of the report is as follows:

Your committee present to the Legislature all the testimony which has been taken up to the present time, and ask that it may be printed, as well as this report.

This testimony, in the judgment of your committee, justifies the following conclusions:

The returns from the cities, towns, and plantations in the State were, contrary to usage, kept by the Governor and Council from all inspection or scrutiny by candidates, their counsel, or any parties legitimately interested in them.

During such time as the returns were so kept, many alterations, erasures, and forgeries were made upon them, for the purpose of changing the result; and, in all cases which have been discovered, such improper treatment of the returns resulted against Republican candidates, and in favor of the Fusion candidates.

During the same time, from information which must in nearly all cases have come from the officials who were examining and tabulating the returns, or who had the custody of them, defects in Fusion towns were being cured by substituting new and correct returns, or by affidavits taken *ex parte* for the purpose of curing such defects. In addition to this, and by reason of information furnished in the manner stated, affi-

davits were being taken, and cases were gotten up for the purpose of throwing out Republican towns.

In all cases affected by such causes, the results invariably counted out Republican candidates and counted in Fusion candidates, and this to the extent that the majority in each House of the Legislature was illegally changed from the Republican side to the Fusion side.

In reaching this result the Governor and Council refused to allow Republican errors in the returns to be corrected by the records, although such correction was offered repeatedly by Republican candidates or their counsel.

The different rules of law laid down by the Governor and Council as their guide in tabulating the returns, and in certificating from such tabulations, were applied in different ways, as they were enforced where they would throw out a Republican candidate, but not enforced where they would throw out a Fusion candidate.

Many of these rules were contrary to law, and must have been made solely for the purpose of securing a Fusion quorum in each branch of the Legislature.

The illegal and fraudulent acts before referred to were a part of a premeditated plan, and the conspiracy, the object of which was to secure a quorum of Fusion members in each branch of the Legislature, embraced the members of the Executive Council, and the Governor of the State must have been in some degree in complicity with them.

Both Governor and Council must then be held accountable for the fraudulent practices under which the election returns were changed so that the will of the people was set aside, and illegal certificates issued to Senators and Representatives in sufficient numbers to change the political complexion of both branches of the Legislature.

Relative to misappropriations of the public moneys. Your committee conclude—

That the different appropriations by the Legislature have been diverted from their legitimate purposes, and in many cases have been overdrawn and exhausted;

That the public funds have been withdrawn from the Treasury of the State by Governor Garcelon and his Council without warrant of law, and have been applied to unauthorized uses, and for unlawful purposes;

That a large sum of money belonging to the State remains in the hands of Governor Garcelon and other officials of last year, which should be recovered and put back into the Treasury;

That the recklessness of management disclosed in the transactions of the past year, tends to destroy public confidence, undermine the public credit, and introduce practices which, if unrebuked, will prove fatal to the future progress and prosperity of the State.

ANDREW HAWES,	} On the part of the Senate.
AUSTIN HARRIS,	
EUGENE HALE,	} On the part of the House of Representatives.
A. A. STROUT,	
CHARLES V. LORD,	
C. C. SPRINGER,	
SILAS W. COOK,	

The following brief minority report was submitted:

Silence on the part of the undersigned would be construed as an assent to all the positions and conclusions of the majority report, as well as to the statement of facts.

The undersigned are unwilling and unable to give their assent to all of the arguments and conclusions of such majority report, though they can not deny that the recital of facts in the report is substantially in accordance with the evidence. Mr. Moody, of the Council of Governor Garcelon, was before the committee, but he failed to explain the irregularities which had been proved.

Governor Garcelon also testifies, at a later period in the investigation, that he had no previous knowledge

of much which has been shown by the testimony to need explanation.

A letter, courteous in its language, was addressed by the clerk of the committee to each of the other members of Governor Garcelon's Council, saying that an opportunity would be granted them to appear and testify.

The undersigned regret that the members of the Council have not seen fit to appear and explain the irregularities which seem to exist.

The evidence being uncontradicted, the undersigned can not make a denial of the facts proved by it, and can only withhold their assent to the conclusions arrived at by the majority of the committee.

HENRY INGALLS,
GEORGE F. HILL.

Charges of bribery, or attempted bribery, to induce certain persons returned as elected to the Legislature not to take their seats, were also the subject of an investigation by a committee of the House of Representatives. There were three cases examined by the committee: that of Bartholomew Wentworth, of South Berwick, said to have been offered \$500 in gold and \$10 a day for forty days by one Charles E. Rick, of North Berwick; that of Thomas B. Swan, of Minot, who alleged that Wallace R. White, of Winthrop, had paid him \$1,000 to resign his seat in the House, in order that the "Fusionists" might fail to have a quorum on first assembling; and that of Moses Harriman, of Kennebunkport, who charged that Wallace R. White had offered him \$100 for the same purpose as alleged in the case of Swan. Majority and minority reports were submitted on the 18th of March. The majority, consisting of four members of the committee, declared that the charges were not sustained in any of the cases. The minority, consisting of two members, agreed with the conclusion of the majority as to the case of Wentworth, but differed from it in regard to those of Swan and Harriman, and declared themselves of the opinion that the charges were "fully proved and sustained." There was also an investigation into the disappearance of the State seal, and certain documents and records of the office of Secretary of State. It was found that Mr. Prince A. Sawyer, who claimed to have been elected Secretary of State, had taken them away. In the course of the investigation they were returned, and the committee reported that "Prince A. Sawyer deserves the indignation of the members of the Legislature and the people of the State of Maine."

The Legislature adjourned on the 19th of March, having passed 191 acts and 71 resolves. The total amount of appropriations was \$1,368,957. The rate of taxation was fixed at five mills on the dollar. One of the resolves adopted authorized the Governor to appoint a commission of sixteen persons, one for each county of the State, to prepare a "full, just, and equal valuation" of property and enumeration of polls as a basis of taxation; and another provided for an amendment of the Constitution, so as to require only a plurality of votes for the election of Governor. The latter provided for the submission to a vote of the

people at the election to be held in September of the question, "Shall the Constitution be amended so as to provide for the election of Governor by a plurality instead of a majority?" and declared that "a plurality of the votes cast and returned for Governor, at the annual election for the year 1880, shall determine the election of Governor for the years 1881-'82." Acts were passed providing for the taxation of express, telegraph, and railroad companies. On express companies the tax is three fourths of one per cent. of their gross receipts; on telegraph companies $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the value of their lines, to be determined by the Governor and Council on report of corporations; and on railroad companies one per cent. of the appraised value of the property and franchises, the appraisal to be made by the Governor and Council. An act was passed providing at length for the organization, equipment, and discipline of the State militia. Other enactments of the session provide for the punishment of tramps, prevent obstruction of business on railroads by combination of employees or other persons, and impose penalties for the abstraction of the State seal, or public documents and records, or the assumption and exercise of a public office without legal authority.

The Greenback and Democratic parties of the State held their conventions simultaneously at Bangor on the 1st of June. In the Greenback gathering General Harris M. Plaisted, of Bangor, was nominated by acclamation as the candidate for Governor, and the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That all currency, whether metallic or paper, necessary for the use and convenience of the people, should be issued and its volume controlled by the Government, and not by or through the banking corporations of the country; and, when so issued, should by a full legal tender be payment of all debts, public and private.

Resolved, That that portion of the interest-bearing debt of the United States which shall become redeemable in the year 1881, or prior thereto, being in amount \$782,000,000, should not be refunded beyond the power of the Government to call in said obligations and pay them at any time; but should be paid as rapidly as possible, and according to contract. To enable the Government to meet these obligations, the mints of the United States should be operated to their full capacity in the coinage of standard silver dollars, and such other coinage as the business interests of the country may require.

Resolved, That imprisonment for debt be abolished.

Resolved, That we favor such a change in the manner of voting as shall secure every citizen the free and full exercise of the true right of suffrage.

The Democrats chose delegates to the National Convention of the party, adopted no platform, and ratified the nomination of the Greenback Convention for Governor.

The Republican Convention was held at Augusta, on the 23d of June. Delegates to the National Convention had been chosen, according to custom, by the Republican members of the Legislature, and had been instructed to favor James G. Blaine as the candidate for President. Daniel F. Davis was renominated

for Governor, and the following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That the Republicans of Maine, by their delegates assembled in convention, endorse the platform adopted by the National Republican Convention held at Chicago, and pledge their best endeavors to the support and success of the principles therein laid down—principles breathing the spirit by which the Republican party has always been actuated, and through the ascendancy of which the nation has been honored and prospered.

Resolved, That the nomination of James A. Garfield, of Ohio, as the candidate of the Republican party for President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President of the United States, meet with our hearty approbation. Though we hoped for the nomination of Maine's distinguished Senator, James G. Blaine, as the candidate for President, we accept the result of the National Convention in good faith, and pledge ourselves to labor loyally for the noble candidates selected at Chicago to lead the Republicans in this campaign.

Resolved, That the Fusion party of this State has made for itself a record so infamous that every honest man of every party should pray and work for its speedy and complete overthrow. It came into power with loud professions upon its lips of reform and superior honesty, and it was driven out of power for giving to the State the most dishonest and corrupt administration ever known to our people. It robbed the State Treasury, and then attempted to steal the State government. It was not content with being voted out of power by the people at the polls, but tried to continue itself in control of the Government by most outrageous frauds and forgeries upon the election returns, and other acts subversive of the rights of the people and destructive of popular government. It placed an armed mob in the State-House and brought us to the brink of civil war. Our most honored citizens were spurned with contempt from the door of the Council Chamber when they sought their redress of their grievances. Men who were not elected were counted into seats in the Legislature, and men who were elected were counted out. Instead of endeavoring to give effect to the will of the people as expressed by the ballot, a systematic, deliberate, wicked conspiracy was entered into to set aside the result of the popular election and create a fraudulent government. The Governor whom they elected paid out thousands of dollars of the public money while in office, without authority, and after his term had expired he still kept thousands of dollars in his possession to distribute to the tools who aided him in his disgraceful and nefarious operations. These infamous acts are known to all our citizens. They confront and shame Maine men wherever they travel in other States. Unless we desire to have them repeated and the disgrace of them cling to us, the honest voters, the "plain people" of Maine, must stand up at this election and stamp them with overwhelming defeat and reprobation at the polls.

Resolved, That experience has demonstrated the wisdom of the policy of prohibition as auxiliary to temperance reform, and as contributing to the material wealth, happiness, and prosperity of the State, and that we refer with confidence and pride to our undeviating support of the same as one of the cardinal principles of the Republican party of Maine.

Resolved, That we are heartily in favor of the amendment to the Constitution providing for the election of Governor by a plurality vote, and recommend its adoption.

Resolved, That we hail with pleasure the second nomination of Daniel F. Davis as the Republican candidate for Governor of Maine. He has proved himself honest, incorruptible, able, and popular, and we again place the standard of the Republican party in his hands, feeling assured that he will give his best efforts to carry it to victory, and that it will be successful by an old-fashioned Republican majority.

A Temperance Convention had been held at Augusta on the 11th of February, at which the following declarations, among others, had been made:

2. That no political party shall receive our support that does not recognize the iniquity of the liquor-traffic, and demand its destruction as essential to the public welfare.

3. That the enforcement of the laws relating to the liquor-traffic can be secured by adopting as a living principle the motto "Vote as you pray," and by holding parties and officials responsible for righteous laws, and a non-partisan enforcement of the same.

4. That all effort to secure success at the polls by an alliance with those who are engaged in the liquor-traffic is destructive to political morality, and has our emphatic condemnation.

5. That in view of the fact that in some localities in the State county and municipal officers neglect or refuse to enforce the prohibitory law, we respectfully request the Legislature to enact a law providing for a State constabulary.

Another convention was held at Augusta on the 22d of July, which adjourned to meet in Portland on the 19th of August. At the latter meeting Joshua K. Osgood was nominated as a candidate for Governor, and the following declarations were made:

Whereas, The earnest temperance voters of Maine feel that they have been deceived by politicians, and that the "enforcement" of the law has been made purely as a matter of policy and not of principle; we, members of this Convention, this 19th day of August, 1880, assembled in Portland, do hereby resolve:

1. That we denominated ourselves the "Enforced Prohibitory Party of Maine."

2. That we have an honest conviction of heart, and an earnest belief that our "sacred cause" can be secured only by enforced prohibition.

3. That with the great end and aim in view that humanity may be elevated and a true morality may be advanced, we do demand that none but known honest temperance men shall hold offices of honor or trust in our gift.

4. God and humanity demand that Maine shows her belief in true temperance. Let her voice be heard with no uncertain sound.

5. That our motto is simply "Honesty, Economy, Sincerity, Enforced Prohibition."

Mr. Osgood shortly withdrew from the canvass in the following letter:

GARDINER, MAINE, August 24, 1880.

To the Honorable James M. Stone, President State Temperance Convention.

Sir: After mature deliberation and the fullest conference with trusted friends of the temperance cause, I feel it to be my imperative duty to withdraw my name as a candidate for Governor.

I am persuaded that the only effect of my candidacy would be to divide and distract those who should act in harmony and concord for the promotion of the common cause.

I have labored with zeal and with all the power God has given me to advance the doctrine of total abstinence among the people, and it would be a source of lasting regret with me if in any way my name could be used so as to divide the strength of the temperance army.

It may be true that Governor Davis has not used all the power at his command to stop the sale of liquor in our State, but, after a careful investigation of the charges brought against him, I find the charges not sustained, and common honesty compels me to deal justly with all men. I can not consent to remain in a position so heartily endorsed by our enemies.

With the highest and sincerest regard for the gen-

tlemen who tendered me the nomination, I very respectfully withdraw my name as a candidate for Governor. You will greatly oblige me by giving this letter to the public.

Yours truly,

J. K. OSGOOD.

The name of Joshua Nye was substituted by a committee of the "Enforced Prohibitory party." A Temperance Convention at Old Orchard Beach on the 1st of September issued an address which was a substantial approval of the course of Governor Davis and his party on the liquor question, and a condemnation of the action of those who nominated Mr. Nye.

The political canvass excited much interest on account of the peculiar division and combination of parties, and the fact that the election would be one of the first preliminary to the Presidential contest. The Republicans were particularly active under the personal leadership of Mr. Blaine, who was chairman of their Executive Committee.

The election took place on the 13th of September. The total vote for Governor was 147,802. Davis received 73,544, Plaisted 73,713, Nye 309, William P. Joy 124, "Harrison" M. Plaisted 57, and 55 were returned as "scattering." The constitutional amendment was ratified by a vote of 57,015 to 35,402, which fact was officially proclaimed by the Governor on the 9th of November. Of the five members of Congress the Republicans elected three and the "Fusionists" two. To the State Legislature the Republicans elected 22 Senators and 84 Representatives, and the Fusionists nine Senators and 67 Representatives.

After the State election a portion of the Greenbackers, under the lead of Solon Chase, withdrew from the "Fusion," and nominated an electoral ticket of their own. The total vote cast for Presidential electors in November was 143,899, of which 74,039 were for the Republican candidates, 65,171 for the "Fusion" ticket, which was pledged to General Hancock, and 4,480 for the straight Greenback or Weaver ticket. There were 92 votes for the Prohibitory or Dow ticket, and 127 were returned as scattering. Garfield's plurality over Hancock was 8,868; majority over all, 4,169.

When the vote for Governor was canvassed by a joint committee of the Legislature, in January, 1881, two reports were made of the result. The figures were the same, but while the majority of the committee reported that "Harris M. Plaisted, having a plurality of all the votes returned, is duly elected Governor for the current political term of 1881 and 1882," the minority raised the question whether the amendment to the Constitution, providing that a plurality should elect, could take effect upon the same election at which it was submitted for ratification, and recommended that the Supreme Court be asked to pass upon this question. The minority report was rejected by a vote of 26 to 3 in the Senate, and 129 to 8 in the House of Representatives, and Mr. Plaisted was inaugurated.

The following is the population of Maine by counties, according to the first official report of the Federal census of 1880:

Androscoggin	45,044
Aroostook	41,700
Cumberland	86,360
Franklin	18,184
Hancock	38,131
Kennebec	53,061
Knox	32,502
Lincoln	24,809
Oxford	32,613
Penobscot	70,473
Piscataquis	14,573
Sagadahoc	19,276
Somerset	32,339
Waldo	32,468
Washington	44,477
York	62,265

Total for the State..... 648,945

The population of the cities, as compared with that of 1870, was as follows:

CITIES.	1880.	1870.
Portland	33,810	31,413
Lewiston	19,083	18,600
Bangor	16,857	18,289
Biddeford	12,652	10,282
Rockland	7,599	7,074
Calais	6,172	5,944
Belfast	5,303	5,275

The receipts of the State Treasury for the year, including a balance of \$69,413.47, amounted to \$1,741,808.60. The expenditures were \$1,581,469.96, and the balance at the end of the year, \$160,358.64. The State has a bonded debt of \$5,883,900, and a sinking fund of \$1,307,857. The total resources, including the sinking fund, are \$2,513,822.39; liabilities, \$8,706,392.67. The bonded debt is made up as follows:

Bonds due, 1881, renewal of bounty loan..	\$50,000
" " 1882, renewal of bounty loan..	50,000
" " 1883, renewal of bounty loan..	50,000
" " 1884, renewal of bounty loan..	50,000
" " 1885, renewal of bounty loan..	50,000
" " 1886, renewal of bounty loan..	37,000
" " 1883, war loan.....	885,900
" " 1889, war loan.....	2,330,000
" " 1889, municipal war loan.....	2,826,900
Bonds due and uncalled.....	35,000

Total..... \$5,883,900

The amount of taxes assessed upon the railroads under the new law was \$55,250, but only three of the companies responded to the demand for payment. Suits were accordingly brought under the law, before the close of the year, against the Maine Central, the Boston and Maine, and the Portland, Saco and Portsmouth. The Western Union and International Telegraph Companies also refused to pay the tax assessed upon them, and proposed to test the validity of the law. The tax assessed upon the three railroads named was—Maine Central, \$22,000 on a valuation of \$2,200,000; Boston and Maine, \$18,000; valuation, \$1,800,000; and Portland, Saco and Portsmouth, \$12,000; valuation, \$1,200,000.

MANNING, AMOS REDUS, was born in the State of New Jersey in 1810; died September 17, 1880, at New York. In his early youth he removed from his native State to Alabama. His education was begun at the Green Acad-

emy, and at the end of his preparatory course he entered the University of Tennessee. Having graduated there, he studied law with Hon. A. F. Hopkins at Huntsville, and commenced his professional life at Linden in 1836, but subsequently removed to Demopolis, where he was associated at different times with Messrs. F. L. Lyon, D. C. Anderson, and William E. Clarke, in the practice of law. When his ability at the bar had won to him the popular interest, he was for a short time drawn into public life as a member of the Whig party. In 1845 he went to the lower House of the Legislature as a Representative from Marengo, and in 1847-'51 to the Senate from the district then composed of Wilcox and Marengo. In 1852 Judge Manning settled in Mobile in order to gain a large field for professional success. During the twenty-eight years that elapsed after that time, his fame as a lawyer occupied the public attention, and the professional firm of Manning & Walker was associated with the most serious and complicated litigation in the courts. In 1874 Judge Manning was elected to the Supreme Bench of the State, and in this high position acquitted himself in a manner worthy of his great professional experience, deep learning, exact scholarship, and spotless reputation. Patient, earnest, and profound, he was unruffled by prejudice or passion in the discharge of his judicial duties. Incessant labor, coupled with a painful disease, at length undermined a naturally strong constitution, and ended a distinguished life which the State he served is proud to hold in honored remembrance.

MANSFIELD, EDWARD DEERING, LL. D., was born at New Haven, Connecticut, in 1801. He was a son of Colonel Jared Mansfield, a mathematician and engineer, who was long a professor at West Point. Appointed Surveyor-General of the Northwest Territory by Jefferson in 1803, he removed to Marietta and Cincinnati. His son Edward was a student at the Episcopal Academy at Cheshire, until he was prepared in 1815 to enter West Point Military Academy. He graduated in 1819, fourth in his class-list. Instead of entering the army, he pursued a classical course at Princeton, graduating with honors in 1822. In 1825 he was admitted to the bar in Connecticut. He removed to Ohio, practicing in Cincinnati. In 1836 he accepted the professorship of constitutional law and history in Cincinnati College. Retiring from the practice of the law, he was editor of the "Cincinnati Chronicle" from 1836 until 1849; of the "Atlas" from 1849 to 1852; of the "Railroad Record," from 1854 to 1872. He was the correspondent of the "New York Times" under the well-known *nom de plume* of "A Veteran Observer." He was Commissioner of Statistics for Ohio from 1857 to 1867, and was an associate of the French "Société de Statistique Universelle." He wrote a "Treatise on Constitutional Law" (1835), "Political Gram-

mar" (1835), "The Legal Rights of Women" (1845), "The Life of General Winfield Scott" (1846), "The History of the Mexican War" (1848), "American Education" (1850), and "The Memoirs of Daniel Drake" (1853). He wrote many treatises on mathematics, politics, education, and the early history of Ohio. His most interesting production is a volume of "Personal Memories," published in 1879. These "Memories" extend to the year 1841, but it is understood that a second volume was in preparation. He received his degree of doctor of laws from Marietta College, Ohio, in 1854. He died at Morrow, Ohio, in the vicinity of Cincinnati, on October 27th, in the eightieth year of his age.

MARYLAND. The regular biennial session of the Legislature of Maryland began at Annapolis, on the 6th of January. On the 14th William T. Hamilton was inaugurated as Governor of the State for a term of four years. In his address on that occasion he said:

There will be upon the part of the Executive a most cordial coöperation with other departments of the government in promoting wise and unselfish legislation; in assuring fair, pure, and peaceful elections; in enforcing a rigid economy in all branches of the public service; in reducing taxation to the lowest point compatible with economical administration; in correcting all abuses, whether great or small, and wherever existing; in limiting official employment to the absolute necessities of the State, and in maintaining an elevated standard of official probity, capacity, and application, to the end that we and our children after us may continue to enjoy the blessings of free government; and, still further, that the just and well-founded expectations of the people may be realized.

A United States Senator was to be chosen, to succeed W. Pinckney Whyte. The Democratic members agreed upon Arthur P. Gorman as their candidate, and the Republicans decided to cast their votes for James A. Gary. The ballot was taken in the two Houses on the 20th of January, and resulted in 18 votes for Gorman, five for Gary, and one for S. Teackle Wallis, in the Senate, and 63 for Gorman and 19 for Gary, in the House. The election of Mr. Gorman was announced in joint session on the following day.

There appears to have been much interest excited on the subject of "reform legislation," and early in February the Governor submitted several propositions in a special message. Among these was the repeal of the laws requiring inspection of tobacco, and the weighing of hay and cattle, by public officers at designated places; the abolition of unnecessary offices, including those of the Tax-Commissioner, Insurance-Commissioner, and Commissioners of the Land-Offices; the reduction of salaries, and a general retrenchment of expenses. He also recommended an amendment of the Constitution which would enable the Governor to veto separate items in bills appropriating money. Other important propositions were a new registration law; an act regulating primary elections, strongly urged by the Governor in a special message; reorganization of the judiciary; a careful

revision of the tax laws, and a measure for the suppression of gambling. Antagonism developed between the Governor, as a promoter of "reform legislation," and some of the leaders of the dominant party in the Legislature, and the most important of the proposed measures were defeated. Among these were the bills providing for a registration of voters, regulating primary elections, abolishing public tobacco-inspection, reorganizing the judiciary, reorganizing the Board of Education and making its members elective, and several bills abolishing public offices and reducing salaries. Little of the legislation actually effected was of importance. Among the acts passed were two relating to taxation, one defining what property is subject to taxation and what is exempt, and the other taxing corporations on their capital stock; an insolvency act, amendments to the insurance law, providing for a tax on foreign companies; one providing for the election of judges of the courts in 1882; the anti-gambling bill; incorporation of three companies for the construction of the Maryland and Delaware Ship-Canal; and others providing for a new loan of \$3,000,000, to redeem the Maryland Defense Loan; reorganizing State Board of Health; enlarging the powers of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, to enable it to purchase and lease other roads, hold stock in dry-dock or other commercial and manufacturing enterprises, and be represented on the boards of directors; preventing the spread of infectious diseases among cattle; preventing cruelty to animals throughout the State; and abolishing the compulsory weighing of cattle.

The insolvency act makes provision for the settlement of bankrupt estates and the discharge of the bankrupt from liability on an equitable distribution of his assets.

Certain charges were made at a public meeting in Cumberland, in February, against Judge George A. Pearre, of the Fourth Judicial Circuit, which were made the basis of a memorial for his impeachment. The chief of these were taking pecuniary fees for legal advice or services, and sitting in judgment on cases in which he was personally interested. He made an explicit explanation, in a letter addressed to the people of the Fourth Circuit, and the special legislative committee to which the memorial for his impeachment was referred appears to have found no ground for taking action.

An investigation into the management of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company, of which Arthur P. Gorman was president, was begun but not completed during the session. The charges were:

1. The canal has been managed as a political machine, not in the interests of the Democratic party, but for the purpose of promoting the political and personal ends of its managers.
2. The funds of the canal company belonging to the bondholders have been expended improperly and illegally.
3. The officers of the company have failed to obey any of the orders of the stockholders that monthly

statements of receipts and expenditures be published in the newspapers of the canal counties.

The session came to a close on the 5th of April, being limited by law to ninety days.

The Republican State Convention for the choice of delegates to the National Convention of the party was held at Frederick on the 6th of May. There was a sharp division between those who favored James G. Blaine and those who preferred General U. S. Grant as the candidate for President. A conflict over the organization of the Convention resulted in favor of the Grant men, but a resolution was adopted by a vote of eighty-nine to fourteen, declaring the overwhelming sentiment of the Republicans of the State to be in favor of Mr. Blaine, and requesting the delegates to use all honorable means to secure his nomination. A resolution expressing unalterable opposition to the nomination of any person for a third term was tabled by a vote of eighty-one to twenty-seven. No platform was adopted.

The Democrats held their convention in Baltimore on the 9th of June. Delegates to the Cincinnati Convention were chosen, and candidates nominated for electors. A resolution in favor of the "two-thirds rule" was adopted, together with the following declaration of principles:

The Democratic Conservative party of Maryland, in State Convention assembled, declares that—

1. It firmly adheres to the principles which have guided and controlled the policy of the National Democratic party since the formation of the Federal Constitution.

2. It recalls to the recollection of the people of this State the events of the Presidential election in November, 1876. The decision of the people of certain of our sister States lawfully expressed at the ballot-box was reversed after the polls were closed, by fraudulent counts deliberately planned and executed. The Republican party, instead of repudiating this great wrong, kept the advantage thus unlawfully gained. Being in possession of the military power of the Government, it left to the great majority of the people of the United States, upon whom this wrong had been inflicted, no choice, except between civil war and such form of arbitration as the representatives of the Republican party in Congress might see proper to devise. These representatives, in providing a tribunal for such arbitration, so formed it and molded its proceedings as to secure by a partial judgment the fruits of an unlawful success. An offense was thus committed against a whole people, which ought never to be forgotten or condoned.

3. The Republican party, during its tenure of power, has used the public money and the public lands in fostering great monopolies. It has filled the public Treasury by means of tariffs intended to promote the advantage of particular manufacturers and communities, at the expense of the producing States. It has created a system of laws under which the national Executive may unduly and directly influence both Federal and State elections. It has increased the number of its officers until they form in every State an immense civil force, governed by and dependent upon its will; and it has used that force to promote its political designs. It has employed the Federal army as a means of increasing its political power. It has centralized the Government, and inaugurated an imperial system of expenditures. The people of the United States, brought more than once to the verge of bankruptcy by the legislation and policy of the Republican party, owe their returning prosperity only to the bless-

ings of God and to their own increased economy and untiring labor.

4. The Democratic Conservative party of this State, faithful to the supremacy of the Constitution of the United States, rests its construction of that instrument upon the express words of the tenth amendment, adopted in 1791: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people."

5. We declare our belief that the National Democratic Conservative party will maintain the equality of all citizens before the law, and uphold and enforce their constitutional rights; that it will check the present extravagance in the expenditure of the public money, and restore the practice of economy in all departments of the Government; that it will reform the injustice and inequality of existing tariffs, and again build up the commerce of the United States; that it will maintain, absolutely, the supremacy of the civil over the military power, and that it will check the progress of centralization, and keep the Executive and Congress within the limit of the powers confided to them by the Federal Constitution. We, therefore, commend the candidates whom it will nominate to the approval of the good people of this State.

6. This Convention, confiding in the good judgment of the delegates from the State of Maryland to the Democratic National Convention, gives them no instructions. It declares, however, its sense of the distinguished ability and services of Thomas Francis Bayard, of Delaware. His unblemished public and private character command the confidence and respect of the people of the United States.

There was no State election this year. The vote for Presidential electors was in the aggregate 172,221, of which 93,706 was for the Democratic, and 78,515 for the Republican candidates. The majority in favor of Hancock for President was therefore 15,191.

The tobacco merchants and exporters have united in requesting a more thorough inspection of repacked tobacco, and in petitioning the Legislature for a board of arbitration between buyers and sellers.

The population of the State of Maryland, as shown by the first official report of the United States Census Bureau for 1880, is 934,627, of which 462,003 is male and 472,624 female; 851,980 native, and 82,647 foreign; 724,714 white, and 209,913 colored. The following tables present the statistics by counties:

COUNTIES.	Total.	Male.	Female.
The State.....	934,627	462,003	472,624
Allegany.....	38,011	19,222	18,789
Anne Arundel.....	28,526	14,590	13,936
Baltimore.....	83,334	41,545	41,789
Baltimore City.....	892,190	457,361	434,829
Calvert.....	10,338	5,413	5,125
Carroll.....	13,767	6,933	6,834
Cecil.....	30,992	15,495	15,497
Cecil.....	27,108	13,782	13,326
Charles.....	18,548	9,386	9,162
Dorchester.....	23,110	11,715	11,395
Frederick.....	50,482	24,925	25,557
Garrett.....	12,175	6,212	5,963
Harford.....	28,042	14,189	13,853
Howard.....	16,141	8,234	7,907
Kent.....	17,605	9,055	8,550
Montgomery.....	24,759	12,790	12,059
Prince George's.....	26,265	13,500	12,765
Queen Anne's.....	19,257	10,090	9,167
St. Mary's.....	16,934	8,543	8,391
Somerset.....	21,668	11,148	10,520
Talbot.....	19,065	9,729	9,336
Washington.....	88,560	44,067	44,493
Wicomico.....	18,011	9,008	9,003
Worcester.....	19,539	9,858	9,681

NATIVITY AND COLOR.

COUNTIES.	Native.	Foreign.	White.	Colored.
The State	851,980	82,647	724,714	209,918
Allegany	31,023	6,388	36,450	1,531
Anne Arundel	27,697	829	14,647	18,879
Baltimore	73,463	9,566	72,773	10,561
Baltimore City	276,176	56,014	27,487	53,708
Calvert	10,505	33	4,542	5,696
Caroline	18,556	211	9,601	4,166
Carroll	30,078	914	28,708	2,284
Cecil	26,235	873	22,642	4,466
Charles	18,432	116	7,696	10,532
Dorchester	22,995	115	14,638	8,472
Fredrick	49,363	1,119	42,974	7,508
Garrett	11,389	786	12,068	112
Harford	26,707	1,335	21,338	6,649
Howard	18,263	878	11,749	4,398
Kent	17,322	258	10,898	7,207
Montgomery	24,390	869	15,608	9,151
Prince George's	2,707	588	13,950	12,315
Queen Anne's	19,012	245	12,065	7,192
St. Mary's	16,573	61	8,245	8,689
Somerset	21,627	41	13,031	8,687
Talbot	18,759	306	11,738	7,327
Washington	37,941	619	35,496	8,064
Wicomico	17,951	31	12,941	5,070
Worcester	19,451	58	12,555	6,984

Included in the colored population of the State are five Chinese, one Japanese, and eleven Indians.

The receipts of the State Treasury during the fiscal year ending September 30th were \$2,007,686.77; the expenditures, \$2,050,869. The balance on hand at the beginning of the year was \$556,208.99; at the close, \$513,026. The largest items in the tables of receipts were the following: Dividends on preferred stock Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, \$58,116.94; dividends on the Washington Branch Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, \$55,000, and interest on Baltimore and Ohio bonds, \$21,960; oyster-house licenses, \$107,154; licenses to traders, \$186,982; brokers' licenses, \$26,496; marriage licenses, \$26,668; oyster-dredgers' licenses, \$18,606; Northern Central Railway, \$90,000; bounty taxes, \$245,845; public-school tax, \$454,386; taxes on commissions of executors' bonds, \$81,831; on collateral inheritances, \$111,467; on gross receipts of railroad companies, \$59,836. The total amount of State taxes was \$840,628.53, of which the city of Baltimore paid \$395,605.41.

The Constitution of Maryland contains the following provision:

All civil officers appointed by the Governor and Senate shall be nominated to the Senate within fifty days from the commencement of each regular session of the Legislature, and their term of office, except in cases otherwise provided for in this Constitution, shall commence on the first Monday of May next ensuing their appointment, and continue for two years (unless removed from office), and until their successors, respectively, qualify according to law; but the term of office of inspectors of tobacco shall commence on the first Monday of March next ensuing their appointment.

The tobacco-inspectors appointed by the Governor in February were not confirmed by the Senate until April 5th, and then it was claimed by the incumbents of the offices that the appointment could not take effect until March, 1881. This view was upheld by the

Attorney-General, but in May the Superior Court granted a mandamus in favor of the new appointees. An appeal was taken, which has not yet been decided.

The one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the city of Baltimore was celebrated from the 10th to the 15th of October. On Sunday, the 10th, the demonstration partook of a religious character in the churches. On Monday there was a grand procession, made up largely of representations of trades and industrial interests. It was ten miles long, and occupied five hours in passing a given point. On Tuesday there was a parade of the Masonic order and of school-children, and a banquet of the Historical Society in the evening, with addresses and an ode. Wednesday was devoted to a military display, in which organizations from different portions of the country took part. On Thursday there was another parade, of which national societies and benevolent associations were a conspicuous feature. The site of Baltimore was first surveyed in the early part of 1730, authority for laying out the town having been granted by the Maryland Assembly the year previous. The original town occupied sixty acres, purchased of Charles and Daniel Carroll for forty shillings an acre. In 1750 it was a little village surrounded by a board fence, with two entrances. Jones's Town had been united with it in 1745, and in 1796, when it was incorporated as a city, Fell's Point was also included. The census of 1791 showed a population of 13,758, of whom 1,255 were slaves. It was a place of considerable commercial importance at the close of the last century. The present population is 332,191, and it ranks seventh among the cities of the country.

MASSACHUSETTS. The regular annual session of the Legislature of Massachusetts began on the 7th of January, and came to a close on the 24th of April, having occupied ninety-nine days in actual proceedings. The amendment to the Constitution proposed at the session of 1879, which provided for biennial elections and sessions of the Legislature, failed to receive the necessary two-thirds vote in the House of Representatives. The final vote on the motion to pass the resolution submitting it was 140 to 77. The question of biennial elections was then divided, and two separate amendments were proposed, one providing that the Governor and executive officers shall be elected for terms of two years, beginning with the election of 1882, and the other that members of the two branches of the Legislature shall be chosen biennially. These propositions will require the approval of the Legislature in 1881, before they can be submitted to a vote of the people, and they make no reference to the subject of legislative sessions. The amendment proposed in 1879, declaring that no Massachusetts soldier or sailor in the late war shall be disfranchised on account of being a pauper, was so modified as to remove the restriction

that made it apply only to those who served as citizens of the State, or in its quota of forces. This change made it a new proposition requiring the approval of another Legislature.

The subject of revising the laws of the State occupied considerable attention in the early part of the session, and finally the Governor was authorized to appoint three commissioners to perform the work. Their report must be made to the Governor not later than January 1, 1882, and by him submitted to the Legislature.

The question of regulating the traffic in intoxicating liquors occupied a good deal of attention, as usual. There were several propositions for the amendment of the law, but only two were adopted. One of these modified the "Civil Damage" act of 1879, so as to relieve from liability for damages the lessor of real estate occupied for the sale of liquors, when the occupant is licensed to carry on the business. The other change requires licenses to specify the room or rooms in which liquors are to be sold or kept, and prohibits their sale elsewhere on the premises, except in the case of innholders; authorizes the Licensing Board to close all entrances to the premises except those from the public street, and to remove any screen or obstruction that may interfere with a view of the interior; prohibits the sale of intoxicating liquors to any minor for the use of another person, or to any person known to have been intoxicated within six months; and declares that any beverage containing three per cent. of alcohol shall be deemed to be an intoxicating liquor.

There was considerable discussion upon matters pertaining to railroad and insurance companies, but the changes made in the laws were of little general importance. An act was passed intended to put an end to the rivalry of the Eastern and Boston and Maine Railroads, two competing lines between Boston and Portland, by authorizing them to make an arrangement, by contract or lease, for the joint operation of the two roads. Provision was made for an excise tax on life-insurance business of one half of one per cent. on a valuation equal to the aggregate net value of policies, on the 31st of December preceding the assessment, held by residents of the State.

Among the other acts of the session was one providing for the inspection of milk, regulating its sale and prohibiting adulteration under severe penalties; a stringent measure for the suppression of "tramps"; a special charter of the American Bell Telephone Company, which provoked much discussion; an incorporation of a new "Cape Cod Canal Company," to construct a ship-canal from Buzzard's Bay to Barnstable Bay through the town of Sandwich, in case the old "Cape Cod Ship-Canal Company" should fail to have paid into its Treasury \$400,000, and to have spent \$100,000 on work actually performed or materials used by the 1st of November, 1880; an act authorizing

the sale of a part of the Commonwealth lands or "flats" in South Boston to the New York and New England Railroad Company, to be used for depots, stations, warehouses, and other terminal appliances. An old law prohibiting smoking in the streets of Boston was repealed; persons not residents of the State were made eligible to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College. A law was also passed excusing pupils in the public schools from reading the Bible or any particular version of it when their parents or guardians had conscientious scruples against the exercise; and a memorial to Congress was adopted in favor of measures looking to a renewal of reciprocal trade between the United States and Canada.

The annual attempt to secure action in favor of woman suffrage suffered another defeat, and by an unusually large adverse vote. A bill to allow women to vote at town meetings, at which the question of granting licenses to sell liquor is acted upon, was also defeated. Among the other defeated measures was a stringent prohibitory law, an act to reduce the tax on the deposits in savings-banks, and one to prevent double taxation in certain cases.

The joint special committee appointed in 1879 to consider the subject of convict-labor, made a report comprising three hundred and forty-eight printed pages, the bulk of which was made up of testimony, statistical tables, etc. The points specially considered were:

1. The effect of said system upon the general industries of the State.
2. The effect of said system upon the interests of free labor.
3. The effect of this system upon the reformation of the convict.
4. What advantage, if any, the products of prison-labor have over other manufactures in the matter of profits and cheapness of labor.
5. The effect of any prison-contract upon the particular kind or kinds of goods mentioned in said contract.
6. The feasibility of abolishing the contract system and substituting therefor some other, whereby the profit shall not go to private contractors, but to the State.
7. Such other points not here enumerated as will give said committee full statistics and information upon the subject mentioned.

The committee was present by invitation at a conference of the Prison-Labor Commissioners of New Jersey and Connecticut, held at New Haven, Connecticut, October 9, 1879, at which the following propositions were unanimously adopted:

1. The general purpose of incarceration is the protection of society by the punishment of crime; and in carrying out this purpose the reformation of the prisoner should be constantly kept in view.
2. Partisan politics should be absolutely excluded from the management of penal and reformatory institutions.
3. The welfare of the State and the prisoner both demand that the latter should be employed in productive labor.
4. The right of the State to make its prisons self-supporting should be conceded; but it should not expect to make a profit out of the labor of its criminals.

at the expense of their reformation, or to the injury of the industrial classes.

5. The product of convict-labor, when compared with that of the entire mechanical industry of the nation, is insignificant; but its concentration upon a very few branches of industry may be seriously injurious to the citizens engaged in those branches.

6. The burden of the competition of convict-labor should be distributed as widely and equally as possible.

7. The injury to any branch of industry from prison-labor may be reduced to very small proportions by the greatest practicable diversity of employments in the prisons.

8. Where the contract system prevails, contracts for convict-labor should be so drawn as to give the State absolute control of the discipline of the prisoners, and the State should prescribe all rules governing contractors and their employees.

9. The proper diversity of employment in the prisons should be secured by limiting the number of convicts to be employed in any one industry; such limitation should be adequate to secure the industrial interests of the country from serious injury, and to afford the convict a reasonable certainty of employment upon his release.

The following resolution was also unanimously adopted by the committee, but was rejected by the New Jersey Commission, and had not been acted upon by the Commission of Connecticut at the time the report was prepared:

Resolved, Under existing circumstances, and while the reformation of the prisoner is made subordinate to the question of gain in our prison institutions, it is not expedient to abolish the contract system; but this system, during its continuance, should be so guarded and restricted by legislation as to protect the interest of the State, promote the moral and industrial condition of the convict, and interfere as little as possible with free labor.

The committee, after describing briefly the systems of discipline and reformation pursued in the Penitentiaries of New York and Pennsylvania, makes the following statement concerning Massachusetts:

In this Commonwealth, as in most, if not all, the States of the Union, the system of selling the labor of prisoners for a term of years to the highest bidder prevails in State and county institutions with but two or three exceptions, the most notable of these being the Houses of Correction at East Cambridge and New Bedford, the institutions at Deer Island, and the Reformatory School at Westborough. The House of Correction at South Boston is managed partly on the contract system and partly on a modified public-account system by which work is done under charge of prison instructors for outside parties. Those in charge of the management of our prisons have, doubtless, reasoned that self-sustaining labor is an established law of nature in civilized society; that it is as imperative upon the bond as upon the free; and that, further than this, no human being will be redeemed from criminal associations without the habit of patient and productive industry. The adoption of the contract system of handling this involuntary labor has grown out of the desire for the most economical administration of penal institutions, and the necessity for relieving prison-keepers of ordinary ability from attempting to manage large manufacturing industries about which they know nothing. In fact, the congregate system of prison management and the contract form of labor are usually found inseparable.

The usual method of selling the labor of convicts seems to be by inviting bids by public advertisement. The highest bidder, if a presumably responsible party,

obtains the labor for a term of years; furnishes his tools, machinery, and stocks, his foreman, instructors, and clerks; receives his convict-laborers in a shop provided by the prison; teaches the details of the industry during the hours prescribed by prison rules; and makes his wares and sells them in his own way. He looks to the warden for discipline and guards; the warden looks to him for the pay for labor furnished. The contractor and his agent are expected to observe the prison rules so far as applicable to them; and there is an implied obligation on the part of the prison authorities to maintain the discipline at such a point that work will go on with but little friction or interruption.

After discussing at length the advantages and disadvantages of the contract system, the committee came to the conclusion practically that the contract system should be continued, for the public-account system seems open to as many objections, and idleness is out of the question. It deplores the fact that so little real, earnest effort is made to save or redeem men from crime. It suggests, as the first step toward remedying the evils, the classification of prisoners, so that the influence of incorrigibles may not so powerfully militate against efforts to reform accidental criminals; the second step, the introduction of a greater number of industries into the prisons, and the abolition of the system of the subdivision of labor, so that each discharged man shall be fortified by the knowledge of a trade. In no other way can the convict be made more easily interested in his own improvement, and helped to become a better citizen. It may be urged that classification is impossible under the present system; but legislation can devise a new system, whereby the old prison at Charlestown may be used for incorrigibles, and the Concord Prison for first-offense men, or those in the opinion of the Court worthy of special effort for their salvation. In case the present system is to remain as the best the wisdom of the State can devise, there is one avenue open to convict-labor which is utilized but little, viz., the employment of short-term, weak, and crippled prisoners upon the soil.

The report concludes as follows:

In conclusion, your committee would submit that, under the present system, the prisons of the Commonwealth appear in the main well managed by those who try to do the best they can with the limited opportunities at their disposal; but, as a question of ultimate economy, they are impressed with the belief that the more complete and effective the reformatory process, the less likelihood there is of the return of a prisoner to his former habits; the broader and better the industrial system, the more hope there is of changing bad men into good men, and protecting society by the moral regeneration of those not positively vicious but prone to become offensive by the lack of wholesome, preventive agencies.

The Governor and Council, in pursuance of a resolve of the Legislature, made an investigation into the management and conduct of the officials of the State Prison at Concord, and at its close in August made a record of the results. Although there were some criticisms of the methods employed and of particular acts of the warden and his subordinates, the record

was on the whole favorable. After declaring the most serious charges against the prison officials to be unsustainable, the Governor and Council say:

Desirous to bring out every fault and to note every opportunity for improvement, and believing that the convict, though a violator of the law, should have the wisest and most humane treatment consistent with his punishment, and that attention can not too often be called to his condition and welfare, we also feel that it is high time that something were said for those who in the service of the State discharge the trying duties of the prison official. They stand between a great body of criminals on the one hand, fretting at confinement, and many of them of the most abandoned, malicious, and violent character, and on the other a critical and sensitive public. Most of these officials are under small pay. They are subject to temptation. Their patience is sorely tried. They are under the stress of constant vigilance. Their kindness is often rewarded by treachery and deceit, and they carry their lives in their hands. In most cases they do the best they can. No evidence reflected on their honesty and competency; and though, as above stated, sometimes under provocation lacking discretion, yet to accuse them of systematic or frequent barbarity and inhumanity is gross injustice. Whatever else be desirable, the discipline should not be relaxed. The warden is trying to do his duty. We do not intend to excuse a single error on his part, but the result of our investigation has dissipated many false and unjust impressions regarding him. It will be still more to his credit if he corrects, as he seems cordially ready to do, such faults as we have pointed out. We invoke, too, the good sense of the community in sustaining public officers who are charged with the heavy responsibility of the confinement, punishment, and discipline of those who violate the laws and endanger its safety, and who carry into the prison-walls the same elements of desperation, lawlessness, treachery, and violence which make so many of them when at large the terror of its peace.

The first political convention of the year was held at Worcester, on the 6th of March, by an organization styled the Young Republicans, though many of the delegates were by no means specially youthful. The general character and aims of the organization were indicated in the following resolutions:

We declare our adhesion to the principles of the Republican party. Especially do we urge the establishment of the public service on the basis of intelligence and good conduct; the maintenance of specie payments; the passage of laws depriving greenbacks of their legal-tender quality; the management by the States of their own affairs; the enforcement of all national laws, and the maintenance of equal rights throughout the country.

Earnestly desiring the success of the Republican party at the approaching Presidential election, we protest against the nomination of any candidate who is certain to lose the support of any important portion of the party. The decline of the Republican power from 1873 to 1875 showed plainly that the Republicans can not hope for success while supporting candidates who, in office, do not uphold the principles which the party has affirmed. It is our belief that to submit to such leadership is to invite disaster as well as to deserve it. Nor can the plea of necessity be urged to induce us to serve under those leaders, for there are many Republicans whose record is free from every taint of personal or political corruption, whose fidelity to the principles above declared is proved, and whose fitness for the highest office can not be questioned. We therefore strenuously oppose the nomination of Ulysses S. Grant or of James G. Blaine, since many

considerations will lead large portions of the Republican party to vote against either.

We will gladly support any man who, like President Hayes, has shown in words and acts that he is in sympathy with the principles declared by us, and whose personal character is pure and above suspicion.

We heartily approve the principles of the Independent Republican Committee of New York and of the National Independent Republican League of Philadelphia, and the Executive Committee are hereby instructed to correspond with those organizations with the view of joint action in the future, if desirable.

An effort was made to have the reference to Grant and Blaine stricken out, but without success.

A Republican Convention for the selection of delegates at large to the National Convention was held at Worcester, on the 15th of April. The delegates chosen were George F. Hoar, R. Codman, John E. Sandford, and Julius H. Seeley, and were understood to favor the nomination of George F. Edmunds, of Vermont, for President. The following platform was adopted:

1. We declare our steadfast adherence to the ideas and principles of government and policy which have made the Republican party distinctively the party of freedom and equal rights, of patriotic devotion to the Union, of progress and reform.

2. We believe in an honest currency, with every dollar equal in value to every other dollar, and in a financial system which shall sacredly guard the national faith and credit, and assure the continuance of specie payments; and we congratulate the Administration and the country upon the conspicuous success with which resumption has been accomplished, commercial confidence restored, and the public debt refunded and reduced under the able management of the present Secretary of the Treasury.

3. We believe in the inviolable sovereignty of the national Union as established by the Constitution over all the States and all the people, and in the duty of the national Government by wise laws, efficiently executed, to protect the ballot in all national elections, and to maintain and vindicate the constitutional right of all citizens of the United States, wherever and under whatever fiction of State sovereignty or other pretense such rights may be assailed.

4. We hold that free and honest elections are essential to the stability and success of government by the people, and that any attempt to thwart the will of the majority, whether by preventing the lawful exercise of the right of suffrage by fraud in casting or in counting votes, or by unseating, for partisan purposes, fairly-elected members of Congress or of State Legislatures, is a crime which will not be tolerated by a free people.

5. Grateful for what has been done during the Administration of President Hayes to improve the tone and methods of the civil service, we again invoke Congress to complete the work by necessary legislative enactments, in order that there may be adequate and permanent security against the misuse of the public service as a machinery of party organization and personal influence, and so that, in the language of a distinguished Senator, "the holders of office may feel that they are servants of law and not the personal tenants-at-will in their place of either heads of departments or of Congressmen."

6. We have one country and common interests as a nation. We deplore the existence of sectional strife and animosity, and of parties bounded by territorial lines. We earnestly desire that the resources of the South, as well as of the North and West, may be developed under just and harmonious policies by the united energies of our whole people. To this end

there must be an actual recognition of the equal rights of all by all. The privileges of citizenship must everywhere be respected. Results and settlement of past issues that have been reached at great cost and once accepted must not again be brought into question, and we hold that they who seek to reverse or set them aside, or to revive past controversies for political purposes, are unwise statesmen and dangerous political leaders, justly responsible for disturbing the peace and obstructing the welfare of the country.

7. The duty of all Republicans loyally to support the candidates of the party, and the duty of nominating conventions to present candidates who are acceptable to all Republicans, are reciprocal duties of equal force and obligation. Profoundly sensible of the importance of the impending election to the nation's safety, honor, and well-being, the Republicans of Massachusetts demand of the delegates to the National Convention that they use all proper efforts for the nomination of a candidate who, having the requisite qualities for the high office of President, will also have the confidence and approval of all who have hitherto acted with the Republican party; who will invite the support of other patriotic citizens desiring good government more than party success; whose nomination will be most expedient because most worthy and least objectionable, and whose triumphant election, to which we pledge our hearty and united efforts, will give assurance of the continuance of sound and beneficial policies of administration and of uninterrupted and growing national prosperity. While we do not instruct our delegates, we commend to their consideration, as a Republican statesman who possesses in an eminent degree such qualities and requisites for the nomination, the Honorable George F. Edmunds, of Vermont.

The district delegates were chosen at local conventions, and the Democratic delegates at large were designated by the Executive Committee of the party organization. On the 1st of September a Democratic Convention was held at Worcester for the purpose of nominating candidates for State officers and electors. The division in the party which had been occasioned by the action of General B. F. Butler, was healed by his public acceptance of the principles of the national organization, and the announcement that he would not contend this year for the position of Governor of the State. He made an address in the Convention defining his position and declining the use of his name as a candidate. Charles P. Thompson, of Gloucester, was placed at the head of the ticket, receiving 536 votes out of 1,026 on the first ballot, and being immediately after nominated unanimously. William Gaston, of Boston, received 448 votes on the first ballot. The remainder of the ticket was—for Lieutenant-Governor, Alpha E. Thompson, of Woburn; for Secretary of State, Michael T. Donohoe, of Somerville; for Treasurer, Francis J. Parker, of Newton; for Auditor, Charles R. Field, of Greenfield; for Attorney-General, P. A. Collins, of Boston. The platform adopted was as follows:

1. The delegates of the united Democracy of Massachusetts, now met in State Convention at Worcester, heartily endorse the declaration of principles and policy adopted by the Democratic National Council at Cincinnati in June last as a correct statement of the Democratic faith and doctrine as applied to the present condition of our public affairs, and we also endorse with complete satisfaction the distinguished

candidates nominated for the highest offices in the republic. We maintain that the Republican party, so called, is sectional and not national; that its persistent fanning of the embers of sectional strife weakens the sentiment of union and retards the prosperity of the country; that the people are longing for one country in reality as well as in name, no longer shared in North and South; and we condemn the utter abandonment in the present canvass, on the part of the Republican Presidential nominee and his party, of the sentiment and words of the former named, "The man who attempts to get up a political excitement in this country on the old sectional issues, will find himself without a party and without support." We believe that the election of the eminent and patriotic men, the candidates of our party, by the support of the people of all parts of the country, would be the end of sectional contention and the complete reconciliation of our countrymen to the union of our common ancestry.

2. We believe there are too many commissions in this State, and too little Executive and legislative control over them; too many sumptuary laws, too much special legislation, too many officials, too much legislative effort to restrict liberty and invent new crimes and misdemeanors, too many obsolete laws left on the statute-book; and we arraign the Republican party in all its cliques, that its legislation in this State is adverse to the progressive spirit of civil liberty, tends to the degradation of the citizen and to the creation of an official aristocracy with long tenures of office and without responsibility to the people.

3. We believe in manhood suffrage, and we demand the removal of the unreasonable restrictions now upon it in this Commonwealth. The municipal and district courts of the State should be permitted to exercise jurisdiction as Congress intended and provided over the naturalization of voters. We enter anew our protest against laws which render the right of man to vote dependent upon the payment of a paltry tax, which is often paid by other parties than the person taxed. The system is undemocratic and demoralizing, tends to a loss of self-respect in the party taxed and to a false expression of the unbiased will of the voter, and is a fruitful source of corruption and fraud; and we demand that all laws for the registration of voters and the conduct of elections should, in the language of Chief-Justice Shaw, "secure and facilitate the exercise of the right of suffrage in a prompt, orderly, and convenient manner;" and not, under the pretense and color of regulating, subvert or injuriously restrain the right itself.

4. The inefficient way in which the State administration has executed the laws regulating the hours of labor for employees merits our condemnation, and we demand the execution of these laws and of other laws for the protection of the lives and health of operatives.

5. The Republican party of this State has at two successive elections deceived the people by promises of a radical reform in the basis and methods of taxation, and we call upon the people to demand of their legislators a just and equal system of taxation.

6. We congratulate the Democratic party of the Commonwealth upon the honorable settlement of the differences recently existing within it, which has brought harmony to its councils and unity to its action, and we ask from the people their cordial and united support for the nominees of this Convention.

A resolution declaring against biennial elections and legislative sessions was voted down.

The Prohibitory party held a State Convention at Worcester on the 8th of September. Charles Almy, of New Bedford, was nominated for Governor; Timothy K. Earle, of Worcester, for Lieutenant-Governor; Solomon T. Root, of Dalton, for Secretary of State; Thomas J. Iothrop, of Taunton, for Treasurer; Jonathan Buck, of Harwich, for Auditor; and

Samuel M. Fairfield, of Malden, for Attorney-General. The following resolutions were adopted after considerable discussion :

Whereas, The law of God, as revealed in the Bible, never provides for the licensing of any wrong, but is a thoroughly prohibitory enactment throughout, with penalties for every violation ;

Therefore, be it resolved, as the sentiments of this Convention, that the traffic in alcoholic drinks is an infamous wrong against society, and a shameful dishonor to a Christian nation ; and as all history shows that every license law for the sale of such drinks, whether stringent, judicious, or otherwise, has always proved a failure, we affirm that our State and national Legislatures should legally require its entire suppression within their respective jurisdictions.

That as the prohibition of the importation, manufacture, and sale of alcoholic beverages transcends in importance every other question affecting our national prosperity, we declare our paramount object is to relieve the State and national Governments from all complicity with this wicked business, by electing men to office who will put the seal of their condemnation upon it.

That a party opposed to the prohibitory policy, or refusing to make it an issue in its platform, has no claim upon us for support. That with "malice toward none, but with charity for all," we are logically compelled to separate ourselves politically from those who are unwilling to grapple earnestly with this gigantic crime of crimes, the liquor traffic.

That, relying upon the Giver of all good for aid and strength, we will work on and work ever for the entire abolition of the drinking customs of society.

That the cowardly and vacillating course of the Legislature of 1880 upon the liquor question deserves and should receive the earnest condemnation of all Prohibitionists.

That we are pledged to the ballot for women by past declarations, by present convictions, and by the nature of our organization.

That we accept the platform of principles of the National Prohibition Reform party, adopted in Cleveland, Ohio, June 17, 1880, and commend to the suffrages of the voters of Massachusetts the candidates there nominated, viz., Hon. Neal Dow for President, and Rev. H. A. Thompson for Vice-President.

The Republican Convention was held at Worcester on the 15th of September. Its proceedings were very quiet and harmonious, and the existing State officers were renominated, with the exception of the Treasurer, whose term of office had reached the constitutional limitation. The candidates were John D. Long, of Hingham, for Governor; Byron Weston for Lieutenant-Governor; Henry B. Peirce for Secretary of State; Daniel A. Gleason for Treasurer; Charles R. Ladd for Auditor, and George Marston for Attorney-General. A long platform declaring the position of the party in the State was unanimously adopted. The following is the material part of the document :

We heartily desire that a cordial feeling of brotherhood and friendship should exist between the States and citizens of the Union. We are willing to make any concession save that of principle to accomplish such a result. We rejoice that the Southern States have, notwithstanding great disadvantages, made substantial progress in material wealth, and we hope that time will soon heal the wounds made by civil strife, and that the political rights of all the inhabitants of the South will, in the not remote future, be universally recognized and maintained. But we owe it to our self-respect, to the settled convictions of Massachusetts, to our obligations to the freedmen of

the nation, and to truth, unequivocally to declare that so long as the colored or any other citizens of the United States are prevented by intimidation or violence from exercising the great rights of free discussion and free suffrage, or are defrauded of the results of their ballots by false counting, so notorious that it is scarcely denied, our voices shall be heard in loud, constant, and indignant protest, and we will invoke the public opinion of the country and of mankind in condemnation of these atrocious acts not only upon their authors but also upon that political party which tolerates or condones them ; and we call upon the national Government, acting under the provisions of the Constitution and in the exercise of its inherent right of self-protection, to take all necessary means to insure a peaceful election for national Representatives, and to put forth all its power to maintain in such elections the right of all citizens of the United States to a free ballot and an honest count.

The resumption of specie payments, by which the national promises to pay are made equal in value to coin, and the great and satisfactory progress that has been made toward the extinguishment of the national debt, are results of Republican legislation and administration which have been effected in despite of the opposition of the Democratic party. It is therefore to the Republican party alone that the friends of a currency based upon the value of gold coin can look for a repeal or modification of the laws relating to the coinage of the silver dollar which derived their chief support from Democratic votes, and which were passed over the veto of a Republican President. And the Republicans of Massachusetts are of the opinion that the continued coinage of silver dollars of the present standard while the monetary relations of gold and silver remain substantially as they are now, will bring about the expulsion of gold from the country, and impose upon our commerce and industry the disadvantages of a currency depreciated in the markets of the world ; and that the coinage of these dollars, now going on at the rate of two millions a month, ought to be suspended until the relation between gold and silver as money has been uniformly established by the leading commercial countries. We have faith to believe that the Republican party of the country, as it is a party of progress that can profit by the lessons of experience, will, if intrusted with the power, remove by appropriate legislation the only serious obstacles that now exist to placing the currency of the country upon an absolutely sound and durable basis.

We take the occasion to express our satisfaction that the National Convention of the party declared in favor of legislation by Congress for the establishment of a system of appointments to the subordinate offices of the national Government, which, by providing for practical tests to determine the competency of applicants, will relieve the Executive, heads of departments, and members of Congress from the solicitations of persons seeking office for themselves or their friends, and will place the civil service upon a permanent basis of fitness and merit, and no longer upon that of partisanship. We believe that not only is it true that the nation needs and may justly claim the services of the ablest and the fittest, but that every loyal citizen should have the right fairly and freely to compete for the honor and advantage of holding official place ; that no appointments or removals should be made from favoritism or for the obtaining or holding of political power ; that public examinations, directed to subjects of knowledge essential to an efficient performance of official work, and an open competition of merit, should place all citizens upon a footing of absolute equality in presenting their claims for office, and that a tenure of office of reasonable permanency should protect faithful and competent officials from capricious and arbitrary dismissal.

We oppose as Republicans and good citizens the giving over of the Federal Administration to the Democratic party :

1. Because the great prosperity that the country

now enjoys will be jeopardized by ill-considered and sweeping changes in the tariff, and by the destruction of the national banking system which the Democratic leaders have proclaimed their determination to effect.

2. Because there is no hope of economical and efficient conduct of the public business from the party that originated the pernicious doctrine that "to the victors belong the spoils," which by its recent action in distributing the patronage of the two Houses of Congress, by expelling Union soldiers to give place to those who fought against the Union, has shown that it not only has no intention of abandoning that doctrine, but that it clings to it even to the point of defying the patriotic sentiments of the loyal people.

3. Because the advocates of inflation are chiefly members of the Democratic party, and many States under Democratic rule have scaled or repudiated their debts, a Democratic success in a national election would impair the public credit and depreciate the national securities.

4. Because the introduction of numerous bills in the present Congress by Democratic members gives reason to fear that if the Democratic party control the executive as well as the legislative department of the Government, legislation will be enacted for the exclusive benefit of States and individuals formerly in open rebellion.

5. Because the Democratic party, by countenancing the late attempt to usurp the government of Maine, by ignoring or condoning the criminal violence and fraud that has been practiced upon the colored men and other Republicans of the South, and by its half-executed threat to starve the Government when unable to control it, has demonstrated that in its desire to obtain power it is restrained by no principles, and that it has yet to learn the lessons of patriotism which were taught by the civil war; and can not, therefore, safely be trusted to maintain those great principles of justice and of freedom, to vindicate which this nation has been lavish of its money and of its blood.

The Greenback party held a Convention at Worcester on the 22d of September, and nominated General Horace Binney Sargent, of Boston, for Governor. The rest of the State ticket was as follows: For Lieutenant-Governor, George Dutton, of Springfield; Secretary of State, Jonathan Arnold, of North Abington; Treasurer, Wilbur F. Whitney, of Ashburnham; Auditor, Charles T. Warner, of Northampton; Attorney-General, John M. Raymond, of Salem.

The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That we affirm the Chicago platform of June 9, 1880, and pledge our undivided support to the candidates there nominated.

Resolved, That as business prosperity depends upon stability in the value of money, and stability in the value of money depends upon stability in the volume thereof, the control of the volume of money is all-powerful over the industries of a nation, and if trusted to corporate greed can be used to the impoverishment of the people and the enrichment of the issuer: therefore we demand the substitution of full legal-tender greenback for national-bank notes, and that the national Government only issue the money of the people and control its volume.

Resolved, That the burden of interest is no more desirable for a nation than for an individual, and that common prudence dictates the speedy payment of public as well as private debts; and we deprecate the action of the Secretary of the Treasury in buying bonds at a premium when they might be paid at their face, and demand that the bonds falling due this year and next be not refunded, but be paid off as far as possible with the cash now on hand, and by the substitution of greenbacks for national-bank notes.

Resolved, That giving to corporations the power to

use the national debt as a basis for the issue of money with the privilege of receiving back nine tenths of the capital invested for use, thus enabling them to draw interest on one hundred and ninety thousand while the owners of only one hundred thousand, thus giving them an enormous gratuity, interesting them in the payment of the debt, the payment of which would deprive them of this enormous but unjust profit, and through the issuing of the money the power to impoverish the people and prevent its payment, tends to the subjugation of the people and the destruction of republican institutions, and needs but to be understood by the people to be for ever abolished.

Resolved, That the soldiers should receive as good a dollar as the bondholder. The soldier received thirty-eight cents where one dollar was promised, and the bond-receivers one dollar for forty cents loaned. Honest equity and national honor demand that justice be done to brave men who defended their country with their lives, and we condemn the legislation which gives the bondholder more than was promised, and fails to recognize the just claims of the soldier.

Resolved, That the hours of labor should be shortened, and the employment of young children in exhausting factory-labor be prevented; that labor-saving machinery is a boon of God to the sons and daughters of toil rather than an engine of torture to wring out larger profits for capital by bringing the laborer into heart-breaking competition with the muscles that never tire. The vast powers of nature are not harnessed by invention to secure even six per cent. dividends, but to relieve human slaves; not hours of toil, but the product of this new partnership of man with natural forces, should be the ruling compensation, and demand a new system of dividing the profits of capital and labor. We demand the rigid enforcement of the ten-hour law, now on the statutes of this Commonwealth relating to the employment of women and children, and we insist that the grasping corporation which filches an hour's labor from a thousand operatives deserves the same proportionate punishment meted out to lesser offenders.

Resolved, That we favor a graduated income-tax, that being the only method of forcing capital to share with labor the burden of taxation.

Resolved, That we are opposed to an increase of the standing army in the time of peace, and to the insidious military power under the guise of the "general militia law."

Resolved, That the right of suffrage is the inalienable right of all persons, without money or price.

Resolved, That we oppose the granting of our public lands to railroads or other corporations, or the sale of the same to speculators, and demand that they be retained for actual settlers. We also demand that the laborers of our overcrowded cities be afforded governmental aid to settle on said lands instead of granting subsidies to wealthy institutions. Land, light, air, and water, are the free gifts of Nature to all mankind, and any law or custom of society that allows any person to monopolize more of these gifts than he has the right, to the detriment of the rights of others, we earnestly condemn and seek to abolish.

The total number of votes cast for Presidential electors on the 2d of November was 282,512, of which 165,205 were for the Republican, and 111,960 for the Democratic ticket; 4,548 were cast for the Greenback candidates, 682 for those of the Prohibitory party, and 117 were returned as "scattering." The Republican plurality over the Democratic vote was 53,245; majority over all others, 47,898. The total vote for Governor was 282,216, of which 164,825 were for Long, 111,410 for Thompson, 4,864 for Sargent, 1,059 for Almy, and 58 "scattering." Long's plurality over Thompson was 53,415; his majority over all, 47,484.

Republicans were elected to Congress from all the eleven districts except the fourth, where Leopold Morse, Democrat, was reelected by a plurality of only 115 over F. B. Hayes, Republican, 222 Democratic votes being cast for William Gaston, and 142 votes for other candidates. The Governor's Council in 1880 consisted of six Republicans, one Democrat, and one Greenbacker; that elected for 1881 consists of seven Republicans and one Democrat.

The Legislature of 1880 consisted of thirty-two Republicans, five Democrats, and three Independents in the Senate, and one hundred and seventy-five Republicans, forty-seven Democrats, twelve Independents, and five Greenbackers in the House. That chosen for 1881 consists of thirty-five Republicans and five Democrats in the Senate, and one hundred and ninety-one Republicans, forty-seven Democrats, and two Greenbackers in the House.

JOHN DAVIS LONG, elected a second time Governor of Massachusetts, was born at Buckfield, Maine, October 27, 1838. He enjoyed the best advantages for education in his boyhood, and entered Harvard College before he was fifteen years of age, graduating in 1857. He stood high in his class, and was chosen class-poet by his fellow-members. After graduating he accepted the position of Principal of Westford Academy, which he held for two years. He then entered the Law School at Cambridge, and subsequently studied in the offices of Peleg W. Chandler and Sidney Bartlett, in Boston, being admitted to practice in 1861. He began practice in his native town, but shortly returned to Boston, where he formed a partnership with Stillman B. Allen, which was continued until he became Governor of the State. He has resided in the town of Hingham, and his first public service was as Representative of the first Plymouth district in the Legislature of 1875. He was Speaker of the House during the sessions of 1876 to 1878 inclusive, and was chosen Lieutenant-Governor in 1878, and Governor in 1879 and 1880, and was a prominent candidate before the Legislature of 1881 for the position of United States Senator. Aside from his exceptionally early and rapid legal and political success, he has appeared creditably in the field of literature as author of a translation of Virgil's "Æneid."

The two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the city of Boston was celebrated with a brilliant parade, and literary and festive exercises, on the 17th of September. Cambridge had a similar celebration on a smaller scale on the 28th of December.

The financial condition of the State is very favorable. The funded debt on January 1, 1881, was \$32,799,464, showing a decrease of \$221,000 during the year. It is classified as follows:

Railroad loans	\$17,738,996
War loans	10,468,188
Public buildings, etc.	4,592,280
Total	\$32,799,464

The maturity of the remaining portions of the debt is shown in the following table:

1883.....	\$1,088,000	1894.....	\$10,921,244
1888.....	3,061,300	1895.....	4,840,260
1889.....	3,142,128	1896.....	1,100,000
1890.....	503,468	1897.....	520,600
1891.....	3,815,040	1900.....	3,599,024
1893.....	209,000		

The aggregate of the several sinking funds amounted on January 1, 1881, to	\$12,990,812 59
Amount of the same January 1, 1880.....	12,285,248 23

Showing an increase of..... \$755,564 80

The operations of the Treasury for the year are shown in the following statement:

Cash in the Treasury January 1, 1880..... \$1,383,783 13

RECEIPTS.

On account of revenue.....	\$7,691,141 60
On account of funds.....	4,832,742 12
	\$12,163,883 72

Total..... \$13,497,616 85

PAYMENTS.

From revenue.....	\$6,992,451 61
From funds.....	3,822,362 19
	\$10,314,813 80

Total cash on hand January 1, 1881..... \$3,182,803 05

The expenses of 1880, compared with those of 1879, show the following aggregates:

	1880.	1879.
Ordinary expenses	\$1,565,899 50	\$1,562,712 98
Exceptional expenses.....	4,520,974 15	4,040,687 66
Total.....	\$6,086,873 65	\$5,603,400 64

The valuation of property in the State for the year beginning May 1st, not including corporation and savings-bank investments, was \$1,584,756,802, a gain of \$55,235,788 over that of 1879. Of the total, \$659,462,495 belonged to the city of Boston, an increase for the year of \$26,139,803. The rate of taxation in the different cities and towns varies from \$4 to \$33 per \$1,000 of valuation. The aggregate valuation for purposes of taxation of the capital stock of corporations was \$251,565,377, a gain for the year of \$36,936,313. The amount of taxes derived from this source was \$430,994.13. The aggregate net value of life-insurance policies on the 31st of December, 1879, on which the new tax of one half of one per cent. was to be imposed was \$349,488,935. One result of the year's experience in imposing this tax is a recommendation of the Tax Commissioners that it be reduced to one fourth of one per cent.

On the 30th of October there were one hundred and sixty-four savings-banks in operation. The total amount of their deposits was \$218,047,922.37, an increase of \$11,669,212.08 during the year preceding that date. The surplus amounted to \$4,758,194.88, an increase of \$456,419.99; the guarantee fund was \$2,670,152.85, or \$599,103.23 more than the previous year. The number of open accounts was 706,395, an increase for the year of 30,840, making the average of the account \$308.68, or \$3.18 more than the year before. The amount

of the deposits received during the year was \$42,751,557.43, which was \$14,264,753.46 more than in 1879, and the amount withdrawn was \$34,403,428.23, or \$2,322,901.02 more than in 1879. The number of deposits made during the year was 532,594, an increase of 154,333, and the average amount of each was \$80.27, an increase of \$4.96.

The aggregate interest-bearing debt of all the cities and towns of the State on the 1st of May was \$88,656,058, from which there is an offset of \$18,204,610 in sinking funds. Thirty-eight per cent. of the net debt of municipalities is for water-supply.

The population of the State, as shown by the Federal census, is as follows by counties:

STATE AND COUNTIES.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Native.	Foreign.	White.	Colored.*
The State	1,783,086	858,521	924,565	1,339,970	443,116	1,764,082	19,004
Barnstable.....	31,945	15,534	16,411	29,732	2,213	31,433	512
Berkshire	69,049	33,741	35,308	54,834	14,215	67,728	1,321
Bristol.....	139,121	66,845	72,276	98,812	40,309	136,949	2,172
Dukes.....	4,305	2,103	2,202	4,104	201	3,970	335
Essex.....	244,610	116,512	127,828	188,090	56,610	243,251	1,359
Franklin.....	36,000	18,583	17,417	30,895	5,105	35,929	71
Hampden.....	104,117	49,689	54,428	74,550	29,567	103,041	1,076
Hampshire.....	47,235	22,677	24,558	37,663	9,572	46,935	300
Middlesex.....	317,951	151,645	166,306	234,665	83,286	315,276	2,675
Nantucket.....	3,726	1,641	2,085	3,535	191	3,657	69
Norfolk.....	96,462	46,295	50,167	76,316	20,146	95,875	587
Plymouth.....	74,024	36,585	37,139	66,051	7,973	73,462	562
Suffolk.....	357,626	183,945	203,681	267,618	120,008	381,134	6,492
Worcester.....	226,885	112,126	114,759	173,135	53,750	225,442	1,443

The population of the cities of the State is as follows: Boston, 362,535; Lowell, 59,485; Worcester, 58,295; Cambridge, 52,740; Fall River, 49,006; Lawrence, 39,178; Lynn, 38,284; Springfield, 33,340; Salem, 27,598; New Bedford, 26,875; Somerville, 24,985; Holyoke, 18,551; Chelsea, 21,785; Taunton, 21,213; Gloucester, 19,329; Haverhill, 18,475; Newton, 16,995; Newburyport, 13,537; Fitchburg, 12,405. The following unincorporated towns have over 10,000 inhabitants: Brockton, 13,608; Pittsfield, 13,367; Northampton, 12,172; Malden, 12,017; Waltham, 11,711; Chicopee, 11,325; Attleborough, 11,111; Woburn, 10,938; Weymouth, 10,571; Quincy, 10,529; North Adams, 10,192; Marlborough, 10,126.

The number of public schools reported by the Board of Education was 5,570; number of teachers, 8,595; number of different pupils, 306,777; average attendance, 233,127. This includes 215 high-schools, with 494 teachers and 18,758 pupils. There were also reported 73 academies, with 10,398 students; and 350 private and parochial schools, with 15,891 pupils. Besides these, there were 116 evening-schools, with an average attendance of 4,503. The average length of day-schools was eight months and seventeen days. The amount raised by taxation and expended upon public schools, exclusive of expenditures upon schoolhouses, was \$4,732,286.06. There was expended upon the same schools \$173,859.17 not raised by taxation. The amount expended upon school-

buildings was \$610,585.89. There are six normal schools for the training of teachers, and a normal art-school, which belong to the State system of education.

The number of persons in the penal institutions of the State, including those of counties, was 3,821 on the 30th of September. The number of commitments on sentences during the year that preceded was 17,053, of which 10,434 were for drunkenness.

There were thirty-one and one fourth miles added to the railroad system of the State during the year ending September 30th. The thirty-four corporations making returns to the Railroad Commissioners owned 2,667,352 miles of main line and branches, of which 651,480 were provided with double track. The total length of sidings was 938,947 miles, and the aggregate of track, considering double track and sidings as so much additional length, was 4,257,779 miles, an increase of 107,793 for the year. Of the whole amount, 1,893,080 miles of main line, 454,792 of double track, 696,693 of sidings, or 3,044,655 miles in all, were within the limits of the State. The average cost of construction and equipments for standard gauge roads is \$63,671.70 per mile. The aggregate of capital stock of all the companies was \$118,758,871.58, and the net debt \$59,172,520.25. The total gross income was \$35,140,374.77, an increase for the year of \$4,827,410.25, or more than fifteen per cent. The total expenses were \$23,948,559.24, an increase of \$3,789,608.56; net income, \$11,191,815.53, or \$1,037,801.67 more than in 1879. The number of passengers carried was 45,151,152, an increase of 5,933,518; tons of freight, 17,221,567, an increase of 2,819,690. The amount distributed in dividends was \$5,987,718.64. Twelve companies, with \$5,229,000 permanent investment, had no net income; fifteen companies, with \$34,790,000 investment, had an income of 3½ per cent. or less; eleven com-

* Including, in the State, 237 Chinese, 8 Japanese, 841 Indians, and 11 East Indians; in Barnstable County, 2 Chinese and 100 Indians; in Berkshire County, 19 Chinese and 1 Japanese; in Bristol County, 2 Chinese and 84 Indians; in Dukes County, 67 Indians; in Essex County, 16 Chinese, 7 Indians, and 11 East Indians; in Franklin County, 1 Japanese and 1 Indian; in Hampden County, 16 Chinese, 1 Japanese, and 4 Indians; in Hampshire County, 20 Chinese, 1 Japanese, and 1 Indian; in Middlesex County, 25 Chinese, 1 Japanese, and 10 Indians; in Norfolk County, 17 Indians; in Plymouth County, 41 Indians; in Suffolk County, 135 Chinese, 3 Japanese, and 21 Indians; in Worcester County, 2 Chinese and 38 Indians.

panies, with \$12,590,000 investment, had a net income from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; eleven companies, with \$22,216,000 invested, had $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; eight companies, with \$67,965,000 of investment, had from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of net income; and five companies, with a permanent investment of \$37,299,000, had a net income of $9\frac{1}{2}$ to $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The total expenses of the Hoosac Tunnel and Troy and Greenfield Railroad for the year were \$986,257.23, of which \$709,627.78 was for interest. The receipts from earnings were \$239,295.69; from rents, etc., \$28,699.17; total, \$267,994.86, leaving the net outlay \$718,262.37. The total cost of the tunnel to the State at the end of the year had been \$20,241,842.31. A contract has been made with the Fitchburg Railroad for a period of seven years from September 30, 1880, to operate the tunnel and connecting road at a compensation which shall be the actual expense of such operation. Similar contracts have been made with the Boston, Hoosac Tunnel and Western Railroad, the New Haven and Northampton, and the Troy and Boston. The Troy and Greenfield Railroad Company is still in existence, and claims the right to redeem the whole property from the State. The claim appears not to be denied, but the terms on which redemption can be made are in dispute.

MCCLELLAND, Hon. ROBERT, ex-Secretary of the Interior, was born at Greencastle, Pennsylvania, in 1807. Through sudden reverses in his family, he was thrown upon his own resources at the age of seventeen. In order to pursue his course at Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pennsylvania, where he graduated in 1829, he supported himself by teaching school. He was admitted to the bar at Chambersburg in 1831. After residing a year at Pittsburg, he removed in 1833 to the Territory of Michigan. He practiced law at Monroe, and rose with the country. Governor Mason offered him the attorney-generalship, which he declined. In 1840 he was elected to the State Legislature. In 1843 he was made Speaker. In that same year he was elected to Congress, where he soon earned a national reputation. He was one of eighteen Democrats who joined with David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, in passing the famous "Wilmot Proviso," which abridged the further extension of slavery into the Territories of the United States. He was a member of the Democratic Nominating Convention of 1852. He took a zealous part in the campaign which resulted in the defeat of General Scott and the election of Mr. Pierce. He had been provisional Governor of Michigan in 1851, and in 1852 he was reelected for a term of four years. Leaving the Treasury full, and the State in prosperous condition, he resigned in 1853 in order to accept the position tendered him in the Cabinet of Mr. Pierce, of Secretary of the Interior. This office he filled with honor to himself and credit to the country, during the four years of Mr. Pierce's Ad-

ministration. He returned to Michigan, and was drawn from his retirement to become a delegate to the Convention of 1867, which revised the Constitution of the State. Mr. McClelland died August 27th, at his home in Detroit, Michigan.

METHODISTS. The "Methodist Year-Book for 1881" gives the following estimates:

CHURCHES.	Itinerant ministers.	Local preachers.	Lay members.
Methodists in churches in United States.....	24,304	26,875	2,485,999
Methodists in churches in Dominion of Canada.....	1,682	4,323	163,611
Methodists in churches in Great Britain and missions.....	5,089	48,691	948,038
Methodists in churches in affiliating conferences.....	706	5,571	96,327
Total Methodists in 1880....	31,731	85,460	4,608,990

The Methodist population of the world is estimated at 23,455,655.

I. METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.—The following table shows its growth by decades:

YEARS.	Lay members.	Gain during decade.	YEARS.	Lay members.	Gain during decade.
1777....	6,968	1837....	658,574	276,577
1787....	25,842	18,874	1847....	636,471	22,103,108
1797....	58,863	33,021	1857....	820,519	184,618
1807....	144,590	85,727	1867....	1,146,081	325,562
1817....	224,553	80,263	1877....	1,671,605	521,527
1827....	381,997	157,144

The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church for 1880:

SPRING CONFERENCES.	Travelling preachers.	Members.	Probationers.
Arkansas.....	40	3,437	491
Baltimore.....	201	83,744	4,268
Central Pennsylvania.....	216	89,159	4,884
East German.....	42	3,386	563
East Maine.....	114	9,616	2,926
Florida.....	40	2,448	672
Kansas.....	168	15,511	2,959
Kentucky.....	96	17,002	3,818
Lexington.....	94	6,109	834
Liberia.....	17	1,962	806
Little Rock.....	24	1,362	390
Louisiana.....	76	9,548	1,978
Maine.....	181	11,337	1,804
Mississippi.....	99	23,029	3,222
Missouri.....	123	16,739	2,944
Newark.....	207	34,449	3,541
New England.....	250	28,286	2,581
New Hampshire.....	186	12,673	1,192
New Jersey.....	182	34,200	5,338
New York.....	280	44,475	5,012
New York East.....	262	41,074	8,719
North Carolina.....	25	6,149	863
Northern New York.....	219	24,478	3,545
North India.....	87	1,532	1,115
North Indiana.....	183	29,808	5,455
North Indiana.....	251	43,816	2,959
Philadelphia.....	180	20,880	2,176
Providence.....	127	14,171	2,244
St. Louis.....	92	27,044	6,299
South Carolina.....	15	2,563	333
Southern Central.....	40	1,363	599
South India.....	162	17,138	3,428
South Kansas.....	277	34,673	3,888
Troy.....	186	11,967	1,709
Vermont.....	47	6,186	1,316
Virginia.....	127	26,498	3,049
Washington.....	180	26,734	8,885
Wilmington.....	226	27,519	4,001
Wyoming.....
Total.....	5,087	707,415	102,856

FALL CONFERENCES AND MISSIONS.	Traveling preachers.	Members.	Probationers.
Alabama.....	83	4,740	510
Austin.....	29	923	168
California.....	135	7,544	771
Central Alabama.....	43	6,156	681
Central German.....	123	11,215	1,075
Central Illinois.....	216	23,097	1,270
Central New York.....	243	30,614	2,581
Central Ohio.....	152	24,554	1,775
Central Tennessee.....	55	5,070	818
Chicago German.....	67	5,389	869
Cincinnati.....	196	85,690	2,059
Colorado.....	58	2,953	365
Columbia River.....	88	2,169	709
Delaware.....	74	13,986	1,392
Des Moines.....	170	21,148	1,234
Detroit.....	254	24,398	1,911
East Ohio.....	251	42,250	1,883
East Tennessee.....	24	2,491	263
Eric.....	192	28,220	2,297
Genesee.....	266	23,380	2,269
Georgia.....	85	2,670	315
Germany and Switzerland.....	94	9,444	2,377
Holston.....	80	18,242	2,215
Illinois.....	269	87,736	1,983
Indiana.....	189	30,162	2,388
Iowa.....	133	18,523	823
Kentucky.....	89	16,017	2,422
Michigan.....	261	28,879	2,602
Minnesota.....	161	13,211	1,479
Nebraska.....	125	9,511	872
Nevada.....	20	853	141
North Ohio.....	165	23,773	1,191
Northwest German.....	86	5,515	1,043
Northwest Indiana.....	143	23,327	1,385
Northwest Iowa.....	77	5,902	754
Northwest Norwegian.....	33	2,366	274
Northwest Swedish.....	43	4,571	557
Norway.....	32	2,583	409
Ohio.....	201	41,983	2,739
Oregon.....	65	8,966	659
Pittsburg.....	169	82,058	1,236
Rock River.....	239	25,243	1,417
St. Louis German.....	103	7,908	626
Savannah.....	83	11,092	3,019
Southeast Indiana.....	126	24,724	1,249
Southern California.....	35	1,630	301
Southern German.....	81	1,251	159
Southern Illinois.....	145	24,616	2,600
South India.....	41	1,335	686
Sweden.....	52	5,988	1,386
Tennessee.....	50	5,673	951
Texas.....	104	9,052	2,000
Upper Iowa.....	202	20,690	1,349
West German.....	47	8,193	875
West Texas.....	71	5,798	839
West Virginia.....	155	30,892	2,438
West Wisconsin.....	145	11,544	906
Wisconsin.....	172	12,456	938
MISSIONS.			
Arizona.....	7	57	5
Black Hills.....	5	95	5
Bulgaria.....	9	23	18
Central China.....	5	52	58
Dakota.....	11	1,299	90
Denmark.....	8	629	110
Italy.....	16	480	379
Japan.....	30	478	160
Mexico.....	13	337	398
Montana.....	7	298	40
New Mexico.....	15	319	45
North China.....	11	162	115
South America.....	3	236	259
Utah.....	9	142	26
West Nebraska.....	10	1,309	...
Total.....	7,009	856,690	75,961
Spring Conferences.....	5,087	707,415	102,856
Fall Conferences.....	7,009	856,690	75,961
Grand total.....	12,096	1,564,105	178,817

Whole number of members and probationers, 1,742,922, showing an increase of 42,620 over the number returned in 1879; number of

local preachers, 12,555. Number of Sunday-schools, 21,093, with 222,379 officers and teachers, and 1,602,334 scholars; number of baptisms during the year, 58,535 of children and 59,330 of adults; number of churches, 17,561, valued at \$64,131,306; number of parsonages, 5,844, valued at \$8,750,513. Of the traveling preachers, 1,152 are returned as "on trial," 8,719 as in full connection, 752 as "supernumerary," and 1,314 as "superannuated."

The total sales of the Book Concern at New York and Cincinnati, for the year 1879-'80, amounted to \$1,465,522 in value. The Concern at New York issued during the year 585,835 volumes of books, and 1,052,500 pages of tracts. Twenty periodicals are published under the authority of the General Conference, and fifty-three other periodicals are published in the interest of the Church.

The educational institutions under the direct supervision of the Church comprise eleven theological seminaries and institutes, forty-four colleges and universities, and about one hundred and thirty seminaries and women's schools, which give instruction to about 21,000 students, and have property valued at \$11,560,000.

The annual meeting of the *General Missionary Committee* of the Methodist Episcopal Church was held in the city of New York, beginning November 3d. The principal duties of the committee were to examine the reports of the condition of the missionary funds, to determine the amount that would be required for the support of the domestic, foreign, and other missions during the ensuing year, to fix the amount that should be contributed by each conference and mission-field toward this sum, and to decide upon the amount to be appropriated to each mission-field. The Treasurer reported that the total receipts of the Society from November 1, 1879, to October 31, 1880, had been \$557,371 against \$551,859 received in the previous year, and that the liabilities of the Society had been increased by \$49,113, its total indebtedness now being \$112,150. About \$105,000 had been spent upon missions during the past year more than were spent on the same missions during the previous year.

Appropriations were made for the work on the various mission-fields as follows:

I. FOREIGN MISSIONS:

Africa (including Liberia and work in the interior).....	\$9,000
South America (Buenos Ayres and Montevideo, etc.).....	11,517
China.....	58,359
Germany and Switzerland.....	24,000
Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden).....	43,953
India.....	62,927
Bulgaria and Turkey.....	12,854
Italy.....	23,000
Mexico.....	27,564
Japan.....	80,000

Total for foreign missions..... \$299,174

II. MISSIONS IN THE UNITED STATES NOT IN ANNUAL CONFERENCES (in the Territories and among Indians).....

40,700

Brought forward.....	\$389,874
III. DOMESTIC MISSIONS:	
Welsh.....	150
Scandinavian.....	17,600
German.....	41,700
Chinese.....	14,160
American Indian.....	8,550
English-speaking.....	170,850
IV. Miscellaneous appropriations.....	78,000
For the liquidation of the debt.....	112,150
Total.....	\$778,034

The statistics of the missions for 1880 were: *Foreign missions:* Number of foreign missionaries, 97; of assistant missionaries, 63; of foreign missionaries of the Woman's Foreign Missionary Society, 30; of native workers of the Woman's Foreign Missionary Society, 188; of native ordained, unordained, and local preachers, 686; of teachers and other helpers, 536; of members, 26,702; of probationers, 8,807; average attendance on Sunday worship, 26,283; number of baptisms, 725 of adults, and 1,609 of children; number of day-schools, 316, with 10,282 scholars; number of Sunday-schools, 929, with 44,627 scholars; number of orphans, 576; amount collected for benevolent societies, \$11,376; for the Missionary Society, \$5,236; for self-support, \$134,226. The missions returned 264 churches, valued at \$1,121,748; 701 other places of worship, 190 parsonages or homes, valued at \$316,287, and other property of the value of \$156,967.—*Domestic Missions:* Number of missionaries, 2,246; of local preachers, 292; of members, 24,154; of probationers, 3,418; of baptisms, 62 of adults, 200 of children; of Sunday-schools, 577, with 26,935 scholars; of churches, 70; amount of collections for the Missionary Society, \$15,173.

The *General Conference* of the Methodist Episcopal Church met at Cincinnati, Ohio, May 1st. The quadrennial report of the bishops reviewed the history and the progress of the Church and its various societies during the preceding four years, and gave accounts of the visits which the bishops had made to the foreign conferences and missions in Germany and Switzerland, Sweden and Norway, where annual conferences were organized; Denmark, Bulgaria, India, Italy, Japan, China, and Mexico. The visitation of the missions in South America, which had been contemplated, was prevented by the death of some of the bishops, and other causes. A committee which had been appointed by the preceding General Conference to consider the subject of lay delegation in the annual conferences, made a report recommending that lay delegates be chosen from the presiding elders' districts in the ratio of one delegate for every six quarterly conferences; that the lay delegates and ministers sit and deliberate together in the annual conferences in one body; and that the lay delegates have power to speak on all questions coming before the conferences, and to vote on all questions except those affecting the character and relations of traveling elders, and the election of ministerial delegates to the General Conference.

The subject was not definitely acted upon by the Conference. The commission which had been appointed by the previous General Conference to arrange for a basis of fraternal relations with the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, made a report of the conference which had been held at Cape May, New Jersey, in August, 1876, and transmitted the terms which had been arranged there for fraternal recognition and for the adjustment of disputes concerning property. The binding force of the agreement made by the commission upon a succeeding General Conference was questioned, but the agreement was shown to be of the nature of a contract, and the Conference decided by a nearly unanimous vote that it was binding and final. The report of the committee on an Ecumenical Conference of all Methodist bodies, recommending that such a conference be held in London in 1881, was approved. Four new bishops were elected, viz.: Henry W. Warren, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Cyrus D. Foss, D.D., President of Wesleyan University; John F. Hurst, D. D., President of Drew Theological Seminary; and Erastus O. Haven, D. D., Chancellor of Syracuse University. The Conference recommended that the bishops reside at New York; Boston; Philadelphia; Syracuse, New York; Cincinnati, Ohio; Chicago, Illinois; Atlanta, Georgia, or Chattanooga, Tennessee; Des Moines, Iowa; St. Paul or Minneapolis, Minnesota; St. Louis, Missouri; Washington, Texas; and San Francisco, California. The question arose whether a person became bishop upon his election to the office or on his ordination. The Conference decided by common consent that his entrance upon the office took place on his being set apart to it by the laying on of hands according to the provisions of the Book of Discipline. A committee to whom the subject was referred made a report recommending that a bishop of African descent be elected; but the Conference refused to recognize color as in any way constituting a qualification for the office, and postponed the recommendation indefinitely. A report was adopted concerning the freedmen and the Southern work, ordering that the organization of the Freedmen's Aid Society remain unchanged, but that the Board of Managers of the Society be advised to give aid also during the next four years, so far as it can be done without embarrassment to the schools for the freedmen, and to the schools which had been established by the Church among the white people in the Southern States. A new ecclesiastical code, which had been prepared by the order of the previous General Conference, was amended and adopted. A plan was presented for the organization of the General Conference into two houses, one to consist of ministers, the other of laymen, meeting and voting separately, but was rejected by a vote of one hundred and ten to two hundred and eleven. A division of the Conference to vote by orders, as provided for by the plan under which lay representation was introduced into

the body, was had for the first time on a proposition to discontinue the official papers published at Atlanta, Georgia, and New Orleans, Louisiana. The papers were continued, conditionally. Amendments were made to the phraseology of certain sections of the Discipline for the purpose of obviating the inference of an intention to exclude women from the offices of class-leader, steward, or superintendent of the Sunday-school. Two cases of appeal came up against the decision of the bishop: in the one case, that the law of the Church does not authorize the ordination of women, and his refusal to submit to the Conference a vote to elect women to orders; and in the other case, that the Discipline does not contemplate the licensing of women as local preachers, and that the action of a district conference in licensing a woman was unauthorized. The action of the bishop was sustained in both cases, as being in accordance with the law of the Church, and with the uniform course of administration under it. The Conference refused to authorize a provision for compelling members of the Church to contribute to the support of the gospel. A committee of German ministers was appointed to translate the Book of Discipline into German. A plan was presented for the celebration of the centennial anniversary of the organization of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1884 by appropriate exercises to be arranged by the appointment of a commission for the purpose, and the collection of funds for various objects of the Church; it contemplated also the appointment of a Centennial Educational Commission to devise plans for endowing and making secure the educational institutions of the Church, and enlarging the funds under the charge of the Board of Education for the assistance of needy students. The subject was referred to the bishops, who are to report a plan of action. The bishops were recommended to report to the General Conference all decisions on questions of law which should be made by them. The organization of an Annual Conference in Italy was recommended, on condition that the bishop presiding at the meeting of the Italian mission shall approve the measure. Resolutions were adopted declaring it to be the duty of the Government to enforce all the rights guaranteed by treaty to the Chinese upon American shores, and to afford them the protection which is accorded to citizens of the United States residing within the bounds of the Chinese Empire; instructing the official papers "to speak boldly and explicitly" on this subject and to this purpose; and advising the people to exercise charity toward Chinese immigrants, and seek to allay the hostility which has been stirred up against them.

II. METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SOUTH.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church for 1879, as they were published in 1880. It shows the number of preachers and members.

ANNUAL CONFERENCES.	Traveling preachers.	Local preachers.	Total preachers and members.
Alabama.....	144	207	81,288
Arkansas.....	80	184	18,466
Baltimore.....	197	116	29,901
Columbia.....	267	19	1,595
Denver.....	7	9	445
East Texas.....	58	149	14,419
Florida.....	77	105	11,897
German Mission.....	21	16	1,177
Holston.....	175	801	44,580
Illinois.....	85	55	5,376
Indiana.....	18	20	1,408
Indian Mission.....	27	108	5,723
Kentucky.....	122	82	22,281
Little Rock.....	74	162	16,565
Los Angeles.....	19	21	1,202
Louisiana.....	82	77	14,601
Louisville.....	184	200	81,068
Memphis.....	144	251	84,290
Mississippi.....	111	171	22,959
Missouri.....	141	148	27,098
Montana.....	5	8	240
North Alabama.....	184	868	94,117
North Carolina.....	194	544	66,708
North Georgia.....	223	482	61,845
North Mississippi.....	189	198	29,852
North Texas.....	110	251	28,714
Northwest Texas.....	141	323	27,899
Pacific.....	67	41	4,311
South Carolina.....	170	151	45,112
South Georgia.....	186	221	32,082
Southwest Missouri.....	81	125	16,591
St. Louis.....	65	92	10,446
Tennessee.....	208	382	46,288
Texas.....	70	60	8,822
Virginia.....	197	184	56,012
Western.....	81	80	2,590
Western Virginia.....	77	185	14,713
West Texas.....	66	73	7,166
White River.....	73	148	12,404
China Mission.....	..	7	105
Mexican Mission.....	..	12	548
Brazilian Mission.....	..	1	52
Bishops.....	7	..	7
Total in 1879.....	3,867	5,882	882,175
Total in 1878.....	3,763	5,762	798,862
Increase.....	104	70	83,313

Number of Sunday-schools, 8,941, with 8,528 teachers and 42,137 scholars; number of baptisms during 1879, 28,011 of children and 49,798 of adults; amount of collections for conference claimants, \$66,823; for missions, \$129,713. The lay members are classified as follows: White members, 816,294; colored members, 1,251; Indian members, 4,931.

The *Board of Missions* had missions among the North American Indians, including an Indian Mission Conference, with 5,723 preachers and members, and a mission among the Eehota Indians in North Carolina, with 135 members; in China, where there were 5 missionaries, 8 native preachers, 2 woman missionaries, 6 Bible women, 19 Sunday-school teachers, 11 day-school teachers, 97 members, 186 scholars in Sunday-schools and 105 in day-schools; in Central Mexico, with 30 stations, 14 preachers, 10 teachers, 11 day and night schools, a school for young preachers, 15 Sunday-schools, and 531 members; on the Mexican border (Rio Grande), with 13 stations, 14 missionaries, 651 members, 4,800 in congregations, and 25 Sunday-schools, with 472 scholars; and in Brazil, with stations at Rio Janeiro and Piracicaba, with 2 missionaries and 36 members.

III. METHODIST PROTESTANT CHURCH.—This Church includes forty-four annual conferences, with 1,200 itinerant ministers and 130,000 lay members, holding church property which is valued at \$3,000,000.

The *General Conference* of the Methodist Protestant Church met at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, in May. The Rev. G. B. McElroy, President of Adrian College, was chosen President. Measures were adopted for the participation of the Church in the Ecumenical Conference of Methodist Churches, to be held in London in 1881; for the appointment of a minister and a layman as members of the Western division of the Committee of the Conference; and for the appointment of three ministers and three laymen as delegates to the body. A petition was presented asking the Conference to take action against the connection of members of the Church with the Masonic order, the obligations and principles of which, it was alleged, were "repugnant and antagonistic to Christ and holiness." To this the Conference replied that, as the petitioners did not state what were the features of Masonry to which objection was made, and as they were unknown to the body, and as the fact was indisputable that many of the most exemplary members of the various Christian denominations were connected with the Masonic institution, "therefore it is to be assumed that the petitioners are mistaken in their estimate of freemasonry. While it is evident," the Conference report said, "that that estimate is based, at best, upon a mere guess or conjecture, and as the General Conference can not, consistently with its dignified character as a church legislature, undertake to work in the dark, especially if in doing so it would gravely pronounce many of our brethren in Christ to be antagonistic to him," the Conference therefore decline to take any action with reference to freemasonry. A resolution was adopted declaring the endowment of additional theological chairs in all the denominational colleges to be a positive necessity, which should be provided for as soon as practicable. With reference to the salaries of ministers, the Conference declared that the declaration in the Book of Discipline on elementary principles, that pastors should be given "a religious compensation for their labors," implies such a compensation as shall, by mutual agreement of pastor and people, be acceptable to both; therefore, that the pastor's consent to the amount of salary allowed him is necessary to constitute a binding obligation on all the parties concerned. The Colorado Conference (colored) was recognized as a mission conference. Provisions were made for putting the two Book Concerns of the Church at Baltimore, Maryland, and Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, under the control of the General Conference.

IV. AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.—The *General Conference* of the African Methodist Episcopal Church met at St. Louis, Missouri, May 3d. Among the more important

items of business transacted were the election of three bishops (the Rev. R. H. Cain, the Rev. W. F. Dickerson, and the Rev. H. M. Turner, LL. D.), the appointment of delegates to the Ecumenical Methodist Conference, and the adoption of a proposition to negotiate for a union with the British Methodist Episcopal Church in Canada. The bishops met at Newport, Rhode Island, August 12th, to make arrangements for carrying out some of the orders of the General Conference. A committee was appointed to prepare and publish Mr. Wesley's Liturgy and Ritual. It was ordered that as soon as practicable all the bishops should wear robes. A constitution was adopted for a connectional literary, historical, and educational association. A committee was appointed on the subject of union with other colored Methodist bodies. Other committees were appointed to prepare a course of studies to be published in the Book of Discipline, and to arrange for giving public notices of the festivals of the ecclesiastical calendar, etc., and call attention to the observance of them. Bishop Turner was deputed to visit Africa, and Bishop Dickerson to visit Hayti, Samana, and Santo Domingo, in the interest of the missions of the Church.

The commissioners appointed to arrange for a union of the British Methodist Episcopal Church, met at Toronto, Ontario, September 8th, during the session of the General Conference of the British Methodist Episcopal Church at that place, to execute the duty with which they were intrusted. A resolution was passed by the General Conference of the British Church, expressing a desire for union with the African Methodist Episcopal Church, and commissioners were appointed to treat with the commissioners of that body. Articles of agreement were prepared providing for the acceptance of the members of the British Methodist Episcopal Church into the African Methodist Episcopal Church, and the recognition of Bishop Disney, of the former body, as junior bishop of the latter body, and the organization of the British Churches into the tenth Episcopal district, with Bishop Disney as bishop in charge; the union to become of force when the articles of agreement shall have been ratified by a majority of the members of the British Methodist Episcopal Church and by two thirds of the Annual Conferences of the African Methodist Episcopal Church. The British Church became an independent body in 1860. Its jurisdiction extends over the Dominion of Canada and the West Indies; and it had in 1880 three Annual Conferences—the Ontario, Nova Scotia, and West Indies Conferences—one bishop, 77 itinerant and local ministers, 2,684 members, 37 Sunday-schools with 1,727 scholars, and one newspaper, "The Missionary Messenger." It had also foreign missions in the West India Islands.

V. WESLEYAN CONNECTION.—The following is a summary of the statistics of the Wesleyan

Methodist Connection, as published in connection with the minutes of the British Conference for 1880:

COUNTRIES.	Members.	On trial.	Ministers.
I. In Great Britain	376,678	25,824	1,478
II. In Ireland and Irish missions.	24,463	723	185
III. In foreign missions	86,758	10,636	881
IV. French Conference	1,782	62	29*
Total	489,711	37,245	2,023

The tables give also 328 ministers on trial, viz., 164 in Great Britain, 21 in Ireland, and 143 in the foreign missions; and 321 supernumeraries.

The anniversary of the *Wesleyan Missionary Society* was held in London, May 3d. The receipts of the Society for the year had been £165,498, of which £118,808 were described as "home receipts," or contributions from the stations and auxiliaries within the United Kingdom, £9,068 as "foreign receipts," or contributions from the mission-stations, and £37,622 had been received through the Wesleyan Methodist Thanksgiving fund.

The general summary of the statistics of the missions is as follows: Missions under the immediate direction of the Wesleyan Missionary Committee and British Conference, in Europe, India, China, South and West Africa, and the West Indies, as far as ascertained:

Central or principal stations called circuits	429
Chapels and other preaching-places in connection with the central and principal stations	2,599
Missionaries and assistant missionaries, including supernumeraries	445
Other paid agents, as catechists, interpreters, day-school teachers, etc	1,924
Unpaid agents, as Sunday-school teachers, etc	7,806
Full and accredited church-members	86,753
On trial for church-membership	11,079
Scholars, deducting for those who attend both the day and Sunday schools	98,208
Printing establishments	8

In Western Africa explorations had been made with a view of extending the missions into the interior as soon as the resources of the Society should permit such an experiment. A Proprietary High School for Girls had been begun at Freetown, Sierra Leone. A Zenana mission had been begun prosperously in Bengal. Much medical relief had been given in China. Arrangements had been recently made to put the missions in the West Indies upon a better basis, with a view to the development of local resources, which should result in self-support and self-government, and satisfactory progress had already been made in carrying them out.

The number of Sunday-schools was reported to be 6,376—121 more than were reported in the previous year. Of these, 2,629, or rather more than one third, belonged to the Connectional Sunday-school Union. The whole number of officers and teachers was 119,911, and of scholars 787,143. These returns showed an

increase of 1,151 officers and teachers and 20,386 scholars. The total cost of Wesleyan Sunday-schools during the year had been £66,574.

The *Wesleyan Conference* met in its one hundred and seventh session, in London, July 20th. The Rev. E. E. Jenkins, one of the missionary secretaries of the Connection, was elected President. The numerical returns showed that a net decrease of 934 had taken place in the number of members during the year, while the number of persons on trial had increased by 1,840. It appeared by comparing the details of the statistical report that while more than 43,000 new members had been received, 5,572 had died, and 37,000 persons who had been members were no longer represented on the class-rolls. This number was made up of 14,000 persons who had removed, and more than 23,000 persons who had ceased to contribute and attend class-meeting. The decrease was greatest in Cornwall, and was attributed there to financial depression. This was the third year in which a decrease was reported. The project for holding an Œcumenical Conference of Methodist Churches was finally approved, and full arrangements were made for calling and holding the Conference at the City Road Chapel in London, in September, 1881. It was decided that the meeting should be called a Congress rather than a Conference. The Executive Committee of the Thanksgiving fund which was instituted by the Conference of 1878, and which the Conference of 1879 had resolved to make £244,975 if that amount could be raised, reported that the subscriptions to the fund amounted on the 15th of July to £287,155, of which £134,007 had been paid in, and that subsequent subscriptions had raised the amount promised to £289,000. The committee had resolved to increase the fund to 300,000 guineas, or £315,000. Meetings had been held in behalf of the fund in all the districts, and in all but fifty of the circuits. The Sabbath Committee, after a detailed statement of what had been done, especially with reference to the closing of public-houses and the opening of museums on Sunday, reported that "upon a review of the events of the year bearing upon the Sabbath question, we can not but think, notwithstanding discouraging circumstances, that, all things considered, an advance favorable to our most cherished aims and hopes has been made." A declaration was adopted in reference to the use of trust property for amusements and other purposes not contemplated in the formation of the several trusts, by which the members and officers of churches were reminded that such properties can be legally used only for such purposes as are in accordance with the provisions of the deeds, which are religious worship and "public and other meetings and services held according to the general rules and usages of the people called Methodists as they appear in the Annual Minutes of Conference from time to time published." The Home Mission Committee was authorized to

* Exclusive of the French ministers who are employed in the Channel Islands.

employ, in addition to district missionaries, ministers and lay agents for general evangelistic work. The subject of establishing a Conference in South Africa was considered, but such a measure was judged to be not yet expedient.

VI. PRIMITIVE METHODIST CONNECTION.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Connection (exclusive of the Canadian Conference), as they were reported to the Conference of 1880: Number of members, 174,469; of ministers, 1,041; of local preachers, 14,244; of class-leaders, 10,220; of chapels, 4,072; of other places of worship, 1,846. The return of members shows a decrease of 101.

The thirty-seventh anniversary of the *Primitive Methodist Missionary Society* was held in London, May 11th. The receipts of the Society for the year had been £23,820 distinctively styled missionary money, and £15,354 contributed for various special purposes, making in all £39,175. The debt of the Society amounted to £7,000. The missions included 72 stations, with 107 missionaries, in the United Kingdom; 66 stations, with 94 ministers and missionaries, in Canada; 90 stations, with 112 ministers and missionaries, in Australasia; three stations, with three European and two native missionaries, in Africa; in all, 231 stations, with 318 missionaries and colonial ministers. The only missions to the heathen were at Fernando Po, West Africa, and Aliwal North, South Africa. The mission at Fernando Po had been closed in the previous year in consequence of the repressive measures of the Spanish authorities; but the work had been resumed, and was going on prosperously, under a suspension of the unfriendly restrictions.

VII. UNITED METHODIST FREE CHURCHES.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this body as they were presented to the Conference in July, 1880: Number of ministers, 391; of supernumeraries, 35; of local preachers, 3,391; of leaders, 4,249; of members, 72,044; of persons on trial, 7,433; of chapels, 1,356; of preaching-rooms, 199; of Sunday-schools, 1,345, with 26,913 teachers and 189,033 scholars. The returns show a decrease of 425 members in the home, and an increase of 160 members in the foreign, stations; a decrease of 1,000 persons on trial, and an increase of 402 Sunday scholars.

VIII. METHODIST NEW CONNECTION.—The eighty-fourth annual Conference of the Methodist New Connection met at Longton, June 14th. The Rev. W. Cocker, D.D., Principal of Ranmoor College, Sheffield, was chosen President. A special fund was established, to be known as the Connectional Auxiliary fund, to consist of £12,000, and to be apportioned among the foreign missions, the Paternal fund, the College fund, and a contemplated Connectional loan fund. The Missionary Committee was instructed to prepare a plan for the employment of Bible women among the destitute. A resolution was adopted approving the Government "Burials Bill."

IX. WESLEYAN REFORM UNION.—The statistical reports of the churches connected with this body, made to the representative assembly in August, showed that the number of preachers was 605, and the number of members was 7,360. One hundred and eighty-nine Sunday-schools included 3,011 teachers and 19,078 scholars. These figures showed an increase during the year of 73 preachers, 120 members, 6 Sunday-schools, 115 teachers, and 557 scholars.

X. ŒCUMENICAL CONFERENCE OF METHODISM.—The committee appointed to represent the different branches of the Methodist family of churches in reference to an *Œcumenical Conference of Methodism*, held meetings in Cincinnati, Ohio, May 6th and 10th, and decided to call such a conference to meet in the City Road Chapel, London, about the middle of August, 1881. The Conference, it is stated in the call, is not to be for legislative purposes, nor for doctrinal controversies, nor for an attempt to harmonize the various polities and usages of the Methodist churches, but for co-operation rather than consolidation, and to devise such means for prosecuting the home and foreign work of the churches as will result in the greatest economy and efficiency, to promote fraternity, and to increase the moral and evangelical power of a common Methodism. Among the subjects which such a conference might properly consider are mentioned the duty of Methodism with reference to diverse and antagonistic faiths, and toward evils and vices; its relation to education; the means of evangelization; Methodism as a missionary movement; the relation of the home to the foreign work, and the best mode of avoiding waste and rivalries, and of securing sympathy and co-operation between different Methodist bodies occupying the same or contiguous mission-fields; the use of the press; the resources of Methodism and its corresponding responsibility; the spiritual unity of Methodism, and the best way to secure its maintenance and increase, and to manifest it to the world; and other kindred topics. The Conference is to be composed of four hundred members, including as nearly as possible equal numbers of ministers and laymen, who are to be assigned so that the British and Continental Methodists and their affiliated conferences and mission-fields shall have two hundred, and the conferences and churches in the United States and Canada and their foreign work shall have two hundred representatives. The distribution of the British and Continental delegates is to be determined by the British churches through consultation and correspondence. The delegates assigned to the United States and Canada are to be distributed as follows: The Methodist Episcopal Church, 80; the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, 38; the African Methodist Episcopal Church, 12; the Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, 10; the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church of America, 6; the Evangelical Association, 6; the Union American

Methodist Episcopal Church, 2; the Union American Protestant Church, 2; the Methodist Protestant Church, 6; the American Wesleyan Church, 4; the Free Methodist Church, 2; the Independent Methodist Church, 2; the Congregational Methodist Church, 2; the Methodist Church of Canada, 12; the Methodist Episcopal Church of Canada, 4; the Primitive Methodist Church in the United States and Canada, 2; the Bible Christian Church, 2; and the British Methodist Episcopal Church, 2. The remaining six members are left to be distributed by the Western section of the General Executive Committee.

A General Executive Committee is constituted, to be composed of one minister and one layman from each Methodist body, which shall be divided into two sections, meeting separately: the Eastern section, for English and Continental Methodists and affiliated Conferences; and the Western section, representing the American Methodists. Bishop Matthew Simpson was constituted chairman of the Western section of the committee.

MEXICO (ESTADOS UNIDOS DE MÉXICO). For details concerning area, territorial division, population, etc., reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1874, 1875, and 1879. In a semi-official publication for the present year, the population is set down as follows: Indians, 3,200,000; whites, 1,600,000; mestizos ("forming the nation proper, being intrusted with the collection of the revenue and the political direction of the country"), 5,200,000; total, 10,000,000.

The President of the Republic from May 5, 1877, to November 30, 1880, was General Porfirio Díaz; and the Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Foreign Affairs, Señor M. Ruelas; * Interior (*Gobernación*), Señor Felipe Berriozábal; Finance, Señor Manuel Toro; Justice, and Public Instruction, Señor Ignacio Mariscal; † Public Works (*vacant*); War, General Carlos Pacheco.

On December 1, 1880, was inaugurated the new constitutional President, General Manuel Gonzalez (elected in July of the same year); and the new Cabinet was made up as follows: Foreign Affairs, Señor Ignacio Mariscal; Interior, Señor Carlos Díez Gutierrez; Finance, Señor Francisco Landero y Cos; War, General Gerónimo Treviño; Justice and Public Instruction, Licentiate Ezequiel Montes; Public Works, General Porfirio Díaz.

The President of the Supreme Court (and consequently, by the terms of the Constitution, Vice-President of the Republic) is Licentiate Ignacio L. Vallarta; and the magistrates are: Licentiates Pedro Ogazon, Manuel Alas, Miguel Blanco, José María Bautista, Juan de Mata Vazquez, Eleuterio Avila, Jesus M. Vazquez Palacios, Mannel Contreras, Juan Manuel Saldafia, Pascual Ortiz, and José Fernando Coro-

na; with Señor José Eligio Muñoz, Attorney-General, and the Procurator-General.*

The Governor of the Federal District (appointed by the President for an unlimited term) is General Carlos Pacheco. The other Governors, with their respective salaries, were as follows:

Aguas Calientes.....	Señor Miguel Guinchart.	\$2,000 00
Campeachy.....	Señor Arturo Shielz.	3,000 00
Chiapas.....	Colonel Miguel I trilla.	3,000 00
Chihuahua.....	Señor Luis Terrazas.	?
Coahuila.....	Señor Evaristo Madero.	1,400 00
Colima.....	Señor Francisco Santa Cruz.	3,000 00
Durango.....	Licentiate Francisco Gomez del Palacio.	3,600 00
Guanajuato.....	Licentiate Manuel Muñoz Ledo.	?
Guerrero.....	Señor Rafael Cuellar.†	3,000 00
Hidalgo.....	General Rafael Cravioto.	4,000 00
Jalisco.....	Señor Fermin G. Riestra.	6,000 00
Mexico.....	Señor Marino Zuñiga.‡	3,908 25
Michoacan.....	Señor Octaviano Fernandez.§	?
Morelos.....	Señor Carlos Quaglia.	?
Nuevo Leon.....	Señor Bibiano L. Villareal.	3,000 00
Oajaca.....	General Francisco Melguero.¶	4,000 00
Puebla.....	General Juan N. Mendez.	5,000 00
Queretaro.....	Señor Francisco G. de Cosío.	3,000 00
San Luis Potosi.....	Señor Francisco Bustamante.¶	4,000 00
Sinaloa.....	Señor Mariano Martinez de Castro.	?
Sonora.....	Señor Luis E. Torre.	2,600 00
Tabasco.....	Señor José Francisco de Lanz.	2,700 00
Tamaulipas.....	Señor Antonio Canales.	3,600 00
Tlaxcala.....	Señor Miguel Lira y Ortega.**	3,000 00
Vera Cruz.....	Señor Apolinar Castillo.	6,000 00
Yucatan.....	Señor Manuel Komero Ancona.	3,000 00
Zacatecas.....	Señor Jesus Aréchiga.	4,000 00
Lower California (Ter.).....	Señor Tiburcio Montiel.	?

The State Governors are elected for a term of four years. The Governor of the Territory of Lower California is appointed by the Federal Government.

The Mexican Minister to the United States was Señor M. de Zamacona; and the Mexican Consul-General in New York is Dr. Juan N. Navarro. The United States Minister to Mexico is P. H. Morgan; and the United States Consul-General at the capital is David H. Strother.

The Archbishop of Mexico is the Rt. Rev. P. A. de Labastida (1863).

The army is composed approximately as follows: 21 batteries of foot, 14,680 men and 777 officers; 10 corps of horse, 4,990 men and 370 officers; 5 brigades (of 4 batteries each) of artillery, 1,618 men and 171 officers; coast-guards, 71 men and 22 officers; rural guards (*guardias rurales*), 1,692 men and 153 officers; and Invalids, 267 men and 19 officers; total, 28,830 rank and file.

The navy consists of four gunboats.

The national revenue for the fiscal year 1877-'78 was reported at \$19,424,539, and the expenditure at \$19,838,699, leaving a deficit of \$14,160, unusually small for Mexico. But the unfavorable disproportion has since that year been much greater, as shown in the following schedule:

* The functions of this office were discharged by Licentiate Francisco Gomez del Palacio until November, 1880, when he was elected Governor of the State of Durango.

† Until March, 1881.

‡ To be succeeded, March 20, 1881, by Licentiate José Zubia.

§ Until September 15, 1881.

¶ Until November 30, 1881.

¶ Until April, 1881.

** To be succeeded, on January 15, 1881, by Señor Mariano Grajales.

* Died September 22, 1880.

† Minister to the United States during the Administration of President Lerdo de Tejada.

YEARS.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1878-'79.....	\$16,128,807	\$22,108,046*
1879-'80.....	16,808,455*	23,334,636*
1880-'81.....	17,511,125*	23,128,218*

According to these figures the resulting deficit for the first of the three periods would be \$5,979,239; for the second, \$7,031,181; and, for the third, \$5,317,093.

The estimated amount and sources of the national revenue for the year 1880-'81 are exhibited in the annexed table:

REVENUE.

Custom-house (maritime and frontier):	
Import duties.....	\$3,523,625
Export duties.....	953,271
In transitu.....	60,063
	\$10,546,964
Custom-house of the city of Mexico, etc.....	1,013,434
Stamped paper.....	3,003,147
Direct taxation.....	559,217
Post-Office.....	679,392
Mint.....	375,093
Public Instruction (old fund).....	83,957
National property.....	27,254
Lottery.....	82,856
Sundries.....	1,529,761
Total.....	\$17,511,125

The following table shows for the same year the estimated amount and distribution of the

EXPENDITURE.

Legislative.....	\$1,022,842
Executive.....	43,832
Judicial.....	855,578
Ministry of Foreign Affairs.....	228,460
“ of the Interior.....	2,574,209
“ of Justice and Public Instruction.....	1,174,805
“ of Public Works.....	3,570,077
“ of Finance.....	4,263,619
“ of War.....	9,736,964
Total.....	\$23,128,218

Yet President Diaz, in his message to Congress, at the opening of the fall session of 1880, spoke hopefully of the financial condition of the country. We give an extract from that document at the end of the present article.

In a report published by the Minister of Finance in September, 1879, the sources and amount of the revenue for the fiscal period ending June 30th of the same year, were as follows:

REVENUE.

Customs (maritime and frontier).....	\$3,949,708
Customs of the city of Mexico.....	1,013,433
Stamped paper.....	3,003,258
Direct taxation.....	559,217
Post-Office.....	679,392
Mint.....	367,922
Public Instruction (old fund).....	24,725
National property.....	27,254
Lottery.....	81,822
Sundries.....	234,942
Balance from previous year.....	1,404,144
Total.....	\$17,350,867

The estimated expenditure for that period having been \$22,108,046, there was a consequent deficit of \$4,757,179.

The lottery-tax consists of an impost of 10 per cent. on the prizes drawn in the State lotteries.

* Official estimates.

In the table above given of the estimated expenditure for the year 1880-'81, the item "Executive" is made up of the following branches: Salary of the President of the Republic, \$30,000; department of the President's private secretary, \$5,200; President's staff, \$10,292; service, \$3,340.

In the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1878 and 1879 may be found important remarks concerning the national debt of Mexico, the estimated amount of which then, exclusive of the claims referring to the Maximilian empire—claims never yet recognized as valid by the republican Government—was \$131,914,665. The following interesting observations on the revival of Mexican securities is transcribed from a British financial journal published in February, 1880:

An improvement in Mexican bonds is exciting the attention of the speculative community, the more especially from its occurring after a series of alternate spurts and relapses in this now, perhaps, the most speculative of all foreign stocks. It is noticed that no public announcement of adequate importance has appeared in explanation of these occasionally very contradictory movements. Those operators seem to have done best who have acted upon the plan of always buying when the price gets low, and turning out their stock when it shows a good profit; for between certain limits there have been of late numerous oscillations, affording proportionate opportunities of profit to the quick and ready speculator always on the spot. But, while to the ordinary operator Mexican bonds supply the place of the mysteriously "dark" horse of the turf-gambler, it does not escape notice that each successive relapse in prices that has taken place during the last few months has induced purchases by houses of first-rate position in the city of London; and these purchases do not seem to have been "undone" by subsequent sales. As to the motives which dictate them, nothing definite can be said, but it can not be doubted that they have a sufficient basis, though whether in connection with projects for the settlement of the debt, or with plans for railway extension in Mexico, or (which is very likely) with proposals in which both these projects are to be welded together, remains to be seen. Even within the last day or two a very confident belief is expressed in speculative circles that a good deal of profit will yet be got out of Mexican bonds as a market "counter" this year. Upon these views it is probable that, should the price relapse again, the number of persons who will seek to "get in" will be larger than for some time past. It is believed that the dealers in these bonds are oversold; and this circumstance, as implying inherent strength in the market, may be considered adverse to the prospect of a relapse in quotations. Last evening the price rose to 14 to $\frac{1}{4}$, being an advance of nearly £2 on the week. Another of the market anomalies of the moment may be here pointed to. Up to a day or two ago, the Mexican bonds of 1864 were quoted about 6. During the last few days they have come into demand, and last evening their price had risen to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 9. Even at this improvement they are absurdly low. This can be easily shown. What do these bonds represent? They were issued for the arrears of interest at the last settlement of the debt. Upon every principle of right, therefore, they represent what must be regarded as the most sacred part of a debt, viz., overdue interest, upon which, even when thus funded, the unfortunate holders have received no return. It is, therefore, to be expected that, when the settlement of the Mexican debt comes, as come it must in some form sooner or later, these 1864 bonds will be treated with special respect. And yet they are ranked far below the other bonds!

As the result of the study of the debt question by the special committee appointed therefor (see President's message hereafter), the officially recognized amount of the nation's indebtedness on June 30, 1880, was: principal, \$98,521,789.53½; interest, \$46,431,996; total, \$144,953,785.53½.

As to the foreign commerce of Mexico, we have here again to repeat, what has been stated in our volumes since 1873, namely, that in the absence of adequate and reliable statistics, it is only possible to say that the exports, as calculated from custom-house returns, are of a mean annual value of \$30,000,000, and the imports \$27,000,000. But such is the prevalence of systematic smuggling that these returns can never be regarded as correct; indeed, the whole of the figures therein representing the imports, and those standing for bullion in the exports, may safely be doubled.

Among the commodities most extensively exported are silver and gold coin, silver and copper ore, cochineal, indigo, and other dye-stuffs, coffee, sugar, vanilla-beans, hides, timber, cabinet-woods, Sisal hemp (*henequen*), ixtle, etc., and the chief imports are linen, cotton, woolen, and silk fabrics, iron wrought and unwrought, machinery, hardware, provisions, etc. The Minister of the Interior, in his report to Congress on May 1, 1880, took special pains to refute the statement, made by "prominent persons," that the annual imports from European countries into Mexico were of the value of \$70,000,000, and to demonstrate, with the aid of "European official returns, *having no trustworthy Mexican data at hand*," that the total imports from all countries did not reach one half that sum. It would appear from the Minister's report that the mean *invoice* value of the imports for each of the years 1877-'78 and 1878-'79 is \$19,576,500. This invoice value, formerly increased 50 per cent. by the Mexican officials, to give the *market* value, has of late been increased 60 per cent. "It is very plain, however," observes the United States consul at Matamoros, "that the only proper basis for computation is the original invoice value. In this connection it must be noted that the invoice values are in Mexican eagle dollars, and that these dollars have a declared value in the United States of 90·9 cents. If we reduce the \$19,576,500 to United States gold, we find it amounts to only \$17,896,038. But, while this computation is on the basis of 90·9 cents, the actual local market value of eagle dollars has been known for some years not to exceed 85 cents, which would give an actual value in United States gold of \$16,640,·025." The following table exhibits the various commodities exported in the year ending June 30, 1878, and their value respectively:

Coffee.....	\$1,275,058
Sisal hemp (<i>henequen</i>), ixtle, etc.....	1,259,288
Gold.....	1,265,199
Silver, coined and bullion.....	20,493,129
Ores, unrefined.....	267,311
Hides.....	578,822

Carried forward.....	\$25,138,752
Skins, goat, etc.....	461,156
Orechilla.....	284,312
Sugar.....	276,479
Vanilla.....	846,193
Woods:	
Mahogany.....	879,365
Cedar.....	357,340
Campeche, etc.....	174,898
Mulberry (called <i>moral</i> in commerce as in Mexico).....	549,654
Sundries.....	859,424
Total.....	\$28,777,509

According to British official statistics, the Mexican imports from and exports to Great Britain were of the values shown in the annexed table for the decade ending in 1879:

YEARS.	Exports.	Imports.
1870.....	\$1,499,065	\$4,554,410
1871.....	1,986,670	5,245,065
1872.....	2,217,620	4,215,430
1873.....	2,497,660	5,970,620
1874.....	2,733,255	5,623,065
1875.....	3,609,535	4,424,505
1876.....	3,810,619	2,511,120
1877.....	3,994,285	4,977,500
1878.....	2,535,410	3,866,655
1879.....	2,913,795	3,465,615

The figures here given, however, represent the values of Mexican exports for *British markets* and of imports of *British and Irish* produce into Mexico. But large shipments are frequently made to Great Britain of commodities for *distribution among other European markets*; and, conversely, extensive quantities of Continental products are transshipped or shipped *last* in British ports. Thus in the official statistics of Mexican trade for the year 1875, the total exports to Great Britain were of the value of \$13,481,000, and the total value of the imports from Great Britain \$12,523,000. Hence, considerably more than one third of the Mexican exports are shipped directly to Great Britain, either for consumption there or for distribution among other European markets; and by far the largest share of the imports are directly from England. The exports to and the imports from the United States in 1879 were of the values of \$6,090,574 and \$5,671,·134 respectively, against \$12,820,000 and \$7,·133,000 in 1875. The balance of trade in favor of Mexico and against the United States in the first of these two years was consequently \$419,·440, and in the second \$5,687,000. The United States consul at Vera Cruz, in a report to the State Department of Washington under date of October 30, 1880, speaks of the progressive popularity in Mexico of articles manufactured in this country. He says:

We can hold the ground we have, and extend the field of occupation if our artisans and manufacturers continue to excel in the superior quality of articles they produce. Our machinery, tools, cutlery, clocks, watches, sewing-machines, arms, wooden-ware, hardware, brooms, and woven fabrics are justly more popular and more eagerly sought for than the same articles from Europe. Some of these articles are being imitated in Europe, and are finding their way here. The tendency of this nefarious trade is in two ways to depress and injure our good name and intentions: first, by destroying our well-earned reputation by

making our manufacturers seem to acknowledge somebody else's illegitimate offspring by forging to worthless articles some well-established name or mark; and, secondly, by ruining the prices and confidence of the consumers, who may not have the means of comparison and distinguishing the genuine from the false. When Europeans resort to such dishonorable practices, they acknowledge thereby their own inferiority, and offer a potent admonition to our citizens not to seek to lower in anything the present standard of their excellence. We can not compete with them in worthless manufactures, and we ought not to exercise our faculties in that direction. Many articles, such as flour, canned groceries of all kinds, potatoes, etc., could find a ready and extensive market here if the tariff were not prohibitory. Eight dollars a barrel on flour makes it impossible to import it into Mexico without loss. These high rates on the staple articles of family consumption render living very expensive in a land where it should be the cheapest.

Touching the question of extending our commercial relations, the following suggestions, extracted from the United States consul's report from Matamoros to the State Department, will doubtless be found useful:

Nothing can be well done in haste or without labor, and in no country is this more true than in Mexico. In those places where American goods are already sold, the sale can be continued and increased. There are many places which American goods have not yet reached, or where they are not handled with a view to their increased sale. If the American merchant is desirous to enter into the trade, it is necessary that the work shall be carefully studied, and then pushed steadily. The best way is to establish either a branch house or an agency. All things considered, the first plan may be given the preference. This involves a good capital, long credits, and efficient managers at both ends of the partnership. The manager of the branch house must be able to study the market, the customers, and the import laws with care and patience not needed in the United States. He must be able to use his eyes and ears and control his tongue; must not only be honest and of good habits, but must have these qualities in a marked degree. It will be found necessary that the local house select or determine the goods to be sent out, and that such be sent exactly. The indifference of some American houses in filling orders for Mexican purchasers has been prejudicial to the interests of the purchaser, and, of course, to an increase of trade. To illustrate: in an order given for prints, or goods of certain width, the American house does not seem to realize, or to care, that a small deviation from the width in the invoice or import declaration will not only make very heavy fines and vexatious delays, but subject the really innocent importer to imprisonment. I have been led to believe that at least some few American dealers have spells of enthusiasm and relapses of indifference regarding the export trade to Mexico. In their time of enthusiasm they send circulars, circular letters, and even individual letters to every consular officer or other person whose address they may have in the section in which they wish to operate. They usually desire immediate and full replies to several queries, but omit to inclose return stamps. Many private persons would hardly feel like taking a great deal of pains to answer all such letters. The replies to these letters come in slowly. Many of the recipients may be busy for two weeks and then use two weeks more to get all the information desired. The two letters may easily use up a month or more *en route*, and it is thus from two to three months before they are all in and a careful study of them can be made. Long before this the inquiring house has got disgusted at the delays or difficulties in the way. Whoever thinks of the Mexican trade should study it for some time, and in all situations. Having once decided to undertake the work, calculate not only to spend money and time

and talent, but to give infinite care and patience in return for future profits. No one can be guaranteed success, but others, notably Germans and Spaniards, do succeed, and, without doubt, there is a fair chance of our doing as well as they if we give the same care and have the same amount of capital and credits. Trade journals which reach this office do a good work in the direction of trade increase, and I have thought that they might do good service by showing the weak spots which must be improved to enable our trade to reach its proper development. It is plain that, to study the subject of Mexican trade, statistics, which will show for a series of years the routes, kinds, and values of the imports and exports, are a primary necessity. These statistics have not often been so kept as to make it possible to give reliable reports, and when kept at the various custom-houses have not been published with the regularity that is desirable. Besides this, the Spanish language is almost an unknown tongue in the United States, and anything published in Spanish is comparatively buried. These causes, added to the ignorance of Mexico which prevails in the United States, have given credence to very exaggerated reports as to the wealth and commerce of the country. Mexico is a land of wonderful beauty and natural advantages. Perhaps the loveliest spots on the face of the earth may be found within her borders, and to the beauty of the landscape may be added climate and natural products as fine. Her mines of great known wealth have yet, according to rumor, marvelous unknown riches, and the number yet unworked is fabulous. Such has been the effect of this ignorance or this romance, or both together, that the actual facts and figures of the total Mexican commerce have been difficult things to determine.

The value of the exports to the United States through the now termed *free* port of Nuevo Laredo, for the five years 1875-'80, was reported as follows:

YEARS.	Value.
1875.....	\$206,125 09
1876.....	206,705 52
1877.....	400,425 56
1878.....	411,552 50
1879.....	457,459 84
1880.....	648,160 90

"My belief," says the United States vice-consul at that place, "is that these figures do not show much over 50 per cent. of what actually crosses into the United States, and I base my conclusions on these facts: It is generally conceded that the growth of late years of these two cities* on the Rio Grande is owing to the excellent facilities for smuggling, and that three fourths of the native population is engaged in it, on a larger or smaller scale. The Rio Grande is fordable at scores of places between these two cities, and for miles up and down at near intervals. I personally have seen loads and loads of American prints, muslins, and other goods, leave from stores in Laredo at night, bound for convenient points to smuggle into Mexico. They are generally done up in packages weighing about one hundred and fifty pounds, covered with canvas. When they reach a certain ranch, and the coast is clear, packages are strapped on each side of a mule, and they cross the river and generally reach their destination on this side. As a further proof, in many of the interior cities American prints, on which the Mexican duty is twelve cents a *vara*

* Nuevo Laredo on the Mexican and Laredo on the American side of the river.

(about thirty-three inches), sell at retail at twelve and a half cents a yard. It is not reasonable to believe that men who live by smuggling and have all these facilities, return from their trips unloaded; the small number of custom-house officials can not prevent it. The Mexican custom-house requires the following force: One collector, a deputy, who is cashier, an examiner, three clerks in office, one commandant, and sixteen mounted inspectors. They have about the same territory to cover as the American officials at Laredo. The customs officials at Laredo are a collector (deputy), one guard at river (no one to relieve him for meals, etc.), and two mounted inspectors, with a territory of sixty miles up the river and thirty miles down the river to patrol. It is no wonder to me that smuggling is so extensively carried on. The United States force is entirely inadequate."

Of the single article *henequen* (Sisal hemp), 97,351 bales, of the aggregate weight of 39,501,725 Mexican pounds, and of the value of \$1,805,848.18, were shipped through Progreso, the port of Mérida, in 1880. The several destinations of the same, and the quantities to each, are exhibited in the subjoined table:

PORTS OF DESTINATION.	Quantities.
Havana.....	10 bales.
Bremen.....	10 "
Marseilles.....	50 "
Barcelona.....	235 "
Falmouth.....	302 "
Bolbec (France).....	411 "
Hamburg.....	900 "
Gibraltar.....	904 "
New Orleans.....	1,450 "
Havre.....	1,833 "
London.....	1,923 "
Liverpool.....	5,234 "
New York.....	83,984 "
Total.....	97,351 bales.

Interesting details concerning this important industry were given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1876, page 544.

The yield of the Progreso Custom-House for the month of April, 1880, amounted to \$30,501.81.

Referring once more to the subject of contraband trade, it should here be said that the system has become of late so general as to cause material prejudice to legitimate commerce, and affect the national revenue to an alarming extent. Here follows the translation of a law promulgated in the second half of 1879, and the vigorous terms of which it was hoped, but too sanguinely, would have the effect of diminishing, if not altogether eradicating, that illicit traffic.

The Congress of the United Mexican States decrees:

ARTICLE I. Besides the penalties established in chapters xx and xxi of the maritime and frontier custom-house tariff of the 1st of January, 1872, the authors of contraband or fraud against the rights of the Treasury, their accomplices, the receivers of the goods, and the employees who may be in collusion with any of the persons as before described, shall be punished with the penalties hereafter stated.

ART. II. In the cases mentioned in the clauses one,

two, and three of Article CLXXXVI of the said tariff, if the owners, conductors, captains, or any other persons transporting the goods should be apprehended, they will undergo five years' imprisonment, and their names shall be published in the newspapers; if it be proved that any commercial house established in the republic has carried on or favored contraband after this law shall have gone into force, besides the foregoing penalties which shall be applied, according to the case, its name shall also be published in the newspapers, its name shall not be recognized in any transactions with the public Treasury, and will not be admitted in any official or commercial transaction by any Government office.

ART. III. In all the other cases stated in Articles LXXXVI and LXXXVII of the tariff, a corporal punishment of from six months to five years' imprisonment will be imposed, under the following conditions: If the total amount of the duties defrauded passes one hundred dollars without exceeding a thousand dollars, an imprisonment of from two to six months will be imposed; if it exceeds a thousand dollars without reaching two thousand, double the time; if it passes two thousand and does not reach three, triple the time; and thus successively, without exceeding the maximum of five years.

ART. IV. Corporal punishment shall not be inflicted in the cases comprehended in clauses four, five, and six of Article LXXXVI, chapter xx of the said tariff, when the amount of the duties does not exceed two hundred dollars.

ART. V. When the manifestation of the goods in the consular documents is done in an ambiguous manner, without being subject to the nomenclature of the tariff, the penalty of double duties will be imposed on the goods which arrive ambiguously manifested; in this case every package of the cargo should be examined.

ART. VI. Accomplices in the offenses of contraband or fraud in which the penalty of imprisonment is imposed, half of the punishment shall be inflicted on the first named, and a fourth on the second, which should or may be imposed on the principal authors of the contraband or fraud.

ART. VII. The Government employees who may be proved to be complicated in the aforesaid offenses shall suffer the penalties established in the present law, and those imposed by the tariff in force, and other laws on the subject; but in every case with the understanding that the imprisonment inflicted can never be less than double the time imposed upon the principal delinquent or delinquents of the contraband or fraud.

The protection of home manufactures has long been an object of earnest solicitude on the part of the Mexican Government; and, in consequence, those articles, particularly the cotton and woolen fabrics, have been partially exempted from imposts, while corresponding foreign goods have been subjected to duties exceeding in many cases the cost of the same. For instance, here follow some of these duties in the existing tariff: Unbleached domestics, nine cents per square metre; bleached domestics, sixteen cents; prints or calicoes, fourteen cents; white cotton thread, sixty cents per kilogramme; colored thread, ninety-six cents; cassimeres and similar woolen goods, \$1.40 per square metre. The annexed extract is from the revenue law passed at the spring session of Congress, taxing all this class of goods of domestic manufacture:

The Congress of the United Mexican States decrees:

ARTICLE I. The revenues of the Federal Treasury

for the fifty-fifth fiscal year, commencing July 1, 1879, and ending June 30, 1880, shall be composed of the following items: . . .

ART. XIV. Of the proceeds of the new imposts hereby established as follows, and which shall be collected on and after July 1st of the present year, and the articles manufactured in factories or shops whose capital does not exceed \$500, are excepted.

A. Three cents for each gross kilogramme of cotton woven goods, smooth and brown, manufactured in national territory under the denomination of domestics (*mantas*) or otherwise.

B. Four cents for each gross kilogramme of smooth cotton goods, white or colored, manufactured in national territory.

C. Two cents for each gross kilogramme of cotton thread of whatever class or factory, manufactured in national territory.

D. One cent for each gross kilogramme of yarn of all classes, and of cotton, manufactured in national territory.

E. Two cents for each square metre of carpet, rug, counterpane, and other analogous woven woolen goods, or wool and cotton or of other materials with a mixture of any other, manufactured in national territory.

F. One cent for each square metre of baize, nubias, and other analogous woolen goods, or wool and cotton, manufactured in national territory.

G. One cent for each gross kilogramme of woolen thread, white or colored, manufactured in national territory.

H. Duties of importation on the foreign goods similar to the national goods taxed in the clauses A, B, C, D, E, F, G, adding to the duties which the former now have fixed by the existing tariff, a sum equivalent to that established by this law on each one of the latter.

The value of the total annual production of the home-made cotton and woolen fabrics is estimated at \$20,000,000, and the yield of the tax thereon at \$500,000; hence the rate of the impost is about two and a half per cent. It will be observed from the tenor of the foregoing decree that, in order to prevent this new tax from operating favorably upon the importation of foreign goods, the same rate of taxation is also levied upon all similar articles imported through the custom-houses, so that the foreign goods, whose duties are above stated, are to be burdened in addition with the same tax as that levied on domestic fabrics. This measure provoked determined opposition on the part, not only of the manufacturers, but also of the trade-unions and protectionists generally, and "nothing but the urgent necessities of a Government with an exhausted Treasury could have secured the passage of the law."

The state of things to be inferred by the following extract from the President's message to Congress at the opening of the fall session, September 16, 1880, is one of singular prosperity for Mexico:

The legal and peaceful renovation of the public powers, at all times an event of great political importance, has rarely had a significance so clear and opportune as to-day. Our relations with the friendly powers continue with the same reciprocal and benevolent cordiality, and are carefully maintained by the worthy representatives of those powers and by the agents of Mexico abroad. The Government of the United States of America appointed a new Minister Plenipotentiary, who, having been received in the month of April, of the present year, is now in the exercise of the functions of his high investiture. The

representative of Guatemala, being accredited to the Government of Mexico as Minister of the Republics of Salvador and Honduras, has been received in this character, which will contribute to strengthening the ties which unite us to the states of Central America. The Argentine Confederation has appointed a consul in Mexico. The Government of his Majesty the King of Spain has invited that of Mexico to take part in an international conference for adopting measures to prevent conflicts of jurisdiction in cases of maritime disasters. This invitation has been accepted, with the promise to appoint, at the proper time, a representative to attend the conference. The negotiations for the reestablishment of relations between Mexico and France have resulted to the satisfaction of both countries.* The general elections have been held without any serious disturbance of public order. The telegraphic network has continued to be extended over the vast surface of our territory, and the lines belonging to the States and private companies comprise a total of 9,375 miles. The estimate in force assigns \$620,000 for roads and bridges and drainage of the valley of Mexico and works in the ports.

With reference to the progress of railways, it is pleasant for me to state that in the State of Morelos work is continued with great activity in the direction of Cuautla, the road to Ozumba, forty-four miles, being already constructed and in operation. In the State of Hidalgo, ten miles have been terminated; on the line from Mérida† to Peto, five; on that from Vera Cruz to Alvarado, four; and on that from Puebla to Izúcar de Matamoros, eight. The railroad company of the district has increased the number of miles in operation to fifty-five. The railroad from Celaya to Leon has become the property of the Central Railway Company, with an extension of thirty-eight miles recently completed. On the San Martín Texmelucan Railway, which is being constructed on account of the Government, an extension of sixteen miles is prepared for the superstructure, and rails for that distance have been ordered. In Tehuantepec, three miles are ready to receive the rails, and three more will soon be completed. Work on the Central Railway is prosecuted with activity. The Executive has granted various railway concessions to the States of Tamaulipas, Guerrero, Chihuahua, Michoacan, Sinaloa, Oaxaca, Puebla, Vera Cruz, Tlaxcala, Hidalgo, and Yucatan, and has been authorized to reform the contracts made with foreign companies for the construction of international and interoceanic railways and to make new contracts, subjecting them to the law giving the authorization. In the exercise of those rights, the Executive has made contracts with several companies. To one has been given the line starting from this capital and passing by the cities of Querétaro, Leon, Zacatecas, and Chihuahua, and terminating on the frontier of the north, and besides, another line which will go to the Pacific, passing by Guadalajara. To another company has been granted a concession for a line to the Pacific, passing by Toluca, Morelia, and Zamora, it being stipulated that from a convenient point on this line another will branch to the frontier of the north, touching the cities of San Luis, Saltillo, and Monterey. The Mexican Cable Company, of New York, reports having made a contract for making and laying the cable, with a company in London, which engages to lay it during the month of January, 1881, from a point in the State of Texas to Vera Cruz, with a connection at the mouth of the Pánuco. The Executive, as on former occasions, is now prepared to pay the fifth installment of the debt which is due in January next to the United States Government, and will place the amount before the time in that country in order to fulfill this national

* Baron Boissy d'Angley was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to Mexico, October 15, 1880.

† For already existing railways, see "Annual Cyclopaedia" for 1873 and following years. Four lines are being built in Yucatan; that from Mérida to Progreso (twenty-five miles) was to be terminated by the end of 1880.

obligation. The payment of the Mexican creditors of the United States is being made with all regularity by the Treasury of Mexico, in conformity with the stipulations of the convention of the 4th of July, 1868. The Executive has submitted the question of the national debt to the study of a special committee. Two nautical schools have been established, one in Campeachy and one in Mazatlan, both for commercial pilots. Both the national arms factory and the ordnance department have been supplied with machinery and apparatus for increasing their production and hastening the completion of their different works. A practical medical military school has been established in the hospital of instruction, and professors appointed. The Executive appointed a special committee to study reforms of the general ordinance of the army. This committee, fulfilling the trust placed in it, has terminated its interesting work, which will be submitted to the deliberation of Congress. As a rule, peace has been preserved throughout the republic. The events which took place in Lower California, Sonora, and Sinaloa have not been of serious consequences.

MICHIGAN. The financial condition of the State, as shown by the annual report of the State Treasurer, is as follows:

Cash balance September 30, 1879.....	\$606,267 63
Receipts for the year.....	2,793,321 90
Total resources.....	\$3,399,589 43
Payments during the year.....	1,820,946 42
Cash balance September 30, 1880.....	\$1,578,643 01

There were demands against this balance, maturing on or before December 31, 1880, of \$260,820.12.

The indebtedness to trust funds at the close of the fiscal year, September 30th, was:

To the sinking fund.....	\$908,895 27
" " Canal fund.....	43,664 75
" " primary-school interest fund.....	94,381 73
Total.....	\$1,051,891 35

Adding the latter amount to the maturing indebtedness stated above, and the total demands against the Treasury aggregated \$1,312,711.47, leaving a net cash surplus of \$265,931.54.

The trust debt of the State, the principal of which never matures and can not be paid, is as follows:

To primary-school fund.....	\$2,554,590 96
" 5 per cent. primary-school fund.....	826,350 95
" University fund.....	465,753 46
" Agricultural College fund.....	153,137 70
" Normal School fund.....	56,635 32
" Railroad and other deposits.....	8,052 63
Total.....	\$3,564,556 02

On this debt the State pays seven per cent. interest, except on the Normal School fund, which draws six per cent. The interest paid to these several funds during the year was:

To primary-school fund.....	\$190,876 86
" Agricultural College fund.....	10,240 23
" University fund.....	32,393 51
" Normal School fund.....	3,373 72
Total.....	\$236,889 37

During the year the State received as interest on surplus funds, \$32,763.05; on specific taxes overdue, \$6,640.54; on United States bonds, \$13,500—total, \$52,903.59; and paid a total interest on its bonded debt of \$55,770. Of the bonded debt of the State, \$15,149.97 is overdue, draws no interest, and has a reserve

for its payment. The debt to become due is \$890,000. The sinking fund, applicable to its payment, amounts to \$1,208,895.27, leaving a surplus of \$318,895.27. By a decision of the Supreme Court, made since the date of the Treasurer's report, the constitutional provision setting apart the specific taxes for the payment of the bonded debt of the State, is held complied with by holding a sufficient reserve for that purpose; and the surplus on hand, with the future proceeds from specific taxes, is ordered turned over to the primary-school fund.

The State taxes for the fiscal year, as apportioned to the several counties by the Auditor-General, October 6, 1880, were:

For general purposes.....	\$518,000 00
" the university.....	64,250 00
" State Normal School.....	17,800 00
" Agricultural College.....	12,040 12
" State Public School.....	43,950 00
" Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind.....	40,100 00
" State Reform School.....	35,500 00
" Michigan Reform School for Girls.....	10,000 00
" School for Blind.....	10,000 00
" Military purposes.....	46,691 00
" Fish Commission.....	5,000 00
" Improving Capitol grounds.....	1,500 00
Total current taxes.....	\$504,881 21
Add indebtedness of counties to State.....	262,322 14
Total apportionment.....	\$1,067,153 35

The State taxes are apportioned on an aggregate property valuation, real and personal, of \$630,000,000.

The annual report of the Commissioner of the State Land-Office shows:

Acres held by State, September 30, 1879.....	2,501,659 41
Patented to State by United States during year.....	1,519 95
Forfeited to State during year.....	10,581 50
Total.....	2,513,760 96
Sold during year.....	94,040 05
Held by State, September 30, 1880.....	2,719,720 51

Of these lands, 2,136,727 58 acres are swamp-lands, 426,860 39 acres primary-school lands, 151,345 45 Agricultural College lands, 2,195 63 acres salt-spring lands, 1,760 Asylum lands, 454 50 asset lands, and 377 26 acres university lands. Of the whole amount, 1,739,427 83 acres are reserved from sale, for homesteads, on drainage contracts, and for railroads, leaving 980,292 98 acres subject to sale, September 30, 1880. The receipts for lands sold during the year, and for interest, penalties, trespasses, fees, etc., were \$287,919.93. The sales for the year have been mainly to actual settlers.

The workings of the liquor-tax law for 1879 (reports for 1880 not yet made) show:

Number of dealers paying taxes.....	4,296
Amount of taxes collected.....	\$398,819 04
Taxes uncollected.....	41,129 61

Three fifths of the uncollected tax are chargeable to the county of Wayne, in which the city of Detroit is located. The saloons or dealers also increased in Wayne County 137, the total increase in the State, Wayne excluded, being only 93. During the year 1880 a concerted effort was made to array the temperance sentiment of the State against the tax law, against any regulating or restraining legislation, and in favor

of prohibition. The Legislature of 1881 will be pressed to adopt and submit a constitutional amendment to the people, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of spirituous, malt, and vinous liquors, except for mechanical, medicinal, and sacramental purposes, and declaring that there shall be no property-right in such liquors made or held for any other purpose.

The following extract from the message of Governor Jerome to the Legislature, at the opening of the session for 1881, is a favorable statement of the railroad interests of the State:

The forty-nine railroad corporations doing business in this State own a total of 5,358½ miles of railroad, and operate 6,166.71 miles. Within the State on January 1st last there were 3,657.74 miles. During the year there have been constructed 260 miles, making a total at present of 3,918 miles. The increase since 1878 in miles of road is 353, and the number of corporations has increased eight. The portion of these roads in Michigan represented on January 1, 1880, a capital stock of \$104,266,695.15, and a debt of \$105,802,008, or a total stock and debt liability of \$210,068,703.15, an average of \$57,431.28 per mile. These roads are improving financially, yet twenty-nine out of the forty-nine are unable to pay their interest obligations after paying current expenses. The volume of business for 1879 was very large, and the freight-rates were the lowest ever reached, the average being nine and two tenths mills per ton per mile. While the business has largely increased, the reduction in freight-rates has made the gross earnings much smaller than they were on a smaller traffic in 1873. The gross receipts for 1880, partly estimated, but from reliable data, will show an increase over the amount for 1879 of about 18 per cent. The increase in specific taxes to be assessed on the business for 1880 will be still more marked. These taxes for 1878 amounted to \$410,453.06; for 1879, to \$445,399.80; and, for 1880, will probably reach from \$550,000 to \$575,000.

The total income of the reporting roads from all sources, for the year 1879, was \$46,619,207.05, an increase over the previous year of

\$3,582,960.38. The total operating expenses of the year were \$26,906,685.44, an increase over the previous year of \$1,272,950.77. These railroads employed in the State 14,774 persons, and have within the State 809 stations—one for each 4.52 miles of road. The following is a statement of the extension of track and new road built during 1880:

<i>Chicago and Northwestern:</i>	Miles.
Menominee River, Quinnesec northwest to Wisconsin line.....	7½
<i>Chicago and West Michigan:</i>	
Hart branch, Mear's northeast to Hart.....	8½
Detroit, Butler and St. Louis, Detroit southwest to Adrian.....	57
<i>Detroit, Lansing and Northern:</i>	
Stanton branch, extending from Mecosta northwest to Big Rapids.....	15
<i>Detroit, Mackinac and Marquette:</i>	
Point St. Ignace northwest.....	34
Marquette.....	25
<i>Flint and Pere Marquette:</i>	
Clare County branch extending north to Harrison....	6
Round Lake branch, Butler Junction north to Webber	4
Michigan Air Line, extending from Rochester west by south to Pontiac.....	10
Port Huron and Northwestern (three-feet gauge), extending from Crowell to Sand Beach.....	44½
Extension in Port Huron.....	1½
Mariette branch, Balmer's northwest to Mariette.....	38½
St. Joseph Valley, Buchanan northwest.....	2
Tawas and Bay County, extending from Camp Watson southwest.....	11
Total.....	255

The report of the Commissioner of Insurance shows a large increase of fire and marine risks during the year (about \$7,000,000). The capital represented by the stock companies doing business in the State is \$46,077,290; admitted assets, \$126,267,148; surplus as regards policyholders, \$82,343,172; and a surplus over capital and all other liabilities of \$36,298,781. But a single company doing business in the State shows an impairment of capital. The business done in the State during the year was:

CLASSIFICATION OF COMPANIES.	MICHIGAN BUSINESS, 1880.			
	Risks written.	Premiums received.	Losses incurred.	Losses paid.
Michigan companies, totals.....	\$10,812,165 00	\$96,987 15	\$34,499 44	\$31,165 12
Companies of other States, totals.....	140,520,406 12	1,526,188 45	706,105 12	624,950 10
Canadian companies, United States branch, totals.....	2,698,998 00	48,727 22	26,947 49	25,545 49
Foreign companies, United States branch, totals.....	22,625,620 33	805,506 23	189,157 71	117,829 05
Aggregates.....	\$176,357,129 45	\$1,977,359 05	\$906,709 76	\$799,489 76

The report does not cover the local mutual fire-insurance companies incorporated under the laws of this State. Fifty such companies were in operation in 1879, with a membership of 69,000 and risks in force aggregating \$120,000,000. Michigan has one stock life-insurance company, with risks amounting to \$8,000,000. The life-insurance risks held by other companies on the lives of citizens of this State exceed \$30,000,000. A large number of co-operative life companies are in operation, with an aggregate of risks not ascertainable.

The reports of the fifteen savings-banks of the State, dated October 4, 1880, show: capital, \$1,160,000; surplus, \$116,131.64; due depositors, \$8,236,094; due other banks, \$114,926.24; total liabilities (including lesser items),

\$9,772,941.19. Their leading resources were: loans and discounts, \$4,505,715.90; bonds and mortgages, \$2,732,488.55; due from banks and bankers, \$1,158,535.49; cash, \$968,895.18; real estate and fixtures, \$377,231.83.

The reports of the thirteen State banks bear date July 1, 1880, and show: capital, \$873,750; surplus, \$167,809.39; due depositors, \$2,533,833; total liabilities, \$3,744,129.38. Leading resources: loans and discounts, \$2,464,756.27; bonds, \$84,671.17; cash, \$422,648.76; real estate and fixtures, \$82,329.83; due from banks and bankers, \$656,702.21. The banking business of the State is very largely done by the national banks, whose latest reports are not accessible.

From the second annual report of the Secre-

tary of State relating to farms and farm products the following tables are taken. The first gives the "totals of the agricultural statistics of the State, as shown by the cereal reports for 1878-'79":

PRODUCTS.	1879.	1878.
Wheat, acres harvested.....	1,605,636	1,575,530
Wheat, bushels raised.....	30,983,340	29,511,589
Wheat, average number of bushels per acre.....	19-30	18-77
Corn, acres harvested.....	742,859	761,123
Corn, bushels raised—ears.....	42,764,123	36,663,299
Corn, average number of bushels per acre.....	75-57	45-17
Oats, acres harvested.....	440,723	453,685
Oats, bushels raised.....	15,089,855	13,454,517
Oats, average number of bushels per acre.....	34-25	29-52
Clover-seed, acres harvested.....	194,899	122,043
Clover-seed, bushels raised.....	313,063	166,465
Clover-seed, average number of bushels per acre.....	1-61	1-36
Barley, acres harvested.....	44,007	40,169
Barley, bushels raised.....	991,659	806,463
Barley, average number of bushels per acre.....	22-53	20-14
Peas, acres harvested.....	33,079	89,772
Peas, bushels raised.....	537,732	641,063
Peas, average number of bushels per acre.....	15-95	16-13
Potatoes, acres harvested.....	89,441	75,826
Potatoes, bushels raised.....	8,923,475	6,285,406
Potatoes, average number of bushels per acre.....	89-13	105-39
Hay, acres harvested.....	943,371	856,536
Hay, tons raised.....	1,051,115	1,124,931
Hay, average number of tons per acre.....	1-11	1-31
Sheep, number sheared.....	1,828,580	1,670,790
Wool, pounds sheared.....	9,582,034	8,666,467
Wool, average number of pounds per head.....	5-23	5-19
Apples, bushels sold.....	1,831,910	8,944,206
Peaches, bushels sold.....	229,570	107,244
Grapes, pounds sold.....	2,956,437	1,014,950
Cherries, currants, plums, and berries, bushels sold.....	161,316	100,493

The second gives the "farm statistics for 1879-'80":

	1880.	1879.
Farms, number of.....	118,941	111,816
Farms, acres of improved land in.....	6,217,209	5,785,102
Farms, acres of unimproved land in.....	4,761,058	4,590,486
Farms, total number of acres in.....	10,977,105	10,315,588
Farms, average number of acres in each.....	92-19	92-63
Wheat, acres now on the ground.....	1,532,366	1,599,992
Horses, number of.....	293,210	272,653
Milch-cows, number of.....	304,142	291,243
Cattle, other than milch-cows, number of.....	344,791	338,910
Hogs, number of.....	468,629	493,109
Sheep, number of.....	1,892,311	1,772,312
Apple-orchards, number of acres in.....	226,349	229,263
Peach-orchards, number of acres in.....	13,901	10,771

Ten counties produced each over one million bushels of wheat. Clinton, the largest wheat-producing county, is credited with 1,509,611 bushels. Three other counties, Ionia, Washtenaw, and Calhoun, had each over 1,449,000 bushels. Twenty towns raised each over 100,000 bushels, one of them going over 150,000 bushels. The largest township yield was 31-90 bushels, and sixteen townships report an average yield of over twenty-five bushels per acre.

Since the establishment of the Fish Commission in 1873, the work of stocking the inland

lakes and streams has progressed with favorable results. The total "plant" up to date of latest report was:

Young shad.....	40,000
Atlantic salmon.....	220,000
Landlocked salmon.....	100,000
California salmon.....	1,769,000
White-fish in inland lakes.....	16,000,000
White-fish in great lakes and Detroit River.....	64,000,000 = 80,000,000
Lake-trout in inland waters.....	1,080,000
Brook-trout.....	500,000
Silver-eels.....	1,000,000

Considerable work has also been done with the grayling, bass, and pike.

The total lumber cut by the leading Michigan districts is given as 3,398,187,227 feet, an increase over the cut of 1879 of 651,510,514 feet. The lumber on hand at the close of the year was estimated at 886,617,679 feet. These estimates are exclusive of the millions of feet cut into shingles and stave-bolts and square timber and logs shipped from the State or towed down the lakes to supply the mills of Ohio and New York ports. Some of the lumber centers are reported as follows:

	Feet.
Saginaw River mills.....	863,356,009
Huron Shore.....	363,327,609
Flint and Peze Marquette mills.....	213,771,033
Mackinaw Division of Michigan Central Railroad.....	48,275,513
Manistee.....	208,880,000
Muskegon.....	594,458,526
Miscellaneous points.....	705,361,242

An article prepared for the Saginaw "Courier" says:

There has been an extraordinary demand for pine-timber lands during the past year, and prices have appreciated \$10 to \$50 per acre, according to locality and quality of the timber. Good tracts of timber range in value from \$50 to \$100 per acre, and sales have been made the past year in which it seems hardly possible that the buyers can realize enough to save loss in the end. A tract of pine on one of the tributaries of the Tittabawassee, which was lumbered over nine years ago, is a five-mile haul and was bought five years ago for \$2,500, was sold last fall for \$6,000 cash. Another eighty-acre tract on the same stream, ten years ago, was purchased for four dollars per acre. The owner within the past two months has refused \$8,000 cash for it, holds it at \$10,000, and it is said to be only an ordinary tract as regards quality. About 1,640 acres in Gladwin County, on the Cedar River, were recently sold for \$35,000 cash, and during the fall 4,000 acres in Montcalm County were sold for about \$225,000. These are only instances showing the value of timbered lands.

The same is true of other lumber-producing localities, and the fact is important as showing the rapidity with which the forests of the State are being stripped of their treasures.

The salt production of the State for the inspection year ending November 30, 1880, was as follows:

	Barrels.
Fine.....	2,262,987
Packers.....	6,691
Bulk.....	343,257
Second quality.....	48,623
Total.....	2,676,588

This was produced in the following localities:

	Barrels.
In Huron County.....	254,841
In Iosco County.....	149,400
In Bay County.....	1,083,466
In Saginaw County.....	1,145,150
In Midland County.....	83,731

The average price obtained for salt during the year was 75 cents a barrel, against \$1.02 obtained in 1879. The improvements made during the year have materially increased the salt-producing capacity of the State. The bulk of Michigan salt finds a market in the Western States. The Saginaw "Courier's" annual review says:

The expense of putting down a salt-well varies, of course, according to the depth. In Saginaw County the average depth of the well is 800 feet, while down the river the average is about 1,000 feet. The average expense of sinking a well, including drill-house and machinery, is about \$3,000. The expense of erecting a block ranges from \$3,000 to \$25,000, according to capacity, and the blocks produce from 75 to 250 barrels per day.

The following statistics from the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction show continual progress in the public schools of the State:

Number of districts, September, 1889.....	6,352
Increase over previous year.....	100
Number of schoolhouses.....	6,490
Increase.....	75
Number of children between five and twenty years.....	506,221
Increase during year.....	19,223
Number of children attending public schools.....	362,556
Increase over last year.....	20,418
Number of sittings in public schools.....	446,029
Increase over 1879.....	4,738
Number of private and select schools.....	264
Number of teachers employed, male.....	4,072
Number of teachers employed, female.....	9,877
Increase over 1879.....	333
Wages paid teachers.....	\$1,917,983 99
Increase over 1879.....	37,083 75
Estimated value of school property.....	8,977,344 00
Received from one-mill tax.....	879,757 93
" " primary-school fund.....	223,525 21
" " tuition from non-residents.....	5,859 77
" " direct taxation.....	2,074,073 37
" " all other sources.....	286,320 78
Total receipts of year.....	\$2,998,602 97
Total expenditures of year, including build- ings, payments on debts, etc.....	\$3,109,915 14

The income from the primary-school interest fund was forty-six cents on the dollar, but a recent decision of the Supreme Court will add to that sum the coming year over \$300,000, increasing the distributive ratio per scholar to over one dollar; and unless the Constitution of the State shall be so amended as to turn the specific taxes into some other fund, the increase will be still larger the next and future years. The receipts from specific taxes during 1880, exclusive of the Upper Peninsular mining taxes, were \$584,889.24, with no prospective diminution. This will meet the interest on both the bonded and trust fund debt, to which it must be first applied, and give over \$350,000 annually to the primary-school interest fund.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction finds the weakest point in the school system in the examination and licensing of teachers by a single township superintendent, the creature of a political caucus. He recommends:

1. The county should be the unit of territory over which the examining authority should have control; 2. The choice of this authority should be removed so far as possible from the influence of the political caucus; and, 3. The examining authority should be a board rather than an individual.

The total attendance at the State Normal School during the school year, 1879-'80, was 462. Of these, 71 were in the professional department. At the annual commencement 56 diplomas were given to graduates in the several courses. The courses of study are now so arranged that an applicant for a diploma in either professional course, having the requisite preliminary training, may complete the course in one year. This change makes it more of a professional than a preparatory school, and less a competitor of the high-schools of the State.

The number of students in attendance upon the State Agricultural College during the year was 264, classified as follows: resident graduates, 12; seniors, 26; juniors, 38; sophomores, 57; freshmen, 83; specials, 48. The 26 seniors were graduated at the annual commencement. Thirty-two of the students came from without the State. The expenses for the fiscal year were \$62,652.13, and the cash earnings of students and farm were \$21,690.56. The accumulated land fund is now \$153,137.70.

In his annual report to the Board of Regents of the State University, Acting President Frieze (President Angell being temporarily absent as Minister to China) says: "The year has been distinguished by a largely increased attendance, by a decided improvement in all departments of the university in the standard of scholarship, and by uninterrupted order and harmony in all its internal working." The faculties number fifty-two officers and instructors, with very little change from the previous year. The law department was, however, materially strengthened by the establishment of another (the Tappan) professorship, and the appointment to it of ex-Governor and ex-United States Senator Alpheus Fitch, eminent in his profession and ripe in experience. During the year attendance upon the several departments was 1,430, an increase of 54 over that of the previous year, as follows: In the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts, 448; Department of Medicine and Surgery, 353; of Law, 395; in School of Pharmacy, 81; in Homeopathic Medical College, 70; in College of Dental Surgery, 83. The President says: "This increase is the more gratifying, inasmuch as it has taken place in spite of more stringent requirements for admission and graduation, especially in the professional schools." Four hundred and ten degrees were conferred on examination, and four honorary degrees. Of the degrees conferred on examination, 67 were conferred upon the several graduates from the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts, and 343 from the professional schools.

Changing the fiscal year from July 1st to September 30th, to make it correspond with the fiscal year of the State and its other institutions, the receipts were for fifteen months (including balance of \$28,710.49, July 1, 1879), \$296,163.66; the expenditures, \$277,096.42; balance on hand, September 30, 1880, \$19,067.24. The expenditures include \$39,022.88 on account of the new museum building, and \$19,898.01 on account of the central steam-heating building and apparatus. The receipts from students were \$76,707.93; and from interest on endowment fund, \$51,451.78. The payments for salaries of officers, professors, and employees aggregated \$124,777.92.

The seventh annual report of the State Public School for Dependent Children, located at Coldwater, is a flattering statement of the work that institution is doing for a class of children which in former years found a home in the poor-houses of the several counties, or had not even that apology for a home. The tables accompanying the Superintendent's report show: Number received during the year, 168 (114 boys and 54 girls); indentured, 216; returned to counties from which they were sent to the school, 31; died, 1; number remaining in the school September 30, 1880, 292. The average attendance during the year was 285½; supported, clothed, educated, cared for when sick, etc., at a total cost for the year of \$34,966.78, or \$122.33 per capita. The inventory of real and personal property aggregates \$187,228.18. The school is wholly dependent for support upon the biennial appropriations made by the Legislature, and is yearly proving itself more and more deserving increased bounties from the State.

The State Reform School, to which only boys are admitted, closed its twenty-fourth year September 30th. The statistics following are gathered from the report of the superintendent: Inmates of school September 30, 1879, 307; received during year, 177; released, 168; in school September 30, 1880, 216. These are classified: White, 183; colored, 31; Indians, 2. They were committed for the following offenses: Grand larceny, 7; burglary, 10; assault and battery, 15; larceny, 115; attempt to murder, 1; vagrancy and disorderly, 29. One hundred and twenty-five were natives of Michigan; 93 had white American-born parents, and 14 colored parents of American birth. Twenty-six had no father, 37 no mother, and 11 had lost both parents. Sixty-nine had been in jail one or more times before being committed to the school. One hundred and twelve were of Protestant parentage, 44 of Catholic, and 21 could not give the religious connection or preferences of parents. Exclusive of cost of alterations, repairs, etc., the cost of the school, including salaries of officers, teachers, other employees, food, clothing, and all expenses of boys, was \$29,873.78, or \$96 per capita. The prison system has been entirely abolished, and neither walls, nor cells, nor grated win-

dows, nor degrading punishments are parts of the machinery of discipline.

The biennial report of the Board of Trustees of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb shows an aggregate attendance during the two years of 358, with an attendance September 30, 1880, of 243. This number is six in excess of the number of pupils September 30, 1879, notwithstanding the transfer of 38 blind pupils to the new school for the blind, now temporarily located at Lansing. The graduates for the year ending September 30, 1880, numbered 16 deaf-mutes and 5 blind. The trustees commend the administration of the new principal, Thomas MacIntire, Ph. D., who came to the charge of the institution at the beginning of the fiscal year. The total expenses of the year were \$46,354.34, and the earnings of the several industries, \$4,618.98.

The reports of the two Insane Asylums also cover a period of two years. During that period, in the Michigan Asylum, at Kalamazoo, 935 patients received treatment; 278 were discharged—69 recovered, 121 improved, 33 unimproved, and 55 by death—leaving under treatment, September 30th, 657 patients. Since the opening of this institution, 3,164 patients have been treated, and, as the statistics of so long a period may be professionally important, the following table is appended:

ASSIGNED CAUSES.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Intemperance (use of narcotics included).....	128	16	144
Exhaustion from vicious habits..	261	9	270
Prolonged draft on vitality (physical).....	145	200	345
Prolonged draft on vitality (emotional).....	242	344	586
Sudden prostration of vitality, not diseases.....	19	28	42
Acute diseases and injuries, general.....	55	39	94
Acute diseases immediately affecting the nervous system.....	55	4	59
Chronic diseases, general.....	84	128	212
Chronic diseases, especially affecting the nervous system.....	21	5	26
Diseases and disorders of female sexual system.....	...	126	126
Puerperal.....	...	125	125
Abortion.....	...	23	23
Epilepsy.....	100	89	189
Popular errors and delusions.....	33	14	47
Exposure in the army.....	20	...	20
Unassigned.....	251	206	457
Defective training.....	5	15	20
Defective organization, heredity not established.....	24	27	51
Previous attacks.....	104	85	189
Heredity.....	51	58	109
Total.....	1,628	1,536	3,164

During the same period the Eastern Asylum at Pontiac received 363 patients and treated 669. The number discharged from the institution was: Recovered, 54; improved, 79; unimproved, 40; died, 51; not insane, 2. Remaining under treatment September 30, 1880: Males, 231; females, 212; total, 443. The medical superintendent says that the number of recovered seems small, but claims as the reason the extreme care which has been exercised in

making up the returns. The capacity of the two institutions is found short of the demand upon them. The number of insane in the State needing asylum care is estimated at one in each 1,000 inhabitants, or over 1,600, while only 1,100 remained in the two asylums September 30th. At that date numerous applications were on file, and vacancies were anxiously being waited for.

The Commissioners appointed under an act of the Legislature, approved May 31, 1879, to locate a school for the blind, a class before cared for at the Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, at Flint, being unable to agree upon a permanent site, made a temporary lease of a building at Lansing, and the school was opened on the 29th day of September, 1880, with 33 pupils in attendance. From applications on file, and the number of blind children in the State known to be entitled to the privileges of the school, the Commissioners estimate that the number will reach 75 during the year. The design of the school is to educate the blind to maintain themselves, and the teaching force includes instructors in instrumental and vocal music and sewing. At the date of the report but \$6,081.87 of the appropriation of \$45,000 had been expended.

The first annual report of the Board of Control of the Michigan Reform School for Girls, established under an act of the Legislature of 1879, shows the location of the school at Adrian on forty acres of land lying just north of the city limits. The site, together with \$3,000, was donated by the citizens of Adrian. The school has not yet been opened. Two cottages are in process of erection.

The annual report of the State House of Correction and Reformatory at Ionia shows:

Inmates September 30, 1879.....	232
Received during the year.....	866
Discharged by expiration of sentence.....	730
Discharged by order of courts.....	26
Escaped.....	8
Died.....	8
Pardoned by the Governor.....	8
In institution September 30, 1880.....	837
Average daily number of inmates.....	247
Average cost of each inmate per year.....	\$121 77

The infractions of the law for which the inmates were committed include almost every crime or offense known to the law, except murder, and range from simple assault, or "failing to file a liquor bond," to manslaughter; 656 are credited with their first conviction, 132 with their second, 59 with their third, while one each is charged with a ninth and tenth; 146 claim to have been temperate, 172 moderate drinkers, and 548 confess to intemperate habits. Evidencing remarkable degeneration, 802 report temperate parents and 798 pious parents, while only 34 acknowledge intemperate parents and 44 parents not pious. The warden questions the correctness of these figures, and asserts that "idleness and illiteracy are undoubted producers of crime," regardless, it is to be presumed, of the alleged or real piety or impiety of parents.

The annual report of the Inspectors of the State Prison gives the following facts:

In prison October 1, 1879.....	777
Admitted during the year.....	281
.....	1,058
Discharged by expiration of sentence.....	253
Died.....	5
Released on order for new trial.....	2
Released on order of Supreme Court.....	4
Pardoned by the Governor.....	13
Escaped.....	3
.....	280
Remaining in prison September 30, 1880.....	778

The average number in prison during the year was 812.5, and the total expense of sustaining the prison \$84,517.66, or an average of \$104 and a fraction per man. The net earnings for the year were \$95,129.67, or \$10,-612.01 in excess of the expenses.

The following table, carefully compiled from official sources for the Lansing "Republican," bears flattering testimony to the growth of the State in population during the last decade:

The total population of this State, June 1, 1880, is officially reported by the Census Bureau to be 1,636,335, of whom 862,278 are males and 774,057 females; 1,247,989 are native-born and 388,346 foreign-born; 1,614,087 are classed as white and 22,248 as colored. The division by counties is as follows, with comparative statements of the population in the various counties organized in 1874, when the last State census was taken, and in 1870, when the ninth census of the United States was taken:

COUNTIES.	1880.	1874.	1870.
Alcona.....	3,107	1,214	696
Allegan.....	37,806	32,381	32,105
Alpena.....	8,789	4,807	2,756
Antrim.....	5,237	3,240	1,955
Benzie.....	1,504
Barry.....	25,319	22,051	22,199
Bay.....	38,081	24,832	15,900
Benzie.....	3,438	2,663	2,184
Berrien.....	36,780	35,029	35,104
Branch.....	27,941	25,726	26,226
Calhoun.....	38,452	35,655	36,569
Cass.....	22,008	20,525	21,094
Charlevoix.....	5,114	2,360	1,724
Cheboygan.....	6,524	3,070	2,196
Chippewa.....	5,243	2,170	1,689
Clare.....	4,137	1,354	866
Clinton.....	27,534	23,661	22,845
Crawford.....	1,139
Delta.....	6,312	4,741	2,542
Eaton.....	31,223	26,907	25,171
Emmett.....	6,640	1,272	1,211
Genesee.....	39,219	34,563	33,900
Gladwin.....	1,127
Grand Traverse.....	8,422	5,349	4,448
Gratiot.....	21,937	18,886	11,810
Hillsdale.....	32,726	31,566	31,654
Houghton.....	22,473	19,030	13,879
Huron.....	20,039	11,964	9,049
Ingham.....	33,677	29,198	25,268
Ionia.....	38,572	28,376	27,681
Iosco.....	6,573	4,752	3,163
Isabella.....	12,159	6,059	4,113
Isle Royale.....	55
Jackson.....	42,031	37,988	36,047
Kalamazoo.....	34,342	32,284	32,054
Kalkaska.....	2,937	1,259	424
Kent.....	73,252	62,671	50,408
Keweenaw.....	4,270	5,415	4,205
Lake.....	3,238	1,513	548
Lapeer.....	30,138	25,140	21,345
Leelanaw.....	6,233	5,081	4,576
Lenawee.....	43,843	46,084	43,595
Livingston.....	22,251	20,329	19,836

COUNTIES.	1880.	1874.	1870.
MacKinnac.....	2,902	1,496	1,716
Macomb.....	31,627	28,805	27,616
Manistee.....	12,538	8,471	6,074
Manitou.....	1,384	657	891
Marquette.....	25,898	21,946	15,038
Mason.....	10,063	5,361	3,263
Meecosta.....	13,973	9,132	5,642
Menominee.....	11,988	3,490	1,791
Midland.....	6,894	5,306	3,285
Missaukee.....	1,553	606	130
Monroe.....	38,623	30,111	27,483
Montcalm.....	38,148	20,815	13,629
Muskegon.....	26,586	19,375	14,894
Newaygo.....	14,688	8,788	7,294
Oakland.....	41,537	35,082	40,867
Ocean.....	11,699	8,860	7,222
Ogemaw.....	1,914	12
Ontonagon.....	2,565	2,406	2,845
Osceola.....	10,777	6,216	2,093
Oscoda.....	467	70
Otsego.....	1,974
Ottawa.....	38,125	29,929	26,651
Presque Isle.....	3,118	1,615	355
Roscommon.....	1,459
Saginaw.....	59,095	48,409	39,097
Sanilac.....	26,341	16,292	14,552
Schoolcraft.....	1,575	1,299
Shiawassee.....	27,059	21,773	20,898
St. Clair.....	46,197	40,688	36,661
St. Joseph.....	26,626	25,906	26,275
Tuscola.....	25,789	16,998	13,714
Van Buren.....	30,807	29,156	28,829
Washtenaw.....	41,843	38,723	41,434
Wayne.....	166,426	144,903	119,088
Wexford.....	6,815	3,011	650
Total.....	1,636,335	1,384,081	1,184,059

The following incorporated cities have a population exceeding 5,000:

Detroit.....	116,403
Grand Rapids.....	82,037
Bay City.....	20,654
East Saginaw.....	19,047
Jackson.....	16,107
Kalamazoo.....	11,840
Muskegon.....	11,299
Saginaw City.....	10,531
Port Huron.....	8,871
Flint.....	8,413
Ann Arbor.....	8,103
Adrian.....	7,548
Battle Creek.....	7,070
Manistee.....	6,902
West Bay City.....	6,399
Alpena.....	6,154
Ishpeming.....	6,039

The Republican party of the State held a convention at Jackson, August 5th, nominated a full State ticket, and put forth the following platform:

1. The Republican party of the State of Michigan, assembled by its delegated representatives in the city of Jackson, upon the spot where the national Republican party was born, after an unbroken supremacy in the State of a quarter of a century, and in the nation of twenty years, grateful to an overruling Providence and a loyal people for the grand achievements of the past, here declares itself now, as ever, faithful to the great principles of liberty, equality before the law, the perpetual union of the States, the supremacy of the nation, free thought, speech, press, and ballot, and the inviolable sacredness of the constitutional results of the war for the Union.

2. With pride and satisfaction it challenges scrutiny of its records during the past twenty-five years—a record unequalled in the history of parties since the foundation of the government.

Among the accomplished results we here recall the consecration of the Territories to freedom; the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; the preservation of the integrity of the Union against the great

est and most cruel rebellion in history; the provision of free homesteads for freemen; the emancipation of four million slaves; the conferring of equal civil and political rights on the emancipated race; the creation of a war currency never equaled, and the restoration of that currency, by good faith and honesty, to equality with the best money in the world; the payment with heroic fidelity of more than two thirds of the cost of the war; the vast reduction of the principal and interest of the public debt, and the elevation of the public credit until the nation's four per cent. bonds are eagerly sought at par; the linking of the two oceans with bonds of iron; the enactment of just and equal pension and bond laws for the defenders of the Union and their widows and orphans; the settlement of momentous international questions by peaceable arbitration, and the elevation of the United States to the rank of a first-class nation, grand in peace and mighty in war, making a "government of the people, by the people, and for the people," respected around the whole earth.

During this same period the Democratic party has been as a party abjectly pro-slavery, timeserving, unpatriotic, in part treasonable, reactionary, and obstructive. It prostrated the nation's credit; it undermined the bulwarks of the Constitution with the pernicious doctrine of State supremacy; it armed the rebellion; it encouraged treason; it discouraged the defense of the nation's life; it opposed the draft; inaugurated bloody riots; declared for a truce with rebels in arms; pronounced the war a failure; defamed the greenback out of a share of its honest value; bitterly opposed freedom for the slave, civil rights for the freedman, and the franchise for the black citizen; denounced the constitutional amendments as "revolutionary and void"; denied freedom of speech, press, and ballot in the South; by shot-guns, intimidation, and tissue-balloons, gained control of both Houses of Congress; and attempted to revolutionize the government by refusing necessary supplies, and by coercion of the Executive, after having failed to steal the Presidency by bribery.

It is now conspiring, under pretenses of repentance false upon their face, to install "the lost cause" in the capital of the nation; to reorganize the Supreme Court; to undo all war legislation, and to make it easy to annul the constitutional amendments, and bankrupt the Treasury with rebel war claims and compensation for emancipated slaves.

With this record behind us, and our face set courageously and confidently to the duties and responsibilities of the future, we do here declare:

1. That the administration of the Constitution, the protection of the Union, and the enforcement of the constitutional amendments, should be intrusted to their friends, and not to their enemies, who have relentlessly sought to destroy them each and all.

2. That the blight of slavery will not have been wholly eradicated until all men shall be in fact, as they are of right, equal before the law.

3. We demand for every citizen, rich and poor, white and black, North and South, the right and privilege of casting his ballot once, and but once, at each election, and of having that ballot fairly counted and returned, without terror of shot-guns, frauds of tissue-balloons, or cheats of cipher dispatches.

4. We believe that the United States are a Union, not a Confederacy; a nation and not a league. The Constitution is a supreme law, and not a treaty between foreign powers.

5. The Union must and shall be preserved; the public faith must be maintained; the public debt must be faithfully paid; the pensions of the nation's defenders and their dependents must be sacredly guarded; the public lands preserved for actual settlers; fidelity, intelligence, and efficiency, exacted in the public service, without destroying the freedom of the office-holding citizen; specie resumption must be maintained; the laws for the protection of the purity of elections must be adhered to and enforced; education must be fostered; industry, economy, temperance, and morality

encouraged and stimulated, and the public funds strictly devoted to public and unsectarian uses.

6. In collecting revenues for the current expenses of the Government and the payment of the public debt, imposts should be so arranged as to relieve from taxation as far as practicable the necessities of the poor, and at the same time to afford incidental protection to American labor from competition with the ill-paid labor of other lands.

7. The Republican party has ever been the friend of the laboring class.

It has abolished the competition of slave-labor.

It enacted the homestead law, placed on the statute-book "the eight-hour law," and framed beneficent measures for the protection of immigrants.

It recognizes the fact that the great mass of our people must ever belong to the laboring class; and, while it denounces all agrarianism and communism, and will hold sacred all rights of property and contract, it will make the rights and interests of the great laboring class the objects of its jealous care.

8. *Resolved*, That the ticket for State officers this day nominated is confidently commended to the electors of Michigan as one eminently worthy of their support.

9. The Republicans of Michigan recognize in James Abram Garfield, our nominee for President, the patriotic volunteer soldier, the wise and experienced statesman, the profound political economist, and the pure and noble man; and in Chester A. Arthur a patriot, jurist, and statesman worthy of the great Empire State, and to be associated in honor with our great leader. And, without reference to our original choice, we now pledge ourselves to work earnestly and unceasingly, from now until November, to secure their election.

The Democracy convened at Detroit, August 12th, nominated a ticket, and adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Michigan enthusiastically approve and reaffirm the platform of principles adopted by the Democratic National Convention at Cincinnati, and especially on the subjects of centralization, sumptuary laws, home rule, honest money, a free ballot, and a fair count.

Resolved, That the malignant effort of the Republican Convention, held last week at Jackson, to transmit to another generation a tradition of hate, was not an acceptance in a proper spirit of the significant rebuke to the hinderers of reconciliation which had just been given by the colored voters of Alabama when they organized in Hancock clubs, and wearing Hancock badges, aided to prevent any breaches of the public peace and to outvote the allied Republicans and Greenbackers in every county of that State, and to give the first response of seventy-five thousand majority to the nominations made at Cincinnati.

Resolved, That the flagrant and continued interference with the administration of justice in the State courts by Federal officials demands the attention of Congress; and the House of Representatives should apply the remedy constitutionally provided to check the growing evil.

Resolved, That reforms should be made in our State legislation by reducing to proper sums and percentages the expenses of advertising tax-sales and legal notices, the interest charged upon delinquent taxes, the sums paid for official salaries to those filling newly-created offices and the numbers employed therein; and that such reform is not likely to be accomplished as against the interests of a subsidized party press and of an official class, except by a change of administration.

Resolved, That in the hero of Gettysburg, who led the Union army to its most glorious victory, we recognize a most worthy standard-bearer to lead the Democracy of the nation to a certain victory in November next, and we pledge to Hancock and English our enthusiastic and earnest support, and will make

any and every sacrifice to an honest effort to secure for them the electoral vote of the Peninsular State.

Resolved, That we hereby reiterate, as we shall at every recurring convention, our grateful remembrance of the dead, and our thanks to the living soldiers and sailors, through whose sacrifices and blood the Union was preserved, and by whose votes its perpetuity may be maintained by the election of our most illustrious leader, General Hancock.

Tickets were also placed in nomination by the National-Greenback party and by the Prohibitionists. The result of the election was an unexpectedly large majority for the Republican ticket. The vote for Presidential electors, Governor, and Lieutenant-Governor was:

FOR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORS.

Garfield electors.....	185,836
Hancock electors.....	181,591
Weaver electors.....	34,895
Dow (Prohibitionist) electors.....	942
Antimasonic electors.....	812

FOR GOVERNOR.

David H. Jerome, Republican.....	173,944
Frederick M. Holloway, Democrat.....	187,671
David Woodman, Second, National-Greenback.....	35,122
Isaac W. McKeever, Prohibitionist.....	1,114
Cornelius Quick, Antimason.....	220

FOR LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

Moreau S. Crosby, Republican.....	180,685
Edwin H. Thomson, Democrat.....	185,595
Sullivan Armstrong, National-Greenback.....	35,051
Darius H. Stone, Prohibitionist.....	1,102
G. H. M. Rosebacker, Antimason.....	808

The following State officers, all Republican, were elected by about the same majorities as given the Presidential electors (the vote for the Democratic candidates for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor having run largely ahead of their ticket, receiving the votes of a large number of Republicans in protest against the liquor tax legislation, and the proposed incorporation of a prohibitory amendment in the Constitution): Secretary of State, William Jenney; State Treasurer, Benjamin D. Pritchard; Auditor-General, W. Irving Latimer; Attorney-General, Jacob J. Van Riper; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Cornelius A. Gower; Commissioner of the State Land-Office, James M. Neasmith; member of State Board of Education, Edgar Rexford.

In the several Congressional districts the vote was:

FIRST DISTRICT.		Votes.	Plurality.
Henry W. Lord, Republican.....	15,962		574
William C. Maybury, Democrat.....	15,888		
Lyman E. Stowe, National-Greenback.....	628		
SECOND DISTRICT.			
Edwin Willits, Republican.....	18,945		2,349
William H. Waldbey, Democrat.....	16,596		
Frederick T. Chester, National-Greenback.....	1,674		
Zachariah Cook, Prohibitionist.....	187		
Scattering.....	4		
THIRD DISTRICT.			
Edward S. Lacey, Republican.....	21,267		12,528
Eugene Pringle, Democrat.....	9,739		
Hiram C. Hodge, National-Greenback.....	8,959		
George Landon, Prohibitionist.....	228		
Scattering.....	6		
FOURTH DISTRICT.			
James C. Burrows, Republican.....	19,096		6,672
Orlando W. Powers, Democrat.....	12,424		
George L. Yapple, National-Greenback.....	4,193		
Scattering.....	24		

FIFTH DISTRICT.		Votes.	Plurality.
George W. Webber, Republican.....	22,824	11,389	
Leonard H. Randall, Democrat.....	11,435		
John C. Blanchard, National-Greenback.....	9,506		
Scattering.....	18		
SIXTH DISTRICT.			
Oliver L. Spaulding, Republican.....	23,551	5,216	
Edwin B. Winans, Democrat.....	18,235		
James W. Begole, National-Greenback.....	5,690		
Scattering.....	92		
SEVENTH DISTRICT.			
Omer D. Conger, Republican.....	17,490	3,684	
Cyrenius P. Black, Democrat.....	13,806		
John J. Watkins, National-Greenback.....	1,428		
Scattering.....	18		
EIGHTH DISTRICT.			
Roswell G. Horr, Republican.....	21,224	2,367	
Timothy E. Tarsney, Democrat.....	18,857		
William Smith, National-Greenback.....	8,529		
Scattering.....	4		
NINTH DISTRICT.			
J. A. Hubbell, Republican.....	23,437	8,795	
Edwin S. Pratt, Democrat.....	14,642		
George Parmelee, National-Greenback.....	900		
Scattering.....	121		

The Legislature chosen at the same election may be classified politically: Senate—Republicans, 30; Democrats, 2. House—Republicans, 86; Democrats, 13; Fusionist, 1.

But a meager vote was polled on the constitutional amendment authorizing the city of Detroit to vote an appropriation in aid of a tunnel or bridge across the Detroit River. The vote was: for the amendment, 37,340; against it, 58,040.

MINNESOTA. The Treasury accounts of the State of Minnesota cover a fiscal period of two years. On the 1st of December, 1878, there was a balance on hand of \$48,499.20. The receipts of the twelve months following were \$1,427,174.40, and the expenditures \$1,343,644.17; the receipts of the year ending November 30, 1880, were \$1,563,026.45, and the expenditures \$1,420,903.89. This left an unexpended balance, at the latter date, of \$264,151.99, of which \$78,644.33 belonged to trust-funds liable to investment in bonds. The recognized debt of the State, at the beginning of the fiscal period, was \$500,000, of which \$210,000 were paid during the two years, leaving \$290,000 still due. There remain unprovided for, and, thus far, dishonored, the bonds issued in 1858 in aid of railroads. The Constitution authorized a loan of \$5,000,000 for this purpose, and \$2,275,000 of the bonds were issued, bearing seven per cent. interest, and payable in twenty-five years. The principal and accumulated interest at the beginning of 1881 amounted to \$5,850,000. The Governor, in his message to the Legislature, made a strong appeal for the recognition and payment of this old debt. He said:

The fact that the principal of these bonds will become due so soon after the next regular session that too little time thereafter will be left to provide for meeting them, invests the subject at this time with new importance, and renders the prompt and final adjustment of this long-standing indebtedness a matter of solemn and imperative duty. However good citizens may honestly differ as to the nature and force of the obligation represented by these bonds, the absolute necessity that some kind of disposition should

be made of outstanding paper bearing the sovereign pledge and attestation of our State, will be conceded by all. Without questioning the sincerity of those who oppose full payment of the debt, it is difficult to see why there should be serious differences among honorable parties where the essential conditions of the contract are undeniable.

That the original proposition was amply discussed, deliberately adopted, and overwhelmingly endorsed by the people, is a matter of record. That the railroad companies faithfully performed their part of the contract so far as to entitle them to the bonds conditioned upon such performance, is attested by the sworn statements of official inspectors, as well as by the high character of the faithful executive by whom full compliance was exacted. That the taking possession of the property and franchises of the companies obliges the State to pay the bonds is beyond question, since she acquired such property and franchises upon that sole condition; while the sole justification and purpose of such acquisition was reimbursement to the State, for payment by the State. These, it seems clear to me, include all the considerations that need be embraced for an honorable settlement upon the legal aspects of the question. When to these is added the unquestionable fact that our magnificent railroad system of to-day is largely due to the early labor performed upon the trunk lines for which these bonds were issued, there can be little need of more words to establish the justice of this claim upon the State. . . .

The State having chosen foreclosure as her remedy, and disposed of the property thus acquired unconditionally as her own, the conclusion seems to me irresistible that she assumed the payment of the debt resting upon such property, by every principle of law and equity. The liability having been voluntarily incurred, whether it was wisely created or no, is foreign to the present question. It is certain that the obligations were fairly given, for which consideration was fairly received; and the State having seized the railroad property and franchises to indemnify her for payment of the bonds, it is difficult to see what possible justification there can be for her refusal to make such payment. . . .

The discharge of this debt is demanded as a simple act of justice, which would be none the less imperative were it to involve serious sacrifices. But these are not required. The task is plain and easy and level to the simplest comprehension. The half-million acres of lands, which cost us nothing and came opportunely to hand, as if Fortune would lure us from dishonor, can be so advantageously employed in this direction that scarcely an appreciable increase of taxation would be required to liquidate the debt. Indeed, the exhibit of the State Auditor shows that, with a wise use of these lands, this can be accomplished at the present rate of taxation without any increase of taxation. There would thus seem to be every incentive to favorable action, and none for shrinking from a duty so clear and imperative. . . .

Minnesota has, in most respects, a proud place among the States of the Union. She has evinced her patriotism in war and her wisdom in peace. She has shown more financial sagacity and concern for the national credit than older and wealthier States of which more was expected. She has been permitted to grow in prosperity and power. There are everywhere within her broad limits, progress, order, thrift, and contentment. All industries prosper, and all interests point to a glorious future. Only this dishonored debt dims the bright promise of her proud career. But it meets her at every turn. In every civilized community her citizens are shamed with the scathing taunt of repudiation.

The total amount of land under cultivation in the State during the year was 4,503,716 acres, of which 2,963,325 acres were devoted to wheat. The wheat-crop of 1879 yielded 31,218,634 bushels from 2,762,527 acres. That

of 1880 was estimated at 40,000,000 bushels and upward. The total product of wheat, oats, corn, and barley was estimated at 85,000,000 bushels. The average of oats was 688,415; corn, 455,512; barley, 118,856. Culture of the early amber-cane is on the increase, and 7,317 acres of land were planted with it. Trees have been planted on 25,331 acres of land, besides 329,806 rods along highways and the boundaries of farms. The sales of land for two years made by the United States and State Land-Offices and the railroad companies aggregate 3,600,000 acres. The number of acres of land assessed for taxation is 17,815,310, and the value, with structures and improvements, \$138,802,999. This is independent of town and city lots, which, with structures and improvements, were valued at \$64,670,638, making the total valuation of real property \$203,473,637. That of personal property is \$54,581,905, which raises the total of taxable property to \$258,055,543.

There were 536 miles of railroad constructed in the State in the last two years, making the total completed at the close of 1880, 3,110 miles. The gross earnings for the year ending June 30th were \$8,047,834 in 1879 and \$10,774,826 in 1880. The State revenue from railroad companies in the latter year was \$284,824.

The total number of banks in the State is 128, of which 30 are national, 17 State, six savings, and 75 private banks. The capital stock of the State banks is \$2,047,900; their loans during the year amounted to \$4,496,592; deposits, \$3,186,735. The total of deposits in the savings-banks was \$991,404, of which only \$769,842 was classed as "savings deposits."

There are 4,244 school districts in the State, in which 3,693 schoolhouses have been built. Of these, 2,963 are frame, 158 brick, 69 stone, and 504 log structures. The total value of sites and buildings is \$3,156,210.10. There were during the year 1,874 male teachers employed at an average compensation of \$35.29 per month, and 3,341 female teachers at \$27.52 per month. There was a total enrollment of 180,248 pupils, and the total cost of the schools for the year was \$1,328,428, or \$7.37 per scholar.

At the close of the year there were 254 inmates in the State Prison. The current expenses for two years were \$96,041.22, and the earnings of the convicts \$45,679.40. The labor of the convicts is let on contract.

There were 880 patients treated at the Asylum for the Insane at St. Peter during the year, the average number of inmates being 644. The north wing of the asylum building was destroyed by fire on the night of November 15th, the calamity being attended by the loss of some thirty lives.

The Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind had during the last two years 140 deaf and dumb and 35 blind pupils. The Reform School had 114 inmates at the close of the year.

The first of the State Conventions prelimi-

nary to the Presidential canvass was that of the Republicans, held at St. Paul on the 19th of May. The sentiment of the local conventions in choosing delegates had been divided between Senator Windom and the Hon. James G. Blaine as the candidate for President. In the State Convention the supporters of Windom were in a majority, and the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That while we do not detract from the high qualifications of other distinguished men for the office of President, with friendship for all and enmity toward none, we hold it to be the duty of Minnesota Republicans first to be loyal to their own State; and as we have an eminent Senator whose qualifications are such as to command wide and favorable attention of the whole country as an available candidate, we who know him best take pleasure in adding our testimony to his entire fitness for the high position. His ability, purity of personal character, his unswerving fidelity to Republican principles through twenty years of honorable public service, and his trained and liberal statesmanship, have endeared him to the hearts of his constituents.

Resolved, Therefore, that it is with pride that the Republican party of Minnesota, in convention assembled, present the name of William Windom as a candidate for President who would harmonize all factions and sections of the country, and insure Republican success in the contest of 1880; and the delegation to Chicago, selected by this Convention, are hereby instructed to use all honorable efforts to secure his nomination as the first choice of the Republicans of Minnesota.

Resolved, That the Republicans of Minnesota hereby express their unqualified approval of the present Administration of the General Government, and in President Hayes recognize an able, wise, and firm representative of the principles of the Republican party.

Resolutions declaring against a third term and the candidacy of General Grant, and favoring Blaine in case it should appear that Windom could not be nominated, were introduced and referred to the Committee on Resolutions, but not reported. Delegates to the National Convention were chosen, and candidates for Presidential electors were nominated.

The Democratic Convention was held at St. Paul on the 20th of May. Delegates to the national nominating body were chosen, and an electoral ticket was put in nomination. The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the centralizing doctrines and tendencies of the Republican party; the notorious corruption of its officials while in control of all the departments of the Government; their reversal by fraud and disregard of law of the expressed will of the people at the last Presidential election; their disregard of the traditions and usages of the republic, demonstrate that, if the people desire to save the government established by their fathers, the control of that government must be taken from that party.

Resolved, That the peace of the nation was placed in the hands of the people's representatives to enable them to guard the people's rights, and that Congress should make no appropriations to be used to further partisan purposes.

Resolved, That we favor the retention of the two-thirds rule in national conventions.

Resolved, That our delegation to the next National Democratic Convention be requested to act and vote unitedly on all questions.

Resolved, That we hereby pledge ourselves to the whole country that the Democracy of Minnesota will never again submit to the reversal by force or fraud

of the will of the people expressed by their votes at an election.

Resolved, That we recognize in the custom recommended and established by Washington and by our fathers, that no person should occupy the Presidential chair for more than two terms, thus far scrupulously adhered to both in theory and practice by the people of the United States, the enunciation of a principle salutary and necessary to the preservation of our liberties, and that a departure therefrom must be deemed a dangerous infraction of what has become the unwritten law of this country; that the proposed election of ex-President Grant for a third term is such a violation of this high safeguard of American liberty as to excite serious alarm, and to call upon all good citizens to prevent by all lawful means the consummation of the intended wrong.

The "Greenbackers" held a State Convention at Minneapolis on the 27th of May, made nominations for electors, chose delegates to the national nominating assembly of the party, and adopted a platform whose declarations have been summarized as follows:

Adopting the Weaver resolutions introduced in the House of Representatives;

Demanding that all taxation be made equal, and that incomes be made to pay their share of the public debt;

Reserving the public lands for the occupancy of settlers;

Protesting against Government subsidies of all kinds;

For the protection of labor by repealing all class legislation, and for constituting eight hours as a day's work;

Favoring a soldiers' and sailors' homestead law, giving them lands without cost, except district and office fees;

Making up to soldiers the depreciation of money in which they were paid for their services, and praying for the passage of the "Weaver soldier bill";

In favor of taxing mortgages;

The passage of punitive laws by Congress forbidding any combination or arrangement by which railroads and other common carriers may discriminate on rates of transportation;

Holding railroad and other public corporations amenable to law, and so regulated and restrained as to subserve the ends for which they were created, by promoting and not thwarting the public good;

Against any limitation or curtailment of the right of franchise and in favor of a secret ballot;

For a direct vote for President and Vice-President of the United States, and limitation to one term of office;

Against the labor of convicts; the employment of children under fourteen years of age; against dealing in options in stocks, and making all such contracts void;

Against the payment of the old State railroad bonds by taxation, grants, improvement lands, or in any other manner whatever;

Calling on all citizens to aid in restoring honesty, fidelity, economy, and justice in the administration of government, and obliterating sectional animosities.

There was to be no election for State officers, and no other general conventions were held. An incident of some interest was a division of the Republicans in the First Congressional District. The Hon. Mark H. Dunnell, the Representative of the district, was a prominent candidate for renomination, but there was a strong opposition to him, and the Convention split into two organizations, one of which unanimously nominated Dunnell, while the other set up W. G. Ward as the candidate. Both claimed to be the regular nominees, the dispute turning on certain contested delegations in the district convention. An effort

was made, which was favored by Mr. Ward, to secure the withdrawal of both candidates and the holding of a new convention; but this, as well as all other attempts at compromise, failed, and both candidates remained in the field.

The total vote for Presidential electors was 150,771, of which 93,903 were cast for the Republican and 53,315 for the Democratic ticket. There were also 3,267 "Greenback" and 286 Prohibitory votes. The Republican majority was 37,085.

Republicans were chosen to Congress from all the three districts. The vote in the first district was 22,392 for Dunnell, 7,656 for Ward, and 13,768 for Wells, the Democratic candidate. The Legislature, elected at the same time, is composed of 29 Republicans, 11 Democrats, and 1 "Greenbacker" in the Senate, and 87 Republicans, 15 Democrats, and 4 "Greenbackers" in the House of Representatives; making the Republican majority 17 in the Senate, 68 in the House, and 85 on a joint ballot. A vote on continuing in force for five years more the act relating to school text-books resulted in 44,739 in favor of the proposition, and 45,465 against it, defeating it by a majority of 726. The law in question was passed in 1877, and provided for a uniform series of text-books for all the schools of the State, to be furnished by a contractor at fixed prices. It provided that the question of continuing it in force should be submitted to a vote of the people in 1880.

The following statement of the population of Minnesota by counties is furnished by the United States Census Bureau:

Aitkin	366	McLeod	12,849
Anoka	7,108	Meeker	11,739
Becker	4,407	Miller Laes	1,501
Beltram	10	Morrison	5,875
Benton	3,012	Mower	16,799
Big Stone	3,659	Murray	8,604
Blue Earth	22,889	Nicollet	12,883
Brown	12,015	Nobles	4,485
Carlton	1,280	Olmsted	21,543
Carter	14,140	Pine	1,965
Cass	456	Pipestone	2,902
Chippewa	5,408	Polk	11,241
Chicago	7,982	Pope	5,874
Clay	5,886	Ramsey	45,915
Cooke	65	Redwood	6,275
Cottonwood	5,583	Renville	10,791
Crow Wing	2,318	Rice	22,480
Dakota	17,391	Rock	8,669
Dodge	11,344	St. Louis	4,804
Douglas	9,180	Scott	18,576
Faribault	13,015	Sherburne	8,755
Fillmore	28,162	Sibley	10,687
Freeborn	16,069	Stearns	21,966
Goodhue	29,651	Steele	12,460
Grant	3,004	Stevens	3,911
Hennepin	67,018	Swift	7,473
Houston	16,332	Todd	6,183
Isanti	5,063	Traverse	1,503
Itasca	124	Wabashaw	18,206
Jackson	4,804	Wadena	2,050
Kanabec	506	Waseca	12,885
Kandiyohei	10,155	Washington	19,562
Kittson	909	Watsonwan	5,164
Lac qui parle	4,905	Wilkin	1,996
Lake	107	Winona	27,197
Le Sueur	16,106	Wright	18,104
Lincoln	2,944	Yellow Medicine	5,884
Lyon	6,255	White Earth (Indian reservation)	995
Marshall	997		
Martin	5,242		
Total			780,807

The population of the city of Minneapolis is 46,887, that of St. Paul 41,498, Winona 10,208.

The second centenary of the discovery of the Falls of St. Anthony was celebrated at Minneapolis on the 4th of July.

MISSISSIPPI. The Legislature of Mississippi began its regular biennial session on the 8th of January, and brought it to a close on the 6th of March. It was occupied with the transaction of business fifty-three days. A United States Senator was chosen to succeed Mr. Blanch K. Bruce, for the term beginning March 4, 1881. The Democrats held a caucus on nine successive evenings, and took forty-nine ballots before they could agree on a candidate. Those highest in favor on the early ballotings were E. Barksdale, O. R. Singleton, and E. C. Walthall. Later, the name of J. Z. George was introduced, and took a high place. Finally, Mr. Barksdale withdrew his name, and General George was nominated. The ballot in joint session of the Legislature, which resulted in a choice, was taken on the 22d of January. There were one hundred and twenty-seven votes for J. Z. George, fourteen for A. M. West, four for B. K. Bruce, one for E. C. Walthall, and one for T. W. Harris, and General George was elected.

The Hon. J. A. P. Campbell, who had been commissioned in 1878 to revise and codify the laws of the State, submitted the result in the form of the "Revised Code." In an accompanying report he said:

I have taken as the basis of my action the existing statutes, and have presented them, for the most part, making only such changes as experience has suggested to be necessary, and adding such new provisions as appear to be required to complete the statutes and make them an harmonious and efficient body of laws, plainly expressed, conveniently arranged, and easily to be understood by those for whom they are designed as rules of action. Many of our statutes have existed, in the language in which they are now, since 1822, and some of them since long prior to that. Much of the Code of 1857 was transferred from the Code of 1822, and, in turn, was copied into that of 1871. While there has been growth, by addition to the statutes, in successive years, there have been preserved, unchanged for more than fifty years, the most important provisions affecting the affairs of the living, and the administration of the estates of the dead. Amid revolutions and changes of the Constitution, the statutes have remained unchanged. Generally, suited to any Constitution likely to be accepted by the people, a change of the Constitution requires no change in the great body of the statutes. Secession required only the substitution of "Confederate" for "United," before States, and the statutes harmonized with the new conditions. The Constitution of 1869 (a faithful copy of that of 1832, with few changes and a few additions) necessitated little other change in the statutes it found in force, than to make the Probate Court Law a part of the Chancery Court Law. The Code of 1871, under the Constitution of 1869, retained nearly all of the articles of the Code of 1857, and the very few omitted, except the chapter on slaves, free negroes, and mulattoes, were probably left out by inadvertence. Of the twenty-nine hundred sections into which the Code of 1871 is divided, about twenty-six hundred were copied from the Code of 1857.

The fidelity of the copy to the original is not appar-

ent to the casual observer, only because the excellence of the Code of 1857 is obscured by the derangement and confusion of that of 1871.

Imbued with the spirit of conservatism, apparent in the history of legislation in this State; firmly convinced of the error of sudden and violent changes in the laws generally understood and acquiesced in; believing that a rule, not the wisest and best, but which is understood and accepted, is more desirable than a better one not demanded by the popular will, and apprised that through successive generations little change has been demanded or made in the statutes familiar to the great body of the people, and affecting their everyday life, I have faithfully preserved the main body of these statutes, which have proved their excellence by long toleration by those who could have changed but chose to preserve them, and have endeavored to perfect the system by judicious pruning and careful grafting, guarding against a spirit of change, and never changing, except cautiously, and thereby surely to improve. . . .

I have introduced changes which will lead to great saving of money in the conduct both of public and private matters; have called to my aid the bench and bar of the State in my effort to improve the machinery for the assertion of rights and the redress of wrongs through the courts; have endeavored to provide for increased efficiency of the laws for the prevention and punishment of crimes; have had in view the great agricultural interest of the country, and tried to promote it by drawing together and reciprocally protecting land-owners and laborers, and hope, by the aid afforded me, I have succeeded in so improving the statutes of the State as to make them acceptable to the intelligent, and worthy of the people on whom they are to operate.

Much time was occupied throughout the session in considering the Code, and it was finally adopted without material change.

On the second day of the session Governor Stone submitted a message vetoing a bill passed near the close of the session of 1878 "relative to excessive charges and unjust discrimination by railroad companies." The bill declared all railroads to be public highways, and all transportation companies to be common carriers; prohibited the consolidation of parallel and competing lines and discriminations in dealing with customers, and fixed maximum charges for the transportation of cotton. The general ground of the veto was that the act was in violation of the provision of the Federal Constitution which forbids the passing of laws that impair the obligation of contracts. The Governor said:

As this provision of our State and Federal Constitutions admits of but a single construction, it is only necessary to present such argument as will show conclusively that the rights and powers conferred upon a corporation by its charter are contracts between the State whose Legislature granted the charter, and the corporation accepting it; that certain rights were conferred upon every corporation operating a railroad in this State by its charter; and that the effect of this legislation is to divest them of those rights. To accomplish this I submit a few legal and judicial authorities, and contrast them with the provisions of the bill under consideration, and those of the various railroad charters in the State. The parties in support of the principle here maintained are numerous, but I have sought in vain for a single decision in any of the books holding a contrary view on the subject.

After quoting numerous authorities and statements of principle, he concluded as follows:

It is too late to raise the question whether it was wise to grant to these corporations the exclusive right to regulate their rates of charges; it has been granted; the Constitution under which the grants were made, empowered the Legislature to make them; the companies have accepted the grants, and any legislation that seeks to alter one of those charters in any material point, without the consent of the corporators, is absolutely prohibited. Any power exercised under a general law may be taken away, but if granted in a charter, and the charter is accepted, it is thereby placed beyond the reach of the Legislature, and must so remain as long as the charter exists.

A bill was afterward introduced in the Senate by W. W. Humphries, and known as the "Humphries Bill," which was entitled "An act to prevent extortion and unjust discrimination in the rates charged for the transportation of passengers and freights on railroads in this State and to punish the same, and to prescribe the mode of procedure and rules of evidence in relation thereto, and for other purposes." It fixed no maximum of charges, but prohibited discrimination and unreasonable rates, and imposed severe penalties for the abuse of corporate powers. It also provided for a Railroad Commissioner, to be elected by the Legislature, to supervise the operations of railroads and look after the execution of the law. The bill was debated with spirit and at great length in both Houses, passed the Senate, and was amended in the House, but failed on the last day of the session to reach a final vote in the latter body.

The following memorial to Congress was adopted:

Whereas, Doubts have arisen whether the Legislature of the State of Mississippi can constitutionally enact a law regulating the tariffs on inter-State railroads, and the freights on navigable streams in this State; and

Whereas, Unjust discrimination is made on all railroads in this State, as well as by steamers and other water-craft, on said navigable streams, respecting tariff and freight rates in favor of different localities along said roads and streams; and

Whereas, Gross injustice is thus done to persons passing freight over said roads and streams, by leaving them to the mercy of large and powerful corporated monopolies, without any means of resisting their extortionate and unjust demands: therefore

Be it resolved, by the House of Representatives, the Senate concurring therein, That we, the representatives of the people of the State of Mississippi, do solemnly memorialize the Congress of the United States to provide, by appropriate legislation, some adequate means of restraining such unjust discrimination by the passage of a general law regulating the tariff and freight rates on all railroads and navigable streams in the United States.

The question of calling a convention to revise the Constitution of the State was referred to a joint committee, and two antagonistic reports were made. No definite action was taken on the subject. An act was passed providing for an enumeration of the population and of the qualified electors of the State. This is required by the Constitution as a basis for the State apportionment. The public health-laws were thoroughly amended, so as to provide for health officers in each county, to authorize local boards of health, under the gen-

eral supervision of the State Board, and to extend and define the powers of the latter. Among other things it may establish a strict quarantine in case of an epidemic. An act for the prevention of cruelty to animals was also passed.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted by the Senate on the 3d of March, and afterward concurred in by the House:

Whereas, The late Mrs. Sarah A. Dorsey, of Beauvoir, Mississippi, bequeathed at her death to the State of Mississippi a crayon-portrait of the Hon. Jefferson Davis, taken in the apparel which he wore when, as President of the Confederate States, he was captured at the close of the late war by United States troops; and

Whereas, Said portrait is valued by us not only as a likeness of one who faithfully and ably represented the patriotism and manhood of the South during our four years' struggle for self-government, but also for its historic value in presenting ex-President Davis in the true garb in which he was attired at the time of his capture, as appears from an autograph letter from her accompanying said picture:

Be it therefore resolved by the Senate (the House concurring), That the people of Mississippi, through their representatives here assembled, do hereby express their appreciation of the gift, and their gratitude to the giver, who has thus linked her name with that of the illustrious President of the Lost Cause.

Resolved, further, That the Librarian take charge of said portrait and put it in a suitable place in the State Library, and that the autograph letter of ex-President Davis be framed and preserved with said portrait.

Resolved, further, That a copy of these resolutions be transmitted by the Secretary of the Senate to Hon. Jefferson Davis.

There was no State election this year, but conventions were held for the purpose of choosing delegates to the national nominating assemblies of the several parties. That of the Republicans took place at Jackson on the 5th of May. The sentiment of its members was divided on the subject of a candidate for the Presidency between supporters of General Grant, Secretary Sherman, and Senator Blaine. It was freely charged that the Secretary of the Treasury had used his official power to secure control of the Convention, and a caucus of the Grant men adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That when it shall become evident that the friends of Ulysses S. Grant can hope for no justice and look for no fair play at the hands of the majority, which, ruled by the office-holders, grossly misrepresents the Republican masses of this State, we withdraw in a body, organize a truly representative convention, send our own delegates to Chicago, and formally protest against the action of the clique which has attempted to betray and misrepresent us.

Those opposed to General Grant's candidacy succeeded in organizing the Convention and directing its proceedings, and a resolution declaring General U. S. Grant to be "the choice of the Republican voters of Mississippi for President of the United States" was laid on the table. The Grant delegates remained after the adjournment of the Convention, and, besides adopting a resolution declaring General Grant to be the "choice of this Convention," unanimously agreed to the following:

Resolved, That we still adhere with unflinching devotion to the principles of the Republican party as set forth in its national platform, and that we recognize in Grant the statesman best of all able to enforce these principles as the Executive of the United States.

At this time Mr. J. M. Bynum, of the committee on resolutions, produced the following, which had been framed by his committee. They were adopted:

The Republican party of Mississippi, in convention assembled, reassert and adopt as the cardinal principles of the party:

A stable currency for the people. The equal political and civil rights of every American citizen.

Free schools, free speech, and free elections; the right of every man to vote once, and have his vote counted.

We pledge a hearty support to the nominee of the Chicago Convention.

The Democrats held their convention at Jackson on the 27th of May. Delegates to the Cincinnati Convention were chosen and candidates for Presidential electors were nominated. The following resolutions were unanimously adopted by the Convention, but the Committee on Resolutions reported that as the contest was a national one, and the National Convention would soon "declare the platform of principles of the Democratic party," it was "unnecessary to declare any platform of the party in this State":

Resolved, That this Convention recognizes the necessity of the harmony and the hearty coöperation of the friends of good government throughout the Union in the approaching Presidential election. That it deems the election of the nominee of the Cincinnati Convention of supreme moment to the whole country; and that this success should not be jeopardized by the indulgence of personal aspirations, nor by the gratification of personal preferences; and while individual members of our party in this State may have their preferences as to who should receive the nomination, this Convention deems it unwise to make any other declaration on that subject than to say that the choice of the Democratic party of this State is he who shall be nominated by the National Convention; and that we will give him our hearty support, and with it the electoral vote of this State.

Resolved, That our delegates to the Democratic National Convention be instructed to act in the spirit of the foregoing resolution, and to cast their votes for that man whom they shall find, after full consultation with the delegates from the other States, will best harmonize the opposition to the longer continuance of the unconstitutional and unwise methods of the Republican party.

A Greenback mass-meeting, at Jackson, near the end of May, appointed delegates to the National Convention of the party, and left it to the Executive Committee to make nominations for electors.

The result of the Presidential election in the State was 75,750 votes for the Democratic ticket, 34,854 for that of the Republicans, 5,797 for that of the Greenbackers, and 677 "scattering." The total was 117,078, and the Democratic majority 34,422. Democratic Representatives were elected in all of the six Congressional districts. The vote, as officially returned, was as follows: First district, Muldrow, Democrat, 14,456; Morphis, Republican, 3,828; Da-

vidson, Greenbacker, 1,058; scattering, 3; total, 19,345—Muldrow's majority, 9,567. Second district, Manning, Democrat, 15,250; Buchanan, Republican, 9,996; Harris, Greenbacker, 3,585; total, 28,856—Manning's plurality, 5,257. Third district, Morey, Democrat, 11,722; Gunn, Greenbacker, 2,790; scattering, 22; total, 14,534—Morey's majority, 8,910. Fourth district, Singleton, Democrat, 13,745; Drennan, Republican, 4,177; scattering, one; total, 17,927—Singleton's majority, 9,561. Fifth district, Hooker, Democrat, 11,771; Deason, Independent Republican, 6,193; Osborn, regular Republican, 125; Patterson, Greenbacker, 222; scattering, 10; total, 19,121—Hooker's plurality, 5,578. Sixth district, Chalmers, Democrat, 9,172; Lynch, Republican (colored), 5,393; scattering 2; total, 14,565—Chalmers's majority, 3,777.

Among the provisions of the new election laws was the following:

All ballots shall be written or printed with black ink, with a space of not less than one fifth of an inch between each name, on plain white news printing-paper, not more than two and one half or less than two and one fourth inches wide, without any device or mark by which one ticket may be known or distinguished from another, except the words at the head of the ticket; but this shall not prohibit the erasure, correction, or insertion of any name by pencil-mark or ink upon the face of the ballot; and a ticket different from that herein described shall not be received or counted.

In the sixth district it was alleged that no fewer than 5,358 Republican ballots were thrown out by the election commissioners because they contained distinguishing marks in the form of dashes separating the different parts of the ticket. Mr. Lynch gave notice of his purpose of contesting the election of General Chalmers, enumerating cases of alleged fraud and illegal exclusion of votes from the count in several counties. General Chalmers made a reply, which was mainly devoted to a legal argument in support of the rejection of the ballots containing the so-called "distinguishing marks."

The State census which was taken under the direction of the Secretary of State, to serve as a basis of apportioning representation in the Legislature, places the total population at 1,145,480. It gives the number of legal voters as 240,478, of whom 109,995 are white, and 130,483 colored. It also reports the number of bales of cotton raised in 1879 by white labor at 290,957½; by colored labor, 549,990½. There are in the State 4,995 public and 964 private schools, the number of children of school age being 178,218 whites, and 251,438 colored.

The returns of the tenth census of the United States for the State of Mississippi, as officially announced on January 15, 1881, shows the total population to be 1,131,592. Of this number 567,137 are males, and 564,455 females; 1,122,424 are natives of the United States, and 9,168 of foreign birth; 479,319 are white, and

652,221 colored. Among the colored inhabitants are included 1,832 Indians and half-breeds, and 52 Chinese. The following is a classified table of the population by counties:

COUNTIES.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Native.	Foreign.	White.	Colored.
Adams.....	22,649	10,678	11,976	22,098	616	4,797	17,852
Alcorn.....	14,272	7,096	7,176	14,170	102	9,863	4,409
Amite.....	14,004	6,966	7,038	13,958	46	5,494	8,510
Attala.....	19,988	9,988	10,000	19,909	79	11,658	8,335
Benton.....	11,028	5,577	5,446	10,989	39	5,232	5,746
Bolivar.....	18,652	10,103	8,549	18,512	140	2,694	15,958
Calhoun.....	13,492	6,782	6,710	13,469	23	10,191	3,301
Carroll.....	17,800	8,994	8,806	17,730	70	7,881	9,969
Chickasaw.....	17,904	8,926	8,978	17,885	69	7,689	10,215
Choctaw.....	9,036	4,510	4,526	8,994	42	6,786	2,500
Claiborne.....	16,768	8,227	8,541	16,610	158	3,910	12,858
Clark.....	15,022	7,372	7,650	14,950	72	7,280	7,792
Clay.....	17,367	8,504	8,863	17,314	53	5,254	12,118
Coahoma.....	13,563	7,361	6,202	13,417	116	2,409	11,154
Copiah.....	27,544	13,608	13,941	27,324	220	13,106	14,438
Covington.....	5,993	3,005	2,988	5,982	11	3,991	2,002
De Soto.....	22,924	11,613	11,311	22,757	187	7,580	15,344
Franklin.....	9,729	4,791	4,938	9,703	26	4,550	2,679
Greene.....	8,194	4,604	4,590	8,187	7	2,852	5,332
Grenada.....	12,071	5,989	6,082	12,006	65	3,237	8,834
Hancock.....	6,460	3,258	3,202	6,184	276	4,643	1,817
Harrison.....	7,895	3,949	3,946	7,352	543	6,746	2,149
Hinds.....	43,959	22,178	21,786	43,465	496	11,671	32,288
Holmes.....	27,152	13,547	13,547	27,016	136	6,907	20,245
Issaquena.....	10,001	5,288	4,714	9,899	102	824	9,177
Itawamba.....	10,665	5,290	5,375	10,648	17	9,557	1,108
Jackson.....	7,607	3,905	3,702	7,392	275	5,122	2,485
Jasper.....	12,124	6,044	6,080	12,031	43	6,244	5,880
Jefferson.....	17,314	8,473	8,841	17,150	164	4,262	13,052
Jones.....	8,528	4,374	4,154	8,324	4	8,469	879
Kemper.....	15,719	7,901	7,818	15,673	46	7,104	8,615
Lafayette.....	21,671	10,959	10,712	21,565	106	11,381	10,290
Lauderdale.....	21,501	10,607	10,894	21,300	201	9,960	11,541
Lawrence.....	9,422	4,809	4,613	9,410	12	4,537	4,885
Leake.....	13,147	6,650	6,497	13,115	32	8,104	5,043
Lee.....	20,461	10,318	10,143	20,362	99	12,756	7,605
Leflore.....	10,246	5,419	4,827	10,168	88	2,230	8,016
Lincoln.....	13,547	6,848	6,704	13,407	140	7,701	5,846
Lowndes.....	28,243	13,957	14,286	28,088	160	5,588	22,600
Madison.....	25,866	12,665	13,201	25,672	194	5,948	19,918
Marion.....	6,901	3,440	3,461	6,899	2	4,451	2,450
Marshall.....	29,333	14,612	14,721	29,145	188	10,986	18,347
Monroe.....	28,558	13,991	14,567	28,419	139	10,549	18,004
Montgomery.....	13,243	6,651	6,597	13,209	39	6,671	6,677
Neshoba.....	8,741	4,324	4,417	8,713	28	6,655	2,086
Newton.....	13,436	6,735	6,701	13,388	48	8,427	5,009
Noxubee.....	29,574	14,808	15,066	29,784	90	5,800	24,574
Oktibbeha.....	15,977	7,857	8,120	15,923	48	5,107	10,870
Panola.....	28,353	14,253	14,100	28,238	115	9,519	18,834
Perry.....	8,427	4,132	4,295	8,428	4	2,357	1,070
Pike.....	16,688	8,375	8,313	16,191	497	8,573	8,115
Pontotoc.....	13,558	6,933	6,925	13,839	19	9,608	4,250
Prentiss.....	12,158	6,041	6,117	12,141	17	9,737	2,421
Quitman.....	1,407	754	623	1,391	16	592	815
Rankin.....	16,752	8,192	8,560	16,701	51	7,192	9,560
Scott.....	10,845	5,369	5,476	10,813	32	6,692	4,213
Sharkey.....	6,306	3,406	2,900	6,252	54	1,405	4,901
Simpson.....	8,003	4,025	3,978	7,995	10	4,993	5,012
Smith.....	8,054	4,059	4,025	8,067	17	6,452	1,632
Sumner.....	9,535	4,751	4,784	9,527	8	7,395	2,297
Sunflower.....	4,661	2,543	2,118	4,587	74	1,766	2,895
Tallahatchie.....	10,925	5,604	5,322	10,850	46	4,169	6,757
Tate.....	18,721	9,559	9,162	18,660	61	9,059	9,682
Tippah.....	12,866	6,327	6,539	12,834	32	8,501	3,065
Tishomingo.....	8,744	4,250	4,424	8,746	28	7,611	1,168
Tunica.....	8,461	4,630	3,831	8,402	59	1,256	7,205
Union.....	13,030	6,410	6,614	13,010	20	9,940	3,090
Warren.....	31,242	15,344	15,898	30,138	1,104	8,713	22,529
Washington.....	25,365	13,363	12,002	25,001	364	3,174	21,891
Wayne.....	8,741	4,320	4,421	8,719	22	4,970	3,771
Wilkinson.....	17,815	8,649	9,166	17,650	165	5,559	14,346
Winston.....	10,051	5,043	5,044	10,060	27	6,113	3,974
Yalobusha.....	15,659	7,865	7,798	15,435	218	7,535	8,113
Yazoo.....	39,846	17,255	16,591	39,524	322	8,498	25,348
Total.....	1,181,592	567,187	564,455	1,122,424	9,168	479,819	652,221

MISSISSIPPI RIVER IMPROVEMENT. A comprehensive and complete survey of this great highway with a view to its improvement was first ordered by the bill approved June 28, 1879, entitled "An act to provide for the appointment of a Mississippi River Commis-

sion for the improvement of said river from the head of its passes near its mouth to its head-waters." Pursuant to this act, a commission was appointed, consisting of seven members—General Q. A. Gillmore, General C. B. Comstock, and Major Charles R. Suter, all

of the Engineer Corps of the Army; Mr. Henry Mitchell, of the Coast and Geodetic Survey; and three civilians—Mr. J. B. Eads, engineer and constructor of the jetties; Major B. M. Harrod, Chief-Engineer of the State of Louisiana; and Mr. Benjamin Harrison. The commission, thus ably constituted, made a preliminary report, which was presented to Congress and referred to the Committee on Commerce, March 10, 1880.

The work assigned to the commission was:

1. To direct and complete such surveys of the Mississippi River, between the head of its passes near its mouth and its head-waters, as were then in progress, and to make such additional surveys and examinations of said river and its tributaries as might by it be deemed necessary.

2. To take into consideration and mature such plan or plans as will correct, permanently locate, and deepen the channel, and protect the banks of the Mississippi River; improve and give safety and ease to the navigation thereof; prevent destructive floods, and promote and facilitate commerce and the postal service; and, with such plans, to prepare and submit estimates of the cost of executing the work.

3. To report specifically upon the practicability, feasibility, and probable cost of the plans known as the jetty system, the levee system, and the outlet system.

Finding that accurate surveys of the upper Mississippi had been already completed, the commission directed its attention chiefly to the eleven hundred miles along the channel, from the junction of the Ohio to the head of the passes. Of this part of the river, detached surveys give some available data. Such necessary work as was done to connect these was permanently marked, to furnish a basis for future operations. For this purpose a line of secondary triangulation was begun, its triangles closing within six seconds.

Physical phenomena were investigated, and the results compared with those of previous researches. Lines of precise level were run. The gauging-stations between Cairo and New Orleans were increased to twenty, which, in addition to those recently established between Cairo and St. Louis, measure the rise and fall of the river at every fifty miles of its course. Thus the progress of floods and the peculiarities of the river-slope may be traced. Width, depth, and curvature were noted at different and contrasted points. This survey is being executed, the employees of this commission beginning at Cairo and moving down-stream, while the Geodetic and Coast Survey are ascending, having begun in the lower river. Mr. Patterson, Superintendent of the Coast Survey, has four triangulating parties in the field. All marks are placed beyond reach of erosion during the next twenty years. The Hydrographical and Topographical Corps have established theirs in pairs, about three miles apart on each bank of the river. The leveling parties began their work at Columbus, twenty miles below Cairo, General Comstock having previously executed a series of levels to that point. The localities selected for these lines were those where similar inquiries had been

frequently repeated, in order thus to ascertain the varying relations of the river and its bed. "The observations at these places comprise the changes in the figure of the river-bed at different stages of the water, the kind of material forming or moving along the bed, the figure and movement of sand-waves, the slope of water-surface, the discharge, and the transverse currents of velocity." Boring-parties were employed in determining the depth of alluvial deposit and the nature of underlying strata in those portions of the river requiring improvement.

Systems of Improvement.—After mature deliberation a majority of the commission passed unfavorably upon the outlet system, as one of diffusion and waste and not of concentration. From irrefragable data and through close reasoning, they extract these general principles:

If the normal volume of water in a silt-bearing stream, flowing in an alluvial bed of its own formation, be permanently increased, there will result an increase of velocity, and consequently of erosion and silt-bearing power, an increase in area of average cross-section, and an ultimate lowering of the surface-slope; and, conversely, if the normal flow be decreased in volume, there will ensue a decrease of velocity, silt-transporting power, and mean sectional area, and an ultimate raising of the surface slope.

The outlet system has been advocated because, during a flood, a crevasse has the effect of lowering the surface of the river in its vicinity and below it. Hence, it is argued that natural or artificial outlets, conveying the surplus waters to the sea by a shorter route, must tend to prevent the recurrence of disastrous floods. This might be true were it not that the Mississippi holds in suspension a vast proportion of silt, borne onward by its mighty current to the Gulf. The velocity of this current must be maintained; if checked, a deposit of sediment occurs. Shoals, caused by loss of velocity, are formed below crevasses. If the crevasse is kept open indefinitely, the shoal continues to extend down the stream. Only when the width of the river has been reduced and the current restored does it wash out its channel.

The Mississippi, not only in its main line but in its outlets, is no exception to the law that silt-bearing streams, flowing through alluvial deposits, have the power to increase or steepen their surface-slopes, so adjusting them as to allow their currents to carry onward the sedimentary matter with which they are charged. Other conditions being the same, the slope is least where the volume is greatest, and, conversely, the slope is increased where the volume is diminished. The following examples are cited:

The fall of the Atchafalaya is about six inches per mile from its head to the Gulf-level, while the fall of the Mississippi from the same point is less than two inches per mile. The volume of the Atchafalaya is only about one twelfth as great as that of the Mississippi where they separate. The fall of the South Pass is three inches per mile, while that of the Southwest Pass is but two inches per mile. The volume of the

South Pass is only about one quarter as large as that of the Southwest Pass.

As water selects the line of least resistance in flowing from a higher to a lower level, it follows that, inasmuch as that portion of the Mississippi floods which enters the Atchafalaya seeks the Gulf-level through a route not half so long as that which follows the main river, the resistance in the shorter and steeper route of the Atchafalaya must be so much greater, that these elements which tend to increase the current are so far neutralized as to produce in both routes to the sea that rate of current which is capable of transporting the sediment without loss or gain to the Gulf-level, and thus a condition of equilibrium is established between these two routes to the sea. It seems unnecessary to state that the ratio of frictional resistance to volume of water, resulting from the smaller size of the Atchafalaya, is so much greater than that in the main river that this condition of equilibrium or regimen of the two channels is the result. Anything which will tend to increase the flow permanently through either route would, if unchecked, have a tendency to cause the entire river to find its way ultimately through that route to the sea, by lessening in it, as it enlarged, the ratio of frictional resistance to volume of water flowing in it. The sub-delta building ability of the smaller passes, by which they prolong their length and thus flatten their slopes, will invariably tend to cause their extinction, by results similar to those, hereinafter referred to, at Cubitt's Gap, The Jump, and the extinct outlets below them. This cause has tended to the extinction of many well-known bayous below the Atchafalaya. That the Atchafalaya remained so long unaltered, and is now evidently enlarging, is owing to important changes in the bed of the Mississippi near it, by which a large portion of the floods of Red River have been recently discharged through it.

This explanation of the relation between slope and volume is, of course, applicable to the other existing outlets referred to in this connection. For this reason the commission believes that no surer method of ultimately raising the flood-surface of the river can be adopted than by making lateral outlets for the escape of its flood-waters. The raising of the flood-surface necessitates an increase in the height of the levees, and leaves shallower channels for navigation.

As the system of improvement proposed by the commission is based upon a conservation of the flood-waters of the river, and their concentration into one channel of an approximately uniform width, it would seem scarcely necessary further to consider a system based upon theories and arguments so diametrically opposed to it as the outlet system is thus shown to be.

An outlet, ten miles below New Orleans, into Lake Borgne, was proposed by Engineer Ellet in 1852, in a report to the Secretary of War. His plan was examined and rejected by Humphreys and Abbot, and again in 1875 by the Levee Commission. It is an erroneous idea to suppose that such an outlet would be permanent. Similar openings in the river show that a sub-delta formation immediately begins, which in a few years effects a closure. Several extinct channels are found on either side of the great passes. The largest and most recent of these, known as Cubitt's Gap, occurred about seventeen years ago, caused by a narrow canal. The river and gulf were then about a thousand yards apart, with a mean difference of three feet between their surface-heights. This fall gave such rapidity to the escaping flood that it soon made a crevasse over two thousand feet wide and at least one hundred feet deep where the river-bank once rested. Once through the gap, the velocity of the water

was checked, and the sediment deposited over an area of possibly thirty square miles, forming innumerable islands and shoals. The breach in the bank is rapidly closing, and must shortly disappear by a natural process.

The same result has followed at The Jump, at the great Bonnet Carré Crevasse, and at all openings, natural or artificial, made through the bank. Hence the commission argues that the outlet into Lake Borgne could only be kept open by continued dredging, while a shoal would certainly form below, to the manifest injury of navigation. The slope of the river being increased from the head of the passes to the outlet, the flood-surface above that opening would be raised.

In regard to the Atchafalaya outlet, except such work as is requisite to prevent its enlargement, the commission makes no recommendation, as Major Benyaud, United States Engineer Corps, who is in charge of the Government work on that part of the river, is preparing a special report concerning the mouth of Red River. The proposition to turn the waters of the Red River into the Calcasieu is impracticable, the bed of the Calcasieu being from sixty-three to seventy-three feet higher than the water-surface of the Red River at the closest connectable points, which are 23-86 miles apart. If it is proposed to make the connection near the mouth of the Calcasieu, the expense is prohibitory.

The effect of crevasses and other outlets in lowering floods has been exaggerated. In 1858, when the Bell Crevasse was pouring through the break at the rate of 80,000 cubic feet per second (about one twelfth of the total discharge of the river at the time), the water-surface was only lowered one and five tenths' foot at the site; while at Baton Rouge, one hundred and twenty-four miles above, no sensible effect was produced.

The influence of the Gulf on the river is not felt during high water so far as Red River. The Raccourci and Red River cut-offs, which shortened the course of the river thirty-nine miles and lowered the high-water mark near the mouth of Red River four and six tenths feet in the flood of 1851, produced no effect one hundred miles above. Therefore, both Gulf tides and crevasses are restrained in their action to a limited area, and this influence decreases rapidly in ascending.

The Levee System.—Though levees have been built solely to protect alluvial lands from overflow, they have a direct action on the river itself, deepening its channel and enlarging its bed during seasons of flood, restraining its dispersion and causing its attainment of a higher level within its banks. During the period between 1850 and 1858, when the levees were kept in best order, the channel of the river was in better navigable condition than it has been since that time. During the last twenty years the levee system has been interrupted by numerous crevasses between Cairo and Red

River. According to the laws already stated, a closure of these crevasses ought to wash out shoals formed by them and by contraction deepen the channel. The commission believe that the reduction of the flood-level thus attained would ultimately eliminate the necessity for levees above Red River, while below it they need be maintained at a less height.

While levees may not be necessary to the securing of a deep channel for navigation, they hasten the work of improvement and are a valuable adjunct. As a protection to life and property along the banks, they are essential. They promote and facilitate commerce by establishing landing-places above the reach of floods. They aid the postal service by protecting its carriers, the railroads and common roads, from destruction by floods, as well as give safety and ease to navigation by their influence on the channel. On some of these points the views of two members of the commission, not being entirely in accord, are given in a minority report, which differs more in degree than in essentials. The breaks in the levee, according to the statement of the commission for the reclamation of the alluvial basin of the Mississippi River, amounted in 1875 to 8,065,700 cubic yards. Repairs accomplished since then in Louisiana and Mississippi fully equal new cavings in Arkansas and Missouri. To restore the levees to their former height, closing all gaps, would require an expenditure of about \$2,020,000. The cost of maintenance can not be computed exactly without further data. The commission are of opinion that a continuous line of levee, giving, beyond a peradventure, security from overflow, would stimulate commerce and foster agricultural and manufacturing interests, bringing unprecedented prosperity to the riparian region.

The Jetty System.—This is the plan of improvement recommended by the commission. Bad navigation is produced by the caving and erosion of the banks, by excessive width, and by bars and shoals as results. The contraction of the water-way to a comparatively uniform width, and the protection of caving banks, are the essential features of improvement. The effect of narrowing the width is to remove shoals and fill up holes, thus giving an even bed, regularizing the discharge and reducing the friction, all of which tend to lower the flood-surface. Of the river below Cairo, it is known by observation that, wherever the low-water width does not exceed three thousand feet, the channel is good; wherever there is a wide low-water water-way, there are bars and shoals.

By contracting the low-water channel to an approximate width of three thousand feet, and causing by appropriate works the deposit of sediment on shoals outside of that channel, the improvement can be effected. The works for which estimates are given in the report are expected to maintain a depth of at least ten feet at low water on all bars. The commission

deprecate attempts to straighten the river or to shorten its course by cut-offs. Borings made in 1875, 1879, and at various other times, confirm the conclusion that the strata forming the river-bed are throughout of a yielding character. If in exceptional spots there is gravel or tough material too heavy for the current to scour, dredging may be required.

Experience both in Europe and at home demonstrates that light and inexpensive hurdles, mattresses of brush, or wire nettings, permeated by the stream, check it sufficiently to produce a deposit of silt. At certain points works of a more solid character are undoubtedly necessary; but such slender impediments have been used both in the Missouri and Mississippi. By these means, in the area to be reclaimed, silting-basins are established, where, during high water, the arrested current leaves its deposit as it flows onward. The accretion of this deposit may go on through one or more seasons, on varying levels, until the formation is complete. The new bank may be protected by a mattress or revetment.

An accurate estimate of the cost can not be made until the close of surveys now in progress. Improved methods of construction, developed while the work is under way, may reduce the aggregate amount required.

The initial works recommended by the commission as to be advantageously undertaken during the fiscal year ending June 1, 1881, have an aggregate length of two hundred miles of the shoalest water in the Mississippi below Cairo. The localities are New Madrid, Plum Point, Memphis, Helena, Choctaw Bend, and Lake Providence. Careful and comprehensive estimates are given of the inclusive cost of these improvements, which are thus summed up:

Estimates for works of improvement during first fiscal year.

Initial works for channel contraction and bank protection	\$411,800
Closing gaps in levees	1,010,000
Checking enlargement of Atchafalaya	10,000

Estimate for surveys and expenses of commission for fiscal year ending June 30, 1881.

For surveys and examinations above and below Cairo, and the necessary salaries and other expenses of the Mississippi River Commission	\$200,000
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The report further suggests that Congress arrange some equitable mode of appraisal and purchase of lands and materials needed in the prosecution of the improvements. It further recommends that execution and disbursements be not placed in the hands of the commission, but that their duties be confined to the making of plans and modifications, and a general advisory supervision.

This is a brief synopsis of a report which is at once minute and comprehensive. It is one of the most valuable scientific contributions ever made on the treatment of rivers. A bill is pending before Congress to enable the commission to carry forward the plan they have suggested.

The sub-committee of the Committee on Levees and Improvements of the Mississippi were directed by Congress to proceed down the Mississippi to its mouth . . . for the purpose of acquiring a knowledge of its peculiar conditions and wants, and to gather information relative to the best methods for its improvement."

The members of this sub-committee were Mr. Dum, of Arkansas; Mr. Myers, of Indiana; Judge Harris, of Massachusetts; Mr. Prescott, of New York; and Mr. Humphrey, of Wisconsin—representatives of different sections of our country, and of both the Democratic and Republican parties. On the 6th of May they took passage at St. Louis for New Orleans, on board the steamer James Howard. Her carrying capacity is about 3,000 tons on a draught of eleven feet. The river at St. Louis was about midway between high and low water. Frequent soundings were necessary, and in the upper part of the river it was found necessary to tie up at night. The channel shifts and soundings showed at times as little as twelve feet. In the low-water period the channel shows about four feet. Thus, for four months of the year, as far as the larger craft are concerned, navigation is practically interrupted. This steamer carried her cargo unbroken as far as Vicksburg, after which she made about seventy landings. The committee saw everywhere traces of the general and disastrous overflow of an earlier season. Although they did not see the river at high or low tide, they saw enough to convince them that narrow banks make deep channels, and that wide waters and dangerous bars and shoals are so universally associated as to suggest cause and effect. The observations of these practical men confirm the scientific views of the picked engineers forming the commission:

Wherever the width of the river is unusually great, or where it is divided into separate channels, serious obstructions occur. Through a narrow and undivided bed deep water is always found. Inequalities of width are caused by the caving of the banks. As bars and islands are formed by this process, they serve to intensify the original cause.

No natural cessation of the agencies now at work, destructive to navigation, can be anticipated.

We are of opinion that a process that will arrest the caving of the banks, and will develop the bars outside the width of the channel assumed as necessary into new shore-lines, conserving and strengthening the scouring power of the current instead of retarding, diverting, and dissipating it as they do in their present condition, is eminently necessary, not only for restoring the measure of navigation already lost, but to arrest the progress of deterioration which is steadily going on.

Your sub-committee have found that the parts of the levee system remaining range from about four to twenty feet high, comprising dikes attaining the height of thirty-five feet over bayous and sloughs. Where such dimensions are reached, their maintenance is important in preventing the depletion of the river and the resulting injury to navigation through the outlets which their destruction would cause.

The present provision by the States in which these works are located for their preservation or restoration

is inadequate and uncertain. It is also doubtful whether these States should be solely charged with these works, which, while they were built by them exclusively for protection from overflows, serve a national purpose in preventing destructive floods and in maintaining and improving by the removal of sand-bars the navigation of our inland waters. . . . From a careful comparison of our observations with the report of the Mississippi River Commission, we are of opinion that the description and explanation contained therein of the natural operations now progressing to the detriment of the navigation of the Mississippi River are apparently correct; and also that the methods therein recommended for the treatment of the Mississippi River appear to be correct and should be tested.

This is demanded both by the steady increase of the evils to be abated, and by the trade of the great Mississippi Valley seeking distribution and outlet.

After drawing a glowing but true description of the great valley whose cereal, cotton, and meat products form over 75 per cent. of the entire crop of the country, the sub-committee assert:

It is not unreasonable to estimate that the deepening of the Mississippi River will lessen the freight, carriage, and insurance rates of the cereals alone to the seaboard at least five cents per bushel, which gives in round numbers \$75,000,000 per annum on the present yield.

In accordance with the recommendations of this sub-committee, a bill was adopted by the Committee on Levees and Improvements of the Mississippi River, which was reported to the House May 28, 1880.

The purchase-money for the Great Father of Waters was paid by the people of the United States with cheerfulness, so well did they understand the force of Napoleon's words in the Treaty of Paris in 1803: "I have just given to England a maritime rival that will sooner or later humble her pride." During the war between the States many a sluggish spirit was roused by the determination that the whole Mississippi from Itasca to the Gulf should belong to the United States alone. The destruction of the levees was in part due to the war, but no one at this day could be found who would assert that therefore the Government is not called upon to rebuild them. On January 11, 1865, Secretary Stanton sent Major-General Humphreys to Louisiana to inspect the river and initiate repairs, because it had been represented to the department that the levees "require the immediate attention of the Government for the purpose of repairing them at certain places and placing them in a condition to protect the country from inundations that might occasion great injury to the agricultural interests of that region as well as to its commerce."

States imbued with any degree of civilization, even when laws are silent, respect and preserve the arteries of commerce. During the recent conflict between Russia and Turkey, Prince Gortchakoff hastened to assure the great powers that works on the Danube, impaired or destroyed during that war, should be restored to more than their previous efficiency

by the Russian Government. In times of peace, the facilitation of communication and transportation has been the proof of enlarged and liberal statesmanship. In a distant province, India, the British Government has expended \$500,000 on this sole object. The United States have not been niggardly in these respects. Nameless streams, which can scarcely be traced upon a map, have had a portion of the public bounty. The Pacific Railroad cost the Government \$90,000,000. The Welland Canal is about to be widened at an expense of \$40,000,000. The Cumberland River has received \$6,000,000; the Harlem, \$2,500,000; the canal round the Des Moines Gap, \$4,500,000. Nearly as large an appropriation has been made for the canal at Portland, on the Ohio. At a cost of \$5,250,000 the jetties have succeeded in opening and maintaining a channel twenty-eight feet deep, in which the Great Eastern may safely float. Yet the great river, a little way above it, is little better than a shifting network of shoals and bars. During four months of the year, just when the grain and other crops of the Northwest ought to be moved, the agriculturists of the valley of the Mississippi are deprived of their natural outlet to the sea. Thus freed from river competition, great corporations have only to combine and fix the rates of transportation. A difference of five cents a bushel makes \$75,000,000 a year saved or lost to the farmers of the great basin. The Mississippi flows from the northern to the southern limit of our country. It belongs to no special district, whose representatives concentrate their efforts on its interests. No influential corporation asks a subsidy. Yet it is not to be doubted, that when the people are roused to a knowledge of its condition, the recommendations of the national commission will be enforced. They will demand a solid bank and safe channel, deliverance alike from destructive floods and obstructed navigation. Systems of levees must be continuous or they are futile. The States are constitutionally prohibited from forming combinations for such or any purpose. They are legally debarred from exacting tolls or imposts, through which such works could be constructed or maintained. The Constitution reserves to Congress the right to regulate commerce, and provides that it shall have power to dispose of and make all rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States. The Mississippi by purchase, by treaty, by law, is national property. Its levees were originally built with the proceeds of public lands set apart by the national Government for that purpose. For ten years, before the war, the Government maintained a Mississippi River Commission to investigate methods of protection.

The recommendations of the present commission ask an outlay, small in proportion to the benefits to be attained. Their plan is no mere untried theory. So early as 1817, on the

river Rhine, contractions were made between the French frontier and Germersheim, and the system has been continued to our time, with the invariable result of a deepening of the bed and a sinking of the flood-surface. In 1869, according to the report of M. Henri Grebe-neau, inspector of public works at Germersheim, "the fall of the water-surface of the Rhine amounts to $2\frac{2}{100}$ metres, and all the spots exposed to inundation before 1817 continue now to remain dry."

The jetties afford proof positive of the adaptation of the contraction system to the peculiar formation of the Mississippi. President Hayes and the Secretary of War alike advert to the improvement of the Mississippi as a measure of "transcendent importance." In his letter accepting the nomination to the Presidency, General Garfield writes:

Fortunately for the interests of commerce, there is no longer any formidable opposition to appropriations for the improvement of our harbors and great navigable rivers, provided that the expenditures for that purpose are limited to works of national importance. The Mississippi River, with its great tributaries, is of such vital importance to so many millions of people that the safety of its navigation requires exceptional consideration. In order to secure to the nation the control of all its waters, President Jefferson negotiated the purchase of a vast territory, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean. The wisdom of Congress should be invoked to devise some plan by which that great river shall cease to be a terror to those who dwell upon its banks, and by which its shipping may safely carry the industrial products of twenty-five million people. The interests of agriculture, which is the basis of all our material prosperity, and in which seven twelfths of our population are engaged, as well as the interests of manufactures and commerce, demand that the facilities for cheap transportation shall be increased by the use of all our great water-courses.

It is to be borne in mind that there have never before been any save local surveys on the Mississippi. There has neither been triangulation nor levels. The Mississippi River Commission are continuing the work begun by General Comstock and the Coast and Geodetic Survey. According to their last report, their intention of continuing their observations below St. Louis, extending over the year, on and below each of the main tributaries, has been defeated by the reduction of the appropriation by Congress. This part of their project having been reluctantly postponed, the commission turned their attention to the river above St. Louis, a work of inferior importance, but all that the appropriation justified. The commission made two tours of inspection from St. Paul to the mouth of the Illinois. They report as follows:

The drainage basin comprises 33,719 square miles above St. Paul, 52,399 square miles on the right and 48,156 square miles on the left bank above the mouth of the Illinois. The immediate valley has an average width of about three miles; often, however, double this. . . . The rocky limits of this valley have been filled, in some places one hundred feet deep, with sand and gravel, in which the present river excavates and shapes its bed, in curves to which the bluffs are tangents, but never reaching the bed-rock

below. To these general characteristics there are two exceptions, at Rock Island and Keokuk. . . . In these localities are found rocky beds, forming rapids which obstruct low-water navigation. Similar formations exist at Fountain Bluff and at the Chain of Rocks below St. Louis. At Rock Island a channel four feet deep and two hundred feet wide at extreme low water has been cut in the rock, while at Keokuk has been built a canal, affording a minimum navigation of five feet and a maximum of eight feet. . . . The entire valley, except the sand terraces, is subject to inundation.

The water is nearly free from suspended matter. There are none of the complications attending the improvement of sedimentary streams. There are lakes and sloughs on both sides of the river, which enable the engineer to control the force he employs in deepening the main channel.

Many of the tributaries sweep in large quantities of sand, forming a lake-like expansion and depth above, with slight fall, and a steep, uncertain, and difficult channel below. The most marked example of this is caused by the Chippewa from the head of Lake Pepin down to the Alma. All indications show that the bed is still rising.

The present condition of the river does not afford a navigable depth of five feet for a sufficient part of the year to justify the construction of boats of greater draught. Yet economy in transportation depends upon the capacity of carriers.

Barges on the upper river, built with a limit of draught of five feet, carry about 12,000 bushels of grain; while those used below Cairo, when an average depth of eight or nine feet can be obtained for a large part of the year, carry 20,000 bushels on five feet, 30,000 on seven feet, and 60,000 on eight to nine feet.

An economical system of transportation demands not less than six feet throughout the channel at all seasons. Even if this depth can be attained with difficulty at Keokuk and Rock Island, two obstructions would not affect transportation so injuriously, provided the rest of the channel for 700 miles were free from danger and delay. The report continues:

The plan of improvement adopted for this part of the river consists of low-water dams, closing sloughs or side-channels, to augment the flow through the main channel; of spur-dikes, or jetties, or wing-dams, built out from convex shores where the width is too great to direct and concentrate the flow, and produce scour over that part of the bed promising the best channel; and of revetments to protect such parts of the banks as may be attacked by the direction and concentration given to the current by the dikes. The construction is of layers of stone and of brush, bound into fascines or mats.

At first these dams were raised only one foot above low water; they are now built four feet above. They now produce more rapid results to the channel, besides serving to define it, and affording protection against ice. In the opinion of the commission, this system of improvement is completely successful. Dredging has been occasionally resorted to, where erosion is slow, or landings must be secured in front of towns.

The results obtained are thus tabulated:

Practicable depths on bars on the upper Mississippi River at low water.

PART OF RIVER.	Before improvement.	After improvement.	Remarks.
St. Paul to St. Croix...	16 inches.	2 feet.	But two of the worst bars on this stretch improved.
St. Croix to Chippewa...	1 05 feet.	8 feet.	
Chippewa to Wisconsin	20 inches.	8 feet.	
Wisconsin to Illinois...	2 feet.	2½ to 4 feet.	

The following local results are more indicative, as the appropriations have not permitted work on all the shoals in any one reach:

SHOALS.	Before improvement.	After improvement.
Pig's Eye.....	1-8	4-5
Numinger.....	1-0	3-7
Smith's.....	1-3	4-5
Mount Vernon.....	2-0	4-5
Betsy Slough.....	1-5	4-5
Winona.....	1-5	8-0
Queen's Bluff.....	2-5	8-6
Cassville.....	1-9	4-5

The commission approve the system of improvements now being carried on in the upper river under Captain Mackenzie, United States engineer. They recommend that the sums appropriated be large enough to procure the extensive and expensive plant which is durable, and therefore economical; and that the Des Moines Canal be duly maintained. The progress of the surveys during the year is as follows:

Triangulation, Illinois River to Ohio River, completed to Powers Island, fifteen miles below Cape Girardeau, 205 miles.

Triangulation below Cairo, completed to Gaines's Landing, seven miles below Arkansas City.

Precise levels, Illinois River to Ohio River, completed to Cape Girardeau, 190 miles.

Precise levels, below Cairo, completed to Greenville.

Topography below Cairo: Survey of Vicksburg Harbor is completed, and work is resumed near Commerce.

The Coast and Geodetic Survey report on December 23d and 30th that the following work is complete, or it will be completed by February 1st:

1. The triangulation from the Gulf of Mexico to Greenville, Mississippi, a distance of 535 miles; and that from Helena, Arkansas, to Memphis, Tennessee, a distance of 85 miles.
2. The line of levels from Carrollton, Louisiana, to Greenville, Mississippi, a distance of 460 miles.
3. The topography from the Gulf to Donaldsonville, Louisiana, a distance of 195 miles.
4. The hydrography from the Gulf to Baton Rouge, Louisiana, a distance of 255 miles.

A leveling party began at Greenville, working down the river, and was below Vicksburg on December 30th, at which time a detachment, which began work at Carrollton, Louisiana, was above Natchez; and the two parties were to meet in January. This is the point of progress reached at the close of 1880 in this work on "the great inland sea."

MISSOURI. The message of Governor Phelps, delivered to the Legislature before retiring from office, presents more cheerful and hopeful views of the prosperity and prospects of the State than any similar document ever issued. The Governor recommends the reduction of the legal rate of interest to six per cent. That has been the prevailing rate in St. Louis during 1880, though eight per cent. was sometimes obtained, and money was loaned also at as low a rate as three per cent. It is proposed to have the census law amended, so that the census may be taken in 1885, and thereafter at decennial periods. An enlargement of the judiciary is demanded, and some additional reforms in criminal administration. The common schools are being improved at a gratifying rate. The population of the State is estimated to have increased in the last four years at the rate of 60,000 a year. Governor Crittenden, in his inaugural address, recommended a general registration law, and a revision of the revenue law.

The entire receipts into the State revenue fund for the two years 1879 and 1880 were \$3,145,664, including a balance on hand, January 1, 1879, of \$120,224. Of these receipts, \$2,766,189 was from revenue sources, and \$256,875 from the sale of revenue bonds. The disbursements have been \$2,861,638, leaving a balance on hand of \$284,026. Of the expenditures, \$327,057 was for eleemosynary institutions for the two years, including the cost of erecting the new Asylum for the Insane at St. Joseph. The expenditures for education have been \$1,145,381, of which \$363,720 was interest on bonds and certificates of indebtedness held in trust for the schools. The total taxable wealth of the State has increased from \$555,240,555 in 1878, to \$558,361,443 in 1879. The entire receipts into the State interest fund for the two years were \$2,329,039, which, together with a balance of \$156,039, makes a total of \$2,585,080. The disbursements were \$2,511,451, leaving a balance on hand of \$73,629. The indebtedness of the State, not including \$3,000,000 Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad bonds, is \$16,259,000.

The bulk of receipts into the State Treasury is divided into two funds, the revenue fund and the interest fund, each mainly made up of the proceeds of a tax of twenty cents on the \$100 on all taxable property in the State, which, by the assessment of 1878, is \$558,361,000. One fourth the proceeds of the twenty cents tax paid into the revenue fund is set apart every year for the support of the public-school system, and the remaining three fourths suffices for all the expenses of the State government, including the eleemosynary, penal, and other public institutions, the Legislature, the judiciary, and the cost of criminal prosecutions; \$1,115,000 sufficed for all these objects in 1879, and about \$983,000 in 1880. The interest fund is set apart for interest and other payments on the State debt, and is com-

posed of the proceeds of a tax of twenty cents on the \$100. These proceeds yielded in 1879-'80 \$2,429,041. The disbursements for the two years were \$2,512,451. The balance on hand January 1, 1881, was \$73,629. The annual proceeds of the interest tax are about \$1,100,000, and the annual interest on the State debt is about \$975,000; so that there is always a small surplus to devote to the reduction of the debt. The fact that the debt is not subject to the discretion of the Legislature, but is permanently provided for by this constitutional interest fund, which the Legislature can not impair, and a constitutional tax which the Legislature can not reduce below a sufficiency, amply guarantees the annual payment of the interest, and the ultimate payment of the debt. The debt is now \$16,259,000. This does not include \$3,000,000 bonds issued to the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, because these bonds are provided for by the road to which they were loaned. The railroad company has made a proposition to pay this debt off in cash. The loan made was in bonds of the State of the par value of \$3,000,000, which bear a higher interest than the current rates, and were therefore worth about \$700,000 more than their face value in the market. Of the debt, \$3,031,000 consists of non-negotiable bonds held in trust for the public-school system, the interest only on which is annually expended. These bonds will probably never be paid, as there is no reason why they should be, since, in that case, it would be necessary for the money to be invested in something else for the schools. The State debt is being gradually reduced by the payment of at least \$250,000 a year. It might be reduced more rapidly, but the last Constitutional Convention thought it wiser to reduce the taxes on the people from fifty to forty cents on the \$100, and leave the debt to be steadily diminished by a tax on a steadily increasing valuation. A plan is proposed for refunding the State debt, which now bears six per cent. interest, in non-taxable bonds bearing interest at 4 or 4½ per cent. The feasibility of the project depends upon the question of the constitutionality of making State bonds exempt from taxation. The amount of the State debt which is convertible at present is limited to the renewal funding bonds, known as the 5-20s, \$4,350,000 in all, the larger portion of which are held by the school fund. The large issue of railway bonds also is supposed by many to be redeemable at the option of the State, although the Auditor is of the opinion that they can not be discharged before maturity. A clause in one of the authorizing acts makes them redeemable ten years before maturing; but the acts are so conflicting and confused in their terms, that the holders of the bonds are generally ignorant of such a provision, which, therefore, could not be carried out, it is thought, without violating the good faith of the State.

The retiring State Treasurer, Colonel Gates, had deposited on his behalf, by his sureties, in the St. Louis Bank of Commerce, a sum sufficient to cover the amount of the State funds remaining in default, owing to the failure of the banks in which they had been deposited. This amount, which was \$184,970, being \$183,522 due to the Treasury from the insolvent Mastin Bank, of Kansas City, with accrued interest, was made payable to the State contingently, the condition being the enactment of laws to enable Treasurer Gates to proceed against the bankrupt institution, one of these being a bill to give the State a prior claim to the assets of insolvent debtors. When Gates entered upon his term of office, the moneys of the Treasury were deposited in the Missouri State National Bank, of St. Louis, and the banking-house of Mastin & Co., of Kansas City. The new Constitution contained a provision for a different method of placing the State deposits. It was considered that an enactment of the Legislature was requisite to enable the Treasurer to conform to this regulation. He deposited the funds with the State National Bank, from which no security was required, and with the Bank of St. Joseph. The following year, the Legislature having passed no law for the purpose, he advertised, on his own responsibility, for bids for the State deposits. Before satisfactory offers were obtained, the State National Bank suspended, June 19, 1877, with a large amount of State funds in its keeping. The Mastin Bank, which aided the Treasurer in maintaining the credit of the State at this juncture, was made the State depository; but on September 30, 1878, it also failed, with \$506,187 belonging to the State in its hands. The total amount of Treasury funds which were rendered unavailable by the two failures was some \$1,010,000. The moneys of the Treasury were subsequently placed in the Bank of Commerce, of St. Louis. Notwithstanding the embarrassments of the position, the Treasurer succeeded in meeting punctually all the obligations of the Treasury, leaving the finances of the State in admirable condition at the expiration of his term of office. With the exception of the balance stated above, the funds which were held by the bankrupt institutions were repaid out of successive dividends. The deposits had been made, as Governor Phelps declared in his message, without consulting the Attorney-General or the Governor as to the adequacy of the security, and entirely upon the responsibility of the Treasurer.

The assessment of property for taxation purposes for 1880 is about \$584,000,000, or some \$30,000,000 more than the valuation of 1878. This valuation is much below the actual value of the property of the State. There is a decided upward movement in the prices of farming lands, and a large increase each year in the aggregate value of railroad property. Personal property is returned as less than one third

of the total taxable wealth. In the assessment for 1878 the amount of "money, notes, and bonds" returned footed up only \$43,817,000. The Auditor states that many persons ship bonds and notes out of the State to escape taxation, and that others convert such taxable property into Government bonds and legal tenders, and then change them back again after making their returns.

From the Auditor's report for the two years it appears that the number of convicts being received at the Penitentiary is on the decrease. The number received, according to the warden's certificates for each of the last six years, was as follows: In 1875, 746; in 1876, 628; in 1877, 595; in 1878, 570; in 1879, 532; and in 1880, 466. The cost to the State Treasury of criminal prosecutions is usually estimated at \$200,000 to \$225,000 a year, and the Legislature of 1879 appropriated for this purpose \$491,000 for the years 1879 and 1880. But of this sum there was expended only \$376,578, leaving the large balance of \$114,466 unexpended. The sum expended for the preceding two years was \$511,547, so that the reduction was \$134,969. This reduction, the Auditor says, "is largely attributable to the revival of all business industries and commercial pursuits, which gave employment to thousands who, from the necessities of the extreme hard times, had become reckless and vicious from enforced idleness, and sought a livelihood by unlawfully preying on society and property." The costs of criminal prosecution in 1880 were \$126,697, against \$208,836 in 1879. The delays which formerly occurred in the administration of the criminal laws in a large portion of the State, now no longer happen, as stated by Governor Phelps in his message.

The number of convicts in the Penitentiary on the 31st of December was 1,218, a decrease of 62 from the preceding year, and the institution shows an excess of earnings over expenses for the last two years of \$32,901. During this period the expenses of the Penitentiary amounted to \$178,715, the earnings being \$211,617.

The number of children of school age, five to twenty-one years, in 1880 was 723,484, of whom 681,995 were white and 41,480 colored. The total school population in 1877 was only 676,153. The number attending school was 482,989, of whom 460,090 were white and 22,896 colored. The number of schools taught was 8,641, of which 8,149 were white and 492 colored. The value of all the public-school property in the State was \$7,353,401, and the number of schoolhouses 8,270. The number of teachers employed was 11,659. The wages paid to teachers during the year amounted to \$2,118,637, and the total sum expended for schools to \$3,151,178. The several funds in the State devoted to free education are the State school fund, \$2,903,457; State seminary fund, \$122,000; county school funds, \$2,392,723; township school funds, \$1,-

950,732; special school funds, \$1,523,903—total, \$8,898,816. In addition to the annual income from these several funds, one fourth of the State revenue is devoted to the support of the schools. On the 1st of November there were in attendance on the three normal schools 513 students at Kirksville, 237 at Warrensburg, and 184 at Cape Girardeau; and there were 497 students at the State University, 105 at the Lincoln Institute for colored youth, and 71 at the School of Mines. At the Lincoln University an entire corps of colored instructors was in charge for the first time in 1880.

The State Board of Immigration was created by an act passed in 1879. By a subsequent act, the appropriation, which the original law provided should be \$10,000 per annum, was cut down to \$4,000 per annum for the ensuing two years. An office was opened at St. Louis. Information was solicited concerning the products, prices, and quality of lands, and capabilities for receiving immigrants of the different sections of the State. A pamphlet, succinctly describing the resources of the State, was issued, with an accompanying map showing the railroad extensions to date. Andrew McKinley was appointed Superintendent of Immigration. On the recommendation of the State Board, county immigration societies were organized. There are not over 2,000,000 acres of public lands remaining, of which only a small portion is of superior quality, and this is not easily available, owing to the destruction of the records during the war. The need and capacity of Missouri for immigration are, however, felt to be great, the county societies are active, and a warm interest is generally taken in the State board, which asks for an appropriation of \$30,000 for the next two years in order to take advantage of the large immigration movement from Europe, and spread information as to the prospects afforded in the undeveloped parts of Missouri.

A census bulletin gives the following footings for the State of Missouri: Males, 1,127,424; females, 1,041,380; natives, 1,957,564; foreign, 211,240; white, 2,023,568; colored, including 92 Chinese and two half Chinese, and 96 Indians and half-breeds, 145,236—total, 2,168,804.

Missouri now has 4,007 miles of railroad in operation, 390 miles having been built in the last year. The number of miles of steel track increased from 1,500 to 2,000 in the same time. The narrow-gauge system is represented by 195 miles. There is not a county north of the Missouri without a road, and only twenty-two south of the river. The gross earnings of all the roads in the State in 1880 were \$21,000,000, which is but a little less than the taxable valuation of the roads. There is one mile of railroad to every 542 inhabitants in the State, and one mile to every 400 inhabitants in the northern part of the State. Many of the southern counties embraced in the Ozark Hills do not possess the areas of productive valley and prairie

which are found in the central and northern parts of the State, but these counties possess other elements of wealth—iron, lead, zinc, and valuable earths suitable for the manufacture of porcelain and paint, large forests of valuable pine and cedar, and a considerable number and variety of healing springs.

A destructive wind-storm swept over the southern part of the State, April 18th, causing the loss of over one hundred lives. The town of Marshfield was almost entirely destroyed. Such whirlwinds seem to have become more frequent of recent years, Houstonia and Richmond having been devastated in the same manner within two or three years, as well as Mount Carmel in Kansas.

The city of St. Louis, after a long period of quiescence, seems to have entered upon a new career of commercial growth. During the year 1,854 building-permits were issued, and \$3,790,650 were expended upon the construction and alterations of buildings. The cotton receipts for 1879-'80 amounted to 480,000 bales; but a considerable portion of this trade belonged properly to Memphis, the yellow fever having caused the temporary transfer of the business to St. Louis. The receipts of the year 1877-'78 were 246,674 bales, and the receipts for 1880-'81 promise to be far greater. The quantity received in 1870 was less than 20,000 bales. For this business, which now amounts to over \$30,000,000 a year, a new Exchange Building is to be erected. A call board has been organized, and dealings in futures were commenced September 1st. The grain-trade has grown with a like rapidity. The receipts of wheat in 1876 were 7,604,265 bushels; in 1879 they had increased to 17,093,362 bushels; and in 1880 to 18,349,403 bushels. The consumption of the St. Louis mills in 1880 was fully 5,000,000 bushels. The receipts of corn in 1880 were 21,227,358 bushels, against 13,360,636 bushels in 1879. Exports to Europe through the port of New Orleans have within the short time that the jetties have been open reached a high figure, and already exceed in quantity the consignments by rail. In 1879 the river shipments from St. Louis amounted to 2,390,897 bushels, being about one half the quantity sent overland. In 1880, 5,578,240 bushels were shipped in bulk to New Orleans, nearly as great a quantity as was shipped eastward by railroad. The quantity of corn shipped in barges down the Mississippi was 9,450,358 bushels in 1880, against 3,585,589 bushels in 1879. The total grain receipts of St. Louis aggregated 50,629,940 bushels in 1880, against 38,001,398 bushels in 1879. The shipments of pork and meats fell off from 216,207,923 to 198,672,105 pounds. The receipts of horses and mules increased from 33,289 to 46,001 head. The elevator capacity, which was 4,950,000 bushels, had been increased to 6,850,000 bushels in 1880. The bank clearings increased from \$1,119,368,256 to \$1,422,918,978. The confidence of the people in the banking institutions of Missouri was

greatly shaken by the failures which followed the panic, and the lax methods of business which were disclosed. The law requiring a certain proportion of the capital stock subscribed to be paid up, the general discontinuance of the custom of paying interest on deposits, and the fact that none of the twenty-five banks of St. Louis has failed during 1880, though some of them had been considered infirm, and had lost many customers, restored the feeling of security in the banking system of the city.

The United States Supreme Court has rendered a decision which, probably, finally disposes of the question of the liability of the township for railroad subsidy bonds. This third decision of the Supreme Court, affirming the former decision that the bonds are valid and binding, has been awaited for about two years. All the township bonds and railroad bonds of the State are issued under an act known as the "Township Aid Act," which appeared to be in violation of the State Constitution; and, when the question was presented to the United States Supreme Court in 1875, they were declared to be unconstitutional and void by that tribunal. Another case was brought before the Court, and a second decision was rendered which reversed the principle established by its first decision, citing in support of the new decision certain rulings of the State Supreme Court. The latter Court subsequently denied that its rulings bear such a construction, and decided that the act was unconstitutional. In accordance with the principle that the United States courts are bound to follow the State courts in the interpretations they make of the State Constitution, the matter was again brought up in the United States Court, with the expectation that it would reverse its second decision. While acknowledging the general application of that rule, the United States Court refused to adopt the construction put upon the Constitution in this case, declaring that the rights of parties in the litigation are to be determined by the law as it was judicially construed by the State court at the time when the bonds in question were put on the market. "At that time," say the Court, "the State Supreme Court held, and had repeatedly held, that the Township Aid Act was constitutional. It now thinks that act is unconstitutional. This Court is of the opinion that it is not bound to adopt the latest ruling of the Supreme Court of Missouri, if, by such adoption, the rights which have become vested under an earlier ruling are to be injuriously affected."

The Republican Convention to select delegates to the Presidential Convention assembled at Sedalia, April 14th. The following resolutions were adopted:

1. That we reaffirm the time-honored principles of the Republican party, that all men are created free and equal; that this is a nation, and not a confederation of States; that all of the issues settled by the late war and all of the legislation regarding the same are final, and any attempts to in any way annul or affect the same are revolutionary.

2. That we hereby endorse the Administration of that patriot, soldier, and statesman, Ulysses S. Grant, as President of the United States, and hereby instruct the delegates appointed to the National Republican Convention, to be held in Chicago, to vote as a unit on all questions, and for Ulysses S. Grant as the candidate of the Republican party of the United States for the Presidency.

The Democratic Convention met at Moberly to elect delegates on May 26th. The resolutions adopted expressed confidence in Tilden and Hendricks, denounced the methods by which the popular vote of 1876 had been nullified, and declared for the two-thirds rule.

The Greenback State Convention, meeting at Sedalia, July 14th, nominated the following State ticket: for Governor, Luman A. Brown; for Lieutenant-Governor, H. F. Fellows; Secretary of State, O. D. Jones; Auditor, Dr. A. C. Marquis; Attorney-General, A. N. McGindley; Supreme-Court Judge, Peter Bland; Register of Lands, James A. Matney; Railroad Commissioner, J. B. Alexander.

The Democratic Convention for the nomination of State officers met in Jefferson City, July 21st. The following ticket was nominated: for Governor, Thomas T. Crittenden; Lieutenant-Governor, Robert A. Campbell; Secretary of State, M. K. McGrath; State Auditor, John Walker; Attorney-General, Daniel H. McIntyre; State Treasurer, Philip E. Chappel; Supreme-Court Judge, Robert D. Ray; Railroad Commissioner, George C. Pratt; Register of Lands, Robert McCulloch. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved by the Democratic party of Missouri in Convention assembled:

1. That we accept and endorse the principles embodied in the platform adopted by the National Democratic party in June, 1880.

2. That the nomination of General Winfield Scott Hancock and the Hon. William H. English for President and Vice-President by our National Convention is a matter of earnest congratulation not alone to Democrats but to all patriots irrespective of party; that it means the strict and constitutional subordination of the military to the civil power, and that through the national triumph of the Democratic party in November, of which that nomination is a sure prelude, sectional asperities will disappear, and the era of good feeling again return throughout our common country.

3. That we congratulate the citizens of the State that the Administration of the State government by the Democracy during the last decade has increased her population, national wealth, and means of social happiness; that our institutions of learning are taking rank among the best in the Union, and we cordially invite the industrious immigrant to make his home in our midst.

4. That the Democratic party will ever encourage and maintain the common schools and institutions of learning established by our State, believing a general diffusion of useful knowledge promotes the happiness and protects the rights of the people.

5. That as one of the objects of good government is to so administer public affairs as to afford the largest measure of protection to the greatest number with the least possible uncertainty and burden, therefore we recommend the enactment of the fairest and plainest laws consistent with this end, their rigid enforcement and exact observance, and the strictest practice of economy in every department of the State government consistent with the growth, development, and neces-

sities of the State, together with the most exacting accountability on the part of those intrusted with the custody and disbursement of the public revenue.

6. That we recommend the reduction of the rate of interest on the State debt so soon as it can honorably and legally be done.

7. That this Convention, speaking for the people of Missouri, bear cheerful testimony to the eminent public services of John S. Phelps, Chief Magistrate of this State; that by his matured statesmanship, wise and efficient administration of our laws, full protection to life, liberty, and property has been guaranteed to every citizen of our State.

The Republican State Convention met in St. Louis, September 15th, and made the following nominations: For Governor, D. P. Dyer; Lieutenant-Governor, Milo Blair; Secretary of State, J. C. Broadwell; Auditor, L. A. Thompson; Treasurer, W. Q. Dollmeyer; Supreme Court Judge, J. V. C. Carnes; Railroad Commissioner, Howard Barnes. The platform contained the following resolutions relating to State affairs:

We arraign the Democracy of Missouri for their infamous legislation during their administration of the affairs of state—their cotton bill, which strikes at and means to prevent the further introduction of capital into our State, and which is in effect open repudiation.

We arraign them for their unjust and unauthorized construction of the revenue laws, whereby our farmers are for the first time doubly taxed; first on their growing crops, and again on their crops after they are harvested.

We arraign them for their laws concerning the collection of taxes, whereby a large per cent. of those assessed are not collected, and another large per cent. of those collected never reach the Treasury.

We arraign them for the crime of aiding and abetting the robbery of the State Treasury, and their refusal to bring the defaulting State Treasurer to trial after they had impeached him for high crimes and misdemeanors.

We arraign them for their policy which has prevented immigration into the State, and the introduction of capital and the growth and development of industries.

We arraign them for their unjust and infamous redistributing law, whereby for the purpose of disfranchising 175,000 Republican voters they made some districts to contain but 20,000 voters, and others with over 50,000; some two miles long and thirty wide, and one to cross the Missouri River three times, and none compact but all Democratic.

We arraign them for their abject and servile submission to the dictates of the Confederate wing of their party, recognizing in their conventions no other qualification for their nominees but their devotion to the lost cause, except when the party outside the State warned them that such course would be impolitic.

We arraign them for squandering the school funds of the State, and their spirit of opposition to the public schools.

We arraign them for their failure to prosecute the notorious criminals of the State, and for permitting a Republican State to perform that duty.

We arraign them for their misappropriation of the sinking fund, and their neglect to provide for the payment of the State debt as required by the Constitution.

We arraign them for their effort to levy a poll-tax, and make the payment of such tax the basis of the right of suffrage.

The election returns show the following vote for Governor: Crittenden, 207,670; Dyer, 153,636; Brown, 36,342. Crittenden's plu-

rality over Dyer, 54,034; his majority over all, 17,692. The composition of the Legislature of 1881 is as follows: Democratic Senators, 26; Republican, 6; Greenback, 2; Democratic Representatives, 97; Republican, 43; Greenback, 3.

The vote for President gave 153,587 to the Garfield electors, 208,609 to the Hancock electors, and 35,045 to the Weaver electors; total, 397,241 votes, against 351,765 in 1876. The Greenback vote was larger than in any other State, Michigan casting nearly as many votes for the third party, and Iowa the next nearest number.

MOHAMMEDANISM. The number of Mohammedans is known but very imperfectly, because, in most of the countries in which Mohammedanism prevails, no trustworthy census has as yet been taken. It may, however, be regarded as highly probable that it can not fall short of 230,000,000. The latest estimates of the Mohammedan population of the states of the Balkan Peninsula given by Mr. Jakshilich, a distinguished statistician of Servia, vary somewhat from those given in former volumes of the "Annual Cyclopædia." The following is an approximate statement of the statistics of Mohammedanism at the close of 1880:

I. In Europe:	
Turkey proper.....	1,883,000
Bulgaria.....	760,000
Eastern Roumelia.....	850,000
Bosnia and Herzegovina (inclusive of Novibazar).....	510,000
Roumania.....	120,000
Servia.....	75,000
Montenegro.....	4,000
Russia.....	2,365,000
Total Europe.....	6,076,000
II. In Asia:	
Russia.....	5,064,000
Turkey.....	13,000,000
Persia.....	6,900,000
Arabia.....	3,700,000
India.....	50,000,000
China.....	5,000,000
Afghanistan and Beloochistan.....	4,630,000
States of Central Asia.....	3,000,000
Indian Archipelago.....	23,000,000
Anam.....	50,000
Total Asia.....	114,244,000
III. In Africa.....	110,000,000
Grand total.....	231,220,000

The decay of the Mohammedan states continues to advance without interruption. The most powerful among them, Turkey, was again obliged to cede territory to Montenegro, and will hardly escape, in the course of 1881, the cession of a considerable portion of its southern provinces in Europe to Greece. The Mohammedan population of Roumania, Eastern Roumelia, Bulgaria, Bosnia, Servia, Montenegro, Russia, the Netherlands, and the British possessions, lives under Christian Governments, without any prospect of ever gaining their independence. Of the 121,000,000 Mohammedans of Europe and Asia, 4,000,000 are now subjects of Christian Governments, and this number is likely to increase steadily. In Africa, Tunis is threatened with destruction by both France and Italy; and Morocco received, in

1880, a warning from an International Congress of the Christian powers of Europe, that it must cease to oppress its Jewish and Christian inhabitants. (See Morocco.)

MONTENEGRO, a principality of South-eastern Europe. Reigning Prince, Nicholas I, born October 7, 1841; declared Prince on August 14, 1860, upon the death of Prince Danilo I. He was married, November 8, 1860, to Milena, daughter of Peter Vukotitch. The children of this marriage are two sons—Danilo Alexander, born June 30, 1871, and Mirko, born in 1879—and six daughters. The area of the country in 1880, before the new regulation of the frontier, was about 9,475 square kilometres, and the population was officially estimated at 236,000, of whom about 4,000 were said to be Roman Catholics, as many Mohammedans, while the remainder belonged to the Greek Church. According to Gopkevitch, a writer of note on the Balkan Peninsula, the population amounted to 299,400, among whom there were about 34,000 Mohammedans and 18,000 Roman Catholics.

Efforts to adjust the complications which had arisen concerning the rectification of the Turkish frontier, according to the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, engaged attention during most of the year. The Montenegrin Government had grown weary of the delay of the Porte in executing the cession of Gussinje, and had, among the last acts of 1879, sent a circular to the powers urging them to energetic action to remedy the existing state of things, but promising that it would not for the present regard the attitude of the Porte, contrary as it was to the stipulations of the treaty, as a *casus belli*. The Turkish Government had proclaimed to the inhabitants of Gussinje and Plava that those districts no longer belonged to Turkey, but to Montenegro, and had warned them that opposition to the Montenegrin authorities would be illegal. Osman Pasha was appointed Ottoman commissioner for the delimitation of the Turko-Montenegrin frontier; and the Porte replied to the Montenegrin circular with a statement to the powers that it was not responsible for the delay in surrendering Gussinje, but that Montenegro had brought on the conflict by dispatching a large force to the frontier. The Albanian chiefs resolved to resist the Montenegrins to the utmost, and Moukhtar Pasha professed to fear to use force lest his soldiers should join with them. The question of the cession was taken up in February on a new basis, and the substitution of other territory for Gussinje was talked of. Italy proposed a new line of frontier, by which the boundary, starting from the Gulf of Kastrati, should follow the mountain-range as far as the Sem, and continue thence to Mount Visitor, thence to the Line, thence northeasterly till it should coincide with the frontier marked out by the Congress of Berlin. Montenegro laid a further claim to the district of Mercovic, on the Adriatic. Turkey objected to ceding the plain ly-

ing between Podgoritzza and the Lake of Scutari, on the ground that it comprised three elevated points which could be fortified by the Montenegrins, and would dominate Turkish territory. The Russian Government approved the Italian proposition, provided it should be accepted by the other powers and by Montenegro; and the Montenegrin Government expressed a willingness, while it preferred to take its stand unconditionally upon the Treaty of Berlin, to enter into negotiations for the substitution of other territory instead of Gussinje and Plava. The Sultan agreed to the concession of a line that should leave to Turkey the eastern half of the plain of Podgoritzza as far as Poula on the Lake of Scutari. The Montenegrin Government demanded a modification of the line as proposed, and declared that, if its views were not acceded to, it would not further entertain the idea of territorial compensation for the districts of Gussinje and Plava. A line was finally agreed upon, on the basis of the Italian proposal, with some modifications respecting the country near the Lake of Scutari in concession to the views of the Turkish Government, and the preliminary act of ratification was signed at Constantinople, April 12th, by Savas Pasha, Minister for Foreign Affairs, and M. Vukovitch, the Montenegrin *chargé d'affaires*, and the ambassadors of the powers were instructed by their governments to signify their adhesion to the arrangement. By the terms of the new agreement, the Turks were to evacuate the ceded positions by the 23d of April, giving twenty-four hours' notice of their intention. They removed, however, within seven hours after they had given notice, and before the Montenegrins had sufficient time to enter into the ports. The positions were thereupon immediately occupied by the Albanians, who were in possession when the Montenegrins came up, and refused to give way to them. A Montenegrin and a Turkish officer, who went from Podgoritzza to Tusi to hold a conference with the Albanians assembled at the latter place, April 21st, were received with a volley of musketry, and had to fly for their lives. An engagement took place on the 23d, on the Montenegrins advancing to occupy Tusi, with losses to the Montenegrins. The Government of Montenegro addressed a note to the representatives of the powers at Cetinje, accusing the Turkish authorities of connivance with the Albanians in their resistance, and demanding the fulfillment of the convention, together with compensation for the delay in the surrender of the territory. The representatives of the powers at Constantinople addressed a collective note to the Porte, demanding that the territory occupied by the Albanians be immediately reoccupied by the Ottoman troops, and then surrendered to Montenegro. The Porte replied to this note with a statement that the facts and circumstance which accompanied the evacuation had been misrepresented, and proposed that an international commission should be

sent to the spot to make a searching inquiry, conceding, as an unequivocal proof of its sincerity, to the powers the care of determining the form and the conditions of the execution of the investigation. As soon as the affair was made clear, it would, after consulting the powers, "consider the measures to be taken for the smoothing down of present difficulties without giving rise to fresh conflicts and new bloodshed." The reply was not considered acceptable by the ambassadors. An identical note of the powers, respecting all the stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin which remained unsettled, was presented to the Porte on the 12th of June. Concerning Montenegro, it stated that the convention of the 12th of April for an exchange of territory was sanctioned by Europe, but the Albanians, by occupying the points ceded to the principality, had jeopardized the situation and rendered a collision possible. The question required a prompt solution, and the powers consequently called upon the Porte to communicate to them within a brief space of time and in explicit terms, its intentions in regard to the rights acquired by Montenegro. If this was not acceded to, the responsibility for the grave consequences which might ensue would fall upon the Porte. The Porte replied to this note, expressing a wish to carry out the convention, but urging that a certain time must be allowed for that purpose. The ambassadors replied that their powers were opposed to the further delay asked for; and, taking into consideration an offer which the Porte had made to accept any other proposal to settle the difficulty, suggested the cession to Montenegro of the territory of Dulcigno. The report of this proposition was received with great indignation by the Albanians. The Turkish Governor of Scutari, when asked by a deputation from Dulcigno for explanations with regard to it, replied that he had no official information on the subject, and advised them to take measures for the defense of their city. Men were sent by the Albanian League to occupy the heights around the place, and were even allowed by the Turks to enter it, the Ottoman garrison retiring to Scutari. The Porte replied to the last proposition of the powers that it was most anxious that the matter should be settled, but, in view of the resistance offered by the Albanians, it would be impossible to surrender Dulcigno and the Bojana district to the principality. The Montenegrin representative at Constantinople, having received a proposal to accept a money compensation instead of territory, was ordered to break off relations with the Porte; but the Turkish Government suggested afterward that it could surrender to the Montenegrins the territory around Scutari, and the *chargé* was instructed to postpone his departure. The Albanians, having learned that the Turks had promised to execute the convention for a surrender of territory, made an attack on the Montenegrin advanced posts, July 13th. Prince Nicholas ordered his troops to keep on

the defensive, as he was desirous of acting only by diplomatic means. A collective note was presented to the Porte, August 3d, in which the powers invited Turkey to execute the convention of the 12th of April within three weeks, or, as an alternative, to surrender Dulcigno to Montenegro. The Ottoman Government replied to this demand that it had decided to send a member of the Ministry to Dulcigno with troops to put into execution the convention of April. In the event, however, of its being unable to execute the convention within the time fixed by the powers, it asked for an extension of the time for a period of a week or a fortnight, within which interval the town and district of Dulcigno would be handed over to Montenegro. Failing such an extension of time, it would decline all responsibility. Before the three weeks granted by the powers had expired, the Albanians still refusing to give up Tusi and Dinosh, the Turkish Government again put forward the plan of surrendering Dulcigno, which it suggested the Albanians might be induced to accept if it were so modified as to leave Dinosh in their possession. A proposition was also talked of to cede Dulcigno without the Bojana district. The surrender of Dulcigno not having been accomplished at the end of August, the powers resolved to make a naval demonstration, which they had contemplated for several weeks, in case Turkey should continue to delay the execution of the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin. The Porte made strenuous exertions to avoid the demonstration, and the Council of Ministers, September 8th, decided to issue a circular informing the different governments that Turkey was firmly resolved to hand over Dulcigno to the Montenegrins without more delay, and the display of force would not be necessary. Instructions were sent to the commanders of the troops in Albania to take the most efficient measures to execute the decision of the Government, and use their utmost endeavors to obtain a pacific submission of the Albanians. The authorities of Dulcigno were notified that the transfer of the territory would take place on the 12th. The preparations for the naval demonstration went on notwithstanding these movements of the Turks; the vessels of the six great powers were assembled in the harbor of Gravosa; and it was decided that, in case the demonstration took effect, the fleet should be under the command of Vice-Admiral Seymour, as the senior officer of highest rank among all the commanders. A joint note of the powers was presented to the Porte September 16th, demanding the surrender by Turkey of the territory mentioned in the note of August 3d, with the exception of the districts of Dinosh and Gruda. On the 17th the Porte issued a circular of protest against the employment of force, asking the powers to await the equitable and moderate execution of the decision to surrender Dulcigno, and pleading: "Shall not the inhabitants of the ceded town enjoy the privi-

leges of natural right common to all as regards their faith, their homes, and their lives? Will not the line of the *status quo* which was previously fixed on the side of Podgoritzza for the surrender of Dulcigno receive, as it ought, the adhesion of the powers?" On the 20th the Porte was officially informed that the combined fleet had assembled, and a letter from Admiral Seymour was delivered to Riza Pasha, demanding "a definite categorical reply" in regard to the surrender of Dulcigno. The Sultan was said to have declared on the same day that he would not admit any cession of territory to Montenegro, and, if the powers were determined it should be made, they must take the territory themselves. A fresh communication on the part of the powers informed the Porte that, if Dulcigno and Magatosh were made over to Montenegro within the next three or four days, the demonstration would not take place. The movement of the combined squadrons against Dulcigno had been arranged to take place in the last week of September. The purpose was, by commanding the shore batteries from the ships, to cover the Montenegrin forces while they should advance to the attack upon the town. On the 26th, however, Admiral Seymour was informed by the Montenegrin Minister of War that Riza Pasha had declared to Prince Nicholas that any attempt to cross the Albanian frontier would be regarded by Turkey as a declaration of war, and would be resisted by the whole strength of the Ottoman force. In consequence of this declaration, the Montenegrins hesitated to make the attack, for they felt that they were unable to cope with the Albanians and the Ottoman regulars combined. The admirals accordingly agreed to delay the attack while they awaited new instructions from their several governments. On the 4th of October the Ottoman Government presented a note to the powers, in which it declared in regard to Montenegro it would undertake to "cede Dulcigno and cause it to be evacuated, while maintaining the line of the *status quo*, as soon as the powers shall have given the assurances it has demanded by its last note, and which it now demands once more. The imperial authorities will inform the local population that they are free to remain in their homesteads, or to emigrate to other parts of the empire. The imperial authorities will give the said populations all the advice and use the means of persuasion required for that end. If these attempts should fail, the troops and local authorities shall retire from the frontier, and the Ottoman Government shall not be held responsible for any complications that may arise on the spot from the failure of such attempt." These provisions it would carry out only on condition that the powers should forego the design of a naval demonstration and all other means of pressure. The effect of this note was to add strength and persistency to the concert of the powers. A plan was submitted by the British Government,

and favorably received by the other governments, for suspending the direct proceedings against Dulcigno and seizing several of the chief ports of the Ægean Sea. This plan finally took the form of a determination to seize the port of Smyrna and sequester its revenues in case the Sultan's Government should persist in trifling with the question of the surrender. The harmonious and evident resolution of the powers to act upon it brought about the desired change in the mind and bearing of the Turkish Government; and on the 10th of October the ambassadors at Constantinople were informed that it would direct the immediate transfer of Dulcigno, and the Sultan would issue an *irade* to that end. In answer to a request for more definite explanations of the intentions of the Porte, the Minister for Foreign Affairs informed the ambassadors that the cession would comprise both the town and district of Dulcigno, and that instructions had been given to arrange the most satisfactory way of making it over to the principality. Delay still ensued while the Turkish and Montenegrin Governments could come to an agreement relative to the terms of the transfer, keeping alive the suspicion that Turkey was only trying to gain time. The Ottoman Government proposed a convention on the following terms: 1. The property and liberty of the Mussulman inhabitants of the ceded district to be guaranteed; 2. The maintenance of the *status quo* to the east of Lake Scutari; 3. Montenegro to assume a portion of the Turkish debt corresponding to the importance of the ceded district, and an arrangement to be made respecting the *vacoufs*; 4. Liberty of emigration for the inhabitants of Dulcigno; 5. Maintenance of the Ottoman flag on the trading-vessels belonging to the inhabitants of Dulcigno; 6. The property of the Ottoman Government to be guaranteed; 7. Maintenance of the Turkish laws. The Montenegrins objected to the second and fifth of these stipulations. New conditions were offered, and the question was finally referred to the commanders of troops. The surrender was persistently opposed by the Albanians. Riza Pasha summoned the chiefs of the Albanian League to Scutari, where he explained to them the absolute necessity of making the surrender, and stated that, if they refused to consent to it, they would probably be the means of inflicting serious injury upon Turkey. The chiefs still refused to give their consent. A messenger, who was dispatched by Riza Pasha with a proclamation addressed to the inhabitants of Dulcigno in reference to the surrender of the place, was murdered. Dervish Pasha was appointed governor of Albania late in October, and was charged with the duty of effecting the surrender. He arrived near Dulcigno, October 30th, with eighteen battalions. A body of regular Turkish troops marching from Scutari upon Dulcigno was stopped by Albanians, November 3d, and compelled to retire. Dervish Pasha sought to

disembark six battalions of Nizams, but was refused admission to the town, and his troops encamped outside. The Sultan and his ministers professed great anxiety to have the surrender accomplished, and authorized the commanders of the combined fleet to use force to crush the resistance of the Albanians if necessary. Dervish Pasha, however, hoped that he would be able to effect the cession without bloodshed, and entered into communication with the chiefs of the League at Scutari, while those at Dulcigno refused to have any intercourse with him. He finally demanded the surrender of the town by the chiefs under a threat that he would employ force if it were refused. The chiefs asked for a delay of thirty days, which he denied, whereupon he proceeded to more decisive measures. On the 18th of November he occupied the heights of Biela with a large force of men and guns. On the 21st he moved upon Dulcigno, where he was opposed by the Albanians at Lake Sas, on the north bank of the Bojana River, in a contest that continued through the day. He renewed his advance on the next day, but was beaten back, and was compelled to pass the night in the open country, an hour's march from Dulcigno. On the 22d he undertook to carry the heights of Mazura without success, and was again obliged to pass the night outside of the town. On Wednesday, the 23d, he entered Dulcigno after a short engagement. Satisfactory arrangements having been made between the envoy of Prince Nicholas and Dervish Pasha, the town was formally surrendered to Montenegro, Friday, November 26th. On the next day, Bajo Petrovics entered the place in state, and was met at the gates by all the head men of the villages and other leading Mussulmans, tendering their allegiance. A thanksgiving service was celebrated, and the Montenegrin standard was hoisted on the fortress with a salute at noon. Prince Nicholas sent a dispatch of acknowledgment to the Sultan for the manner in which the cession had been accomplished, and also addressed a note to the six powers expressing warm thanks for the support that had been accorded to his government in the naval demonstration. The Montenegrin force, occupying the whole district of Dulcigno, was well received, with entire tranquillity prevailing. The Government promised the inhabitants of the ceded territory liberty of worship, an amnesty for past resistance, and security in the tenure of their property, and thus induced many, who had intended to remove, to remain. After a few days, diplomatic relations were resumed with Turkey. The delimitation of the frontier still remained to be adjusted, and pending the settlement of this question the Turks continued to occupy the district of San Giorgio. The Turkish Government, with a view to the fulfillment of its engagements, stationed seventeen battalions of troops on the frontier, with instructions to prevent the Albanians

from interfering with the Montenegrin occupation of Dulcigno.

The port of Dulcigno, the town which made so prominent a figure in these transactions, was a famous resort of pirates during the sixteenth century. Old Dulcigno was captured by the Turks in 1571. The Porte undertook to suppress piracy, but failed, on account of the connivance of the local governors with the pirates, until the Pasha Suleiman, more earnest and determined than his predecessors, burned the five hundred vessels of the Dulcignote fleet in the harbor. The blow was fatal to the old town, and a new town, New Dulcigno, was built a little farther inland. This place was occupied for a short time by the Venetians in 1722. It was taken by storm by the Montenegrins in 1878, but Austria objected at the Conference of Berlin to their retaining it, and caused the adoption of the provision to give them Gussinje and Plava in its stead. The harbor of Old Dulcigno is one of the oldest on the Adriatic, and is the best one between the southern point of Dalmatia and the mouth of the Drin. It enjoys a secure protection from the sirocco, and is favorably situated for the navigation of the Bojana River. New Dulcigno has about 5,000 inhabitants, of whom 3,500 are Mohammedans. The whole district contains about 8,400 Mohammedan and 4,000 Catholic Albanians, 1,500 Slavs, and 1,200 gypsies.

MOROCCO, a Mohammedan country in Northern Africa. Sultan, Muley-Hassan, born 1831, eldest son of Sultan Sidi-Muley-Mohammed; ascended the throne at the death of his father, September 13, 1873. The Sultan bears at home the title of "Emir-al-Numemin," or Absolute Ruler of True Believers.

The present Sultan is the fourteenth of the dynasty of the Aïdes, founded by Muley-Achmet, and the thirty-fifth lineal descendant of Ali, uncle and son of the Prophet. The crown is hereditary in the family of the Sharifs of Fiheli, or Tafilet. Each Sultan has the right to choose his own successor among the members of his family, and, if this privilege is not exercised, the crown devolves upon the eldest member of the family.

The Sultan of Morocco and his Mohammedan subjects differ in some respects from the Mohammedans of Turkey, Persia, and other countries, by adopting as their text-book of faith the commentary upon the Koran by Sidi Beccari, the original of which is kept at the imperial palace, and deposited in time of war in a tent within the center of the army, around which the soldiers rally as both a symbol of religion and national standard.

As the southern frontier toward the Sahara is unsettled, the area of Morocco can not definitely be given. It is approximately estimated at 672,300 square kilometres, of which about 197,100 belong to the Tell, or the fertile coast and mountain region, 67,700 to the steppes, and 407,500 to the Sahara without Taat. The population has sometimes been estimated as low as

2,500,000; Rohlf's and several others assume 6,000,000; and Tissot even assigns to the country as many as 12,000,000. About two thirds of the population belong to the race commonly known as Moors, the remaining third consisting mainly of Bedouin Arabs, Jews, estimated at 340,000, and negroes. The number of Christians is very small, not exceeding 1,000. The capital, Fez, has about 150,000; Morocco, from 40,000 to 50,000 inhabitants.

The movement of commerce, including precious metals, was in 1879 as follows, value expressed in francs (1 franc=\$0.19).

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain.....	14,102,000	7,808,000
France.....	8,529,000	9,229,000
Spain.....	220,000	541,000
Portugal.....	22,000	290,000
Italy.....	325,000	420,000
Belgium.....	206,000	54,000
Netherlands.....	25,000
Other countries.....	88,000	309,000
Total 1879.....	23,867,000	18,651,000
Total 1878.....	23,955,000	23,469,000

The movement of shipping in 1879 is given in the following table:

VESSELS.	LADEN.		IN BALLAST.		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Entered.....	1,084	820,428	854	46,179	1,488	866,607
Cleared.....	1,140	883,065	295	30,191	1,435	868,256

The entrances were distributed as follows among the flags under which the vessels sailed and among the ports which they entered:

FLAG.	Vessels.	Tons.	PORT.	Vessels.	Tons.
English.....	548	138,548	Tanger.....	685	94,056
French.....	367	205,340	Larache.....	69	18,588
Spanish.....	463	17,901	Rabat.....	95	28,865
Portuguese.....	41	1,963	Casablanca.....	106	65,291
German.....	5	975	Mazagan.....	140	68,491
Danish.....	1	171	Saffi.....	81	42,132
Swedish and Norwegian.....	1	148	Mogador.....	82	50,179
Dutch.....	2	224	Tetuan.....	280	4,005
Others.....	5	1,042	Total.....	1,488	866,607

The condition of the Jewish population of Morocco and the treatment to which they have been subjected have attracted the attention of Europe, and have been made the subject of an international conference. The Jews in this empire are more numerous in proportion to the whole population than in any other country. They are estimated to number 340,000 souls, of whom about 200,000 came to Morocco directly from Palestine, and the remainder are the descendants of the Jews who were expelled from Spain during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. A letter published in the Gibraltar "Guardian," in January, gave an account of serious disorders which had broken out at Fez. The Moors, it was stated, had attacked the Jews, wounding several, and "amid shouts of joy" had killed a man seventy years of age by pouring petroleum over his body and setting fire to it while he was still alive. Two Frenchmen were wounded during the disturbance. A remonstrance was immediately addressed to the Emperor against this and other outrages by the American consul, who informed his Majesty that considerable agitation had been excited in Europe, and even in America, over the treatment to which his Jewish subjects were exposed; and that such a state of affairs could not continue without great prejudice and injury to the empire; demanded that the perpetrators of outrages should be punished; and warned him that "it is indispensably requisite that the Israelites of Morocco should be pro-

tected by the local authorities, otherwise it will not be long before they will all be protected by foreign nations." The consul also stated that several representatives of foreign nations, as well as himself, had received instructions to inquire into the condition of the Jews of Morocco, and to consult concerning the means of ameliorating it. Five Kabyle chiefs arrived at Malaga, Spain, near the end of January, bringing with them a petition from several thousand Moors, asking to be placed under the allegiance of Spain. They declared that, if the Spanish Government declined to assume the protectorate over their country, they would ask for the protection of France or England. The Spanish papers expressed strong hopes that the authorities would accede to this request, and urged in favor of it that, while Germany, Italy, England, and Austria had made annexations at the expense of costly wars, Spain was, in this case, freely offered a territory with some forty-five miles of seaboard, extending thirty-five miles inland, and inhabited by fifteen thousand persons. The Kabyles came to Spain, the journals said; "Spain does not seek them—and therefore the acquiescence of Spain with the request made to her can offend no one." The King of Spain called an international conference to meet in Madrid in May, to consider the affairs of Morocco, and the best means of securing to Moorish subjects of all classes and creeds protection and the full enjoyment of their rights. This conference concluded its labors in June, having

as the result of its deliberations put in the hands of the envoy of Morocco a memorandum signed by all of the eleven plenipotentiaries demanding of the Emperor liberty of conscience and equality of rights for his Christian and Jewish subjects. The Emperor replied to the propositions of the conference with a letter to his envoy at Madrid, which was attached to the protocol of proceedings, in which he said that he wished all his subjects to be on an equal footing before the tribunals, and that he deprecated and would punish all outrages against those who were not Mohammedans. The protocol of the conference was signed by all the plenipotentiaries on the 4th of July. Very little, if any, actual amelioration of the condition of the people was expected to result from these proceedings, for it was generally believed that, whatever the Emperor might profess to desire or promise to do, he was wholly incapable and unwilling to carry out any genuine reform. A correspondent holding a consular position in the empire was quoted by the "Pall Mall Gazette" in July as writing: "Nothing that has been published can be more than a pale reflection of the condition of humiliation and degradation in which the Jews of Morocco exist under the rule of Muley-Hassan. I can not say whether the promises made to the Madrid conference by the representative of the Sultan will produce any improvement in their state. I confess I doubt it. But it is only fair to say that the Jews do nothing to escape from their wretched condition. . . . The demand of Morocco at the conference came to nothing less than the almost complete removal of foreign protection; yet, if there is one country more than another where this protection ought to be increased rather than diminished, it is Morocco. It is unfortunate that the European powers are not of one mind on this subject. Instead of a single concession, their representatives ought to have asked Mohammed Bargash if his master would try to introduce a little civilization into his country, and what means he would employ to rescue Morocco from its present position as a hot-bed of fanaticism and barbarism."

The outrages on Jews continued. An old man was bastinadoed in August on an accusation which was said to be false. The Governor of Arzila summoned the members of the Jewish community before him, and made a threatening address to them. A Jewish messenger who was sent by the Italian minister plenipotentiary with a dispatch to the Sultan was attacked and beaten in the streets of Fez for wearing shoes in violation of the law which requires all Jews in the principal cities to go barefooted. Other outrages were reported in November; and the Government showed a disposition to be punctilious in carrying out the rules established by the convention of Madrid, by limiting the number of Jewish subjects to whom it gave protection, according to their exact letter.

The Emperor in March informed the foreign

legations in Tangier that he would not recognize the naturalization of any Moorish subjects in foreign countries. The internal condition of the country was disorderly, and disturbed by insurrections; and the Emperor's authority was defied in many towns.

A proposition has been made by M. Bombonnel to the French Government, for the construction of a railway through Morocco to Oran in Algeria, for the sake of doing away with the sea-voyage from Marseilles to Algiers. M. Bombonnel shows that the scheme involves no great difficulties. The line to be taken through Morocco would traverse a country without ravines or mountains, inhabited by an industrious population who would favor the scheme. The only sea-passage necessary in connection with it would be one of a quarter of an hour from Gibraltar; and the length of railway to be laid down would be only five hundred kilometres, costing, it is estimated, a hundred million francs.

MOTT, LUCRETIA, the Quaker philanthropist, was born on the Island of Nantucket in 1793. Her maiden name was Coffin, and her progenitors belonged to the Society of Friends. She was educated partly in Boston, partly at the Friends' Boarding School in Dutchess County, New York. She must have been precociously advanced, for, according to her own statement, she was already a teacher at the age of fifteen. In 1809 her parents removed to Philadelphia, where she was married in 1811. She was fluent in speech, and as early as 1818 was widely known as a preacher in the Society of Friends. When that body was riven in twain by theological dissensions, she cast her lot with the Hicksite or Unitarian branch. Long before there was any organized agitation on these topics, Lucretia Mott was antislavery and woman's rights in her proclivities. She took part in the first Antislavery Convention, which was held in Philadelphia in 1833, and which organized the American Antislavery Society. The following year the Philadelphia Female Antislavery Society was founded, of which she was a zealous member. As its emissary, she lectured throughout the Northern States, where the subject was then unpopular. She also extended her tours into some of the slave States. In 1840 she was one of the female delegates sent by the Philadelphia society to a World's Antislavery Convention, assembled in London. These women were refused admission, and the fiery indignation caused by this action led to the establishment of woman's-rights journals in England and France, and to the calling of the first Woman's-Rights Convention in America. This was held at Seneca Falls, New York, in 1848. Its president was James Mott, the husband of Lucretia. This is the sole public mention made of him, but he is understood to have echoed his wife's opinions. After the disposal of the antislavery subject, she devoted herself to woman's rights. She actively promoted the founding of the Woman's Medical College, of Pennsyl-

vania. Each philanthropic novelty found in her an untiring advocate. She espoused the cause of temperance, and latterly the movement for universal peace. She attained the age of eighty-eight years, dying on November 11th, in Philadelphia.

MYER, ALBERT J., an American meteorologist and Chief Signal-Officer of the United States Army, born at Newburgh, New York, September 20, 1828; died at Buffalo, New York, August 24, 1880. Graduated from Hobart College, Geneva, New York, in 1847, appointed Assistant Surgeon United States Army, with the rank of first-lieutenant, September 18, 1854, and assigned to duty in Texas. While serving on the frontier he elaborated a system of day and night signaling with flags and torches, by which parties within telescopic range of each other could converse as fully and accurately as by the electric telegraph, although with less rapidity. This was effected by framing an alphabet from simple numerical combinations, and representing these numerals by movements to the right or left of a stationary object or of the human figure. The apparatus required was inexpensive, readily attainable, and easily transported, while the whole work came within the capacity of the average soldier. The system, after careful experiment, was adopted by the War Department, and Dr. Myer, refusing a money compensation, was made Signal-Officer of the Army, with the rank of major, June 27, 1860, the position being especially created for him by necessary legislation. The first field work with the new signal code was in New Mexico, where Major Myer took part in an expedition against the Navajo Indians, and its usefulness was fully demonstrated. When the civil war broke out, Major Myer was ordered to Washington, and assigned to duty with the Army of the Potomac. He secured the detail of a number of officers and enlisted men, and organized a camp of instruction, at which matters were pushed so rapidly that he was enabled to furnish each army corps as it took the field with a competent force of skilled signalists. On March 3, 1863, he succeeded in getting this temporary detail of officers and men organized into a distinct and permanent corps, of which he was appointed the head, with the rank of colonel. On November 10, 1863, owing to a want of harmony between himself and the Secretary of War, he was relieved from charge of the corps and assigned to duty in a Western department, where he remained until July, 1864, when, his appointment as Chief Signal-Officer failing of confirmation by the Senate, he retired to his home in Buffalo and devoted himself to the preparation of the "Manual of Signals," until reappointed and confirmed as Chief Signal-Officer, July 28, 1868. During his administration in the field he introduced for the first time in the history of military warfare the use of movable or field telegraphs on the actual field of battle. For his

services in organizing, instructing, and commanding the Signal Corps during the war, he was brevetted brigadier-general, to date from March 13, 1865. From the date of his restoration to active service until 1870, General Myer devoted himself to perfecting the details of the Signal Service. On February 9, 1870, Congress passed a joint resolution authorizing the Secretary of War to provide for taking meteorological observations at the military stations in the interior of the continent and at other points in the States and Territories of the United States, and for giving notice on the Northern lakes and seaboard by telegraph and signals of the approach and force of storms, and the execution of this duty was confided by the Secretary to General Myer as Chief of the Signal Service and as having been previously interested in the subject of storm telegraphy. The preparatory work of organization was prosecuted with energy. Soldiers were detailed and instructed as observers, instruments and stations selected, arrangements made with the telegraph companies for transmitting the observation, and on November 1, 1870, at 7.35 A. M., the first systematized simultaneous meteorological observations ever taken in the United States were read from the instruments by the observer-sergeants of the Signal Service, at twenty-four stations and placed upon the telegraphic wires for transmission. On the first day of report, weather bulletins were posted at each one of the twenty-four selected stations, and the practical working of this division of the service was assured. The field was virtually a new one. A few venturesome spirits from the first days of the electric telegraph had dreamed of the possibility of such a work, and some had even made unsuccessful attempts to realize their dream, but they failed to grasp the great principles on which General Myer built the success of the Weather Bureau—the *simultaneity* of the observations—and the military discipline by which their regularity was assured. The work of the Weather Bureau soon became popular and was rapidly extended, having increased at the date of General Myer's death to over three hundred stations, with a force of five hundred men, each one of whom was a practical meteorologist. In 1873 General Myer represented the United States at the International Congress of Meteorologists convened in Vienna, and secured the concurrence of the Congress in the proposition that at least one uniform observation of such character as to be suitable for the preparation of synoptic charts should be taken and recorded daily and simultaneously at as many stations as practicable throughout the world, for the purpose of mutual exchange. This action extended the system of simultaneous observation over the whole northern hemisphere, and was the beginning of a new era in international meteorology. On July 1, 1875, General Myer began the publication of a daily "International Bulletin," comprising the reports from

all coöperating stations, and on July 1, 1878, this was supplemented by a daily international chart, both publications being the natural outgrowth of his Vienna proposition. In 1879 General Myer was a delegate to the Meteorological Congress at Rome, and arranged for an additional daily international observation, the details of which were completed but a few days before his death. On June 16, 1880, he was promoted to the full grade of brigadier-general, as a special reward by Congress for his distinguished services in the line of his profession. General Myer's success in taking an abstract science like meteorology and in ten years making it one of the most important bureaus of the Government, was due to his practical knowledge of human nature and to the indomitable will and courage with which he met and overcame obstacles that would have crushed weaker or less resolute men. To collect and distribute these reports by telegraph daily, required a perfection of work not attainable by any method then in use. This he overcame by insisting upon a system of telegraphic circuits, by which unity of action was assured at certain fixed hours daily. The amount of telegraphing was enormous, and at usual rates much in excess of the whole appropriation made for the service. He met this difficulty by securing the application to the telegraph companies of an old and forgotten law, by which the cost of telegraphing was materially reduced, and this action soon forced a general

reduction of telegraphic rates throughout the United States, a result directly traceable to the early work of the Signal-Office. General Myer was the first person in the United States, or in the world, to make or have made a series of simultaneous reports by which alone it is possible to ascertain the atmospheric condition of an extent of territory at a given moment of time. Under his administration as Chief Signal-Officer a line of telegraph was constructed along several hundred miles of the worst seacoast of the United States, and interior lines, aggregating a total length of more than five thousand miles, were built, and the settlement of a vast area of unimproved country greatly hastened and facilitated. He established a system of cautionary day and night signals for the benefit of lake and ocean commerce and navigation, a system of reliable river reports for the benefit of interior commerce, special series of reports for farmers, and for cotton and sugar planters. Scarcely an industry escaped his watchful care, and it was the knowledge of this vigilance that made Congress support him with liberal annual appropriations. As a writer General Myer was methodical, painstaking, and accurate. His manual of signals is used as a text-book at the Military and Naval Academies in the United States and in similar institutions abroad. His annual reports contain a vast fund of special information of value to the student of meteorology and kindred sciences.

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NEBRASKA. The State of Nebraska is growing rapidly in population and wealth. The fertility of its soil and the extent of the unoccupied lands attract a large immigration. The crops of 1880 were generally good, notwithstanding unfavorable meteorological conditions in the beginning of the season. Railroads have been rapidly extended into the new settlements. Companies have been formed for the development of the coal-fields, which are believed to be very rich. The abundant water-power of the streams and rivers is being utilized for manufacturing purposes. Wild lands are being brought under cultivation with rapidity. After the next Congressional apportionment, based on the census of 1880, the State will send three Representatives to Congress instead of one as at present.

The Treasury statement for the two years ending November 30, 1880, of the total receipts and expenditures, is as follows:

Balance in the Treasury December 1, 1878.....	\$460,181 99
Receipts from all sources during the two years ending November 30, 1880, including transfers	1,451,817 52
Total amount.....	\$1,911,999 51
Disbursed during the same period, including transfers.....	1,568,980 90
Balance in hand November 30, 1880.....	\$343,018 61

The last General Assembly limited the rate of taxation for the general revenue to two mills on the dollar. This rate is reckoned to be inadequate to support the general expenses of the government. There was to the credit of this fund, at the beginning of the biennial fiscal term, the sum of \$162,577. The receipts have amounted to \$560,014, and the expenditures to \$669,435; leaving a balance of \$53,156, and showing an excess of expenditures over receipts of \$109,421. This unfavorable result was obtained from a tax-levy of four mills on the dollar. With a two-mill tax the levy is estimated to amount to \$180,999 for the year 1881, while the usual expenses of the government amount to \$350,000 at least a year. To avert a deficit of over \$300,000 at the close of the next fiscal term, and serious embarrassment in the administration of the finances, the Legislature is expected to establish a different rate of taxation.

F. W. Liedtke, the Auditor of Public Accounts, from the beginning of his term of office, deposited the fees received from insurance companies for examining their statements in the capacity of insurance commissioner, in the banks as his private funds, and drew against them for his own use. The Con-

stitution adopted in 1875 abolished all official perquisites, and requires every species of office fees to be turned over to the Treasury. The salary of the Auditor was consequently raised from \$800 to \$2,500 a year. The duties of Land Commissioner, which had been united to those of the Auditor, and for which that officer had drawn an additional salary of \$1,000, were by the same instrument intrusted to a separate officer. The salary attached to the new office of Commissioner of Public Lands was fixed at \$2,000. The Auditor before Liedtke, J. B. Weston, had administered the duties of the Land Commissioner until the expiration of his term of office and the election of the special officer for that service, and the Supreme Court had decided that he was entitled to the salary belonging to that office in addition to his salary as Auditor. The Governor, upon learning of the practice of Auditor Liedtke of appropriating the insurance fees, called upon him, July 28, 1880, for an accounting, demanding a sworn statement of the fees of all kinds paid into the Auditor's office. The Auditor reported \$1,165.37 office fees and \$7,498 insurance fees received. Treasurer Bartlett reported the amount of fees paid over by the Auditor as \$1,103. The Auditor based his claim for the insurance fees as his official perquisites upon two dicta of the Supreme Court, one deciding that the Secretary of State was entitled, when acting as adjutant-general, to the perquisites appertaining to that office, by virtue of which decision the State pays to the Secretary of State \$500 in addition to the salary of his office for this extra service, and the other ruling that a public officer may perform extra labor, that is, labor not required of him by the law establishing his office. The Auditor claimed that the fees collected as Insurance Commissioner were his personal perquisites because that was a separate office, for which no pay was assigned. Attorney-General Dilworth commenced proceedings by mandamus against him in the Supreme Court, and obtained judgment. The Auditor failed to satisfy the judgment, and proceedings were instituted against his bondsmen. He subsequently vacated his office and left the State. The Governor appointed as temporary Auditor John Wallichs, who was nominated for the office and elected at the general election to be Auditor for the next term.

The collections of taxes in Nebraska are excessively lax. Governor Nance, in his biennial message, calls upon the Legislature to enact laws which will remedy the "evident neglect of official duty," declaring that "under the loose practice that has prevailed, many property-holders have escaped taxation, while others have been compelled to bear increased burdens." The Auditor's books on the 30th of November showed uncollected revenues of the enormous amount of \$861,213, the delinquent taxes due to the several funds being as follows:

General fund.....	\$392,119 09
Sinking fund.....	118,296 84
School fund.....	287,448 07
University fund.....	85,980 40
Penitentiary fund.....	20,978 58
Normal Building fund.....	2,292 08
State Board fund.....	1,145 95
Total.....	\$861,213 56

The aggregate amount of taxable property in the State, as shown by the assessment of 1879, was \$75,359,798. The taxes levied by the State for all purposes were six mills on the dollar. The returns to the various funds on that levy were as follows:

General fund.....	(4 mills)....	\$301,489 17
Sinking fund.....	(1 mill)....	49,188 90
Temporary school fund.....	($\frac{1}{2}$ mill)....	75,359 75
University fund.....	($\frac{1}{2}$ mill)....	28,259 86
Total.....		\$454,192 68

The property valuation of 1880 was \$15,139,820, or nearly 25 per cent, greater; and the amounts which will accrue to the various funds, with the rate for the general fund reduced to two mills, will be as follows for the year 1881:

General fund.....	(2 mills)....	\$180,999 18
Sinking fund.....	(1 mill)....	51,054 92
Temporary school fund.....	($\frac{1}{2}$ mill)....	90,499 66
University fund.....	($\frac{1}{2}$ mill)....	83,987 29
Total.....		\$356,490 95

The bonded indebtedness of the State at the close of 1880 was as follows:

Ten per cent. ten years' relief bonds of 1875....	\$50,000 00
Eight per cent. funding bonds issued in 1877....	449,267 85
Total.....	\$499,267 85

The debt has been reduced by \$100,000 in accordance with the scheme of gradual liquidation adopted by the General Assembly in 1879. The surplus funds of the Treasury were directed by the Legislature in 1879 to be invested in interest-bearing securities, and in pursuance of that act they have been placed to the amount of \$50,000 in United States four per cent. bonds. State funding bonds to the amount of \$100,000 held by the permanent school fund have been redeemed and canceled, and the money reinvested for the school fund in registered county bonds.

The total assessed valuation of property in Nebraska for 1880 was \$90,499,618. The value of real estate was assessed in the aggregate at \$48,694,375. The acreage taxed was 13,267,281 acres, of which 3,498,906 acres were improved, and 9,768,375 acres unimproved lands. Of the quantity on the assessment-rolls, about 28 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the total area of the State, which aggregates 46,636,800 acres, a large proportion belongs to railroad companies or is the property of private speculators. The valuation of the improved lands taxed was assessed at \$16,325,483; of the unimproved, \$27,368,892. The statistical reports of arboriculture show that 57,739,894 forest-trees, 465,636 grape-vines, and 2,009,627 fruit-trees have been planted in the settled parts of the State. The acreage reported as planted to

wheat was 1,054,691 acres; the area under corn, 1,124,709 acres; under oats, 173,058 acres; barley, 85,180 acres; meadow, 39,863 acres; flax, 8,215 acres; millet, 6,554 acres; rye, 8,537 acres; potatoes, 1,500 acres; hay, 1,378 acres. The number of horses returned was 198,381, valued at \$5,677,653; cattle, 675,244 head, value \$5,966,855; mules and asses, 20,032 head, value \$693,630; sheep, 194,959, value \$237,430; hogs, 767,702, value \$930,804. The valuation of railroad property was \$9,943,192; of telegraph property, \$45,076. Other items in the assessment-roll were carriages and wagons, \$1,148,379; merchandise on hand, \$3,043,413; agricultural tools, \$1,599,574; investments and improvements on real estate, \$957,573; furniture, \$974,834; property of corporations, \$404,876; moneys of banks and brokers, \$413,465; of other persons, \$571,544; credits of banks, etc., \$139,972; of other persons, \$960,957; bonds, stocks, etc., \$439,779; bridge property, \$264,845.

The population of Nebraska, as shown by the returns of the census supervisors, is 452,542: the inhabitants in the counties north of the Platte numbering 173,205; south of the Platte, 279,337. The total population of Nebraska in 1855 was 4,494; in 1860, 28,841; in 1870, 122,933; in 1875, 246,200. The population of the city of Lincoln has increased from 2,441 in 1870 to 13,697 in 1880.

The aggregate number of persons of school age in the State in 1880 was 143,343. The total attendance of the public schools in 1879 was 76,956; in 1880, 92,545. The number of schoolhouses was increased from 2,112 in 1877 to 2,231 in 1878, 2,409 in 1879, and 2,700 in 1880. The valuation of school property was \$1,805,466 in 1878, \$1,810,288 in 1879, and \$2,064,768 in 1880. There were 70 graded schools in 1880. The average wages of male teachers was \$36.12; of female teachers, \$31.92. The per capita cost of tuition computed on the enrollment was \$8.05 in 1877, \$7.08 in 1878, \$6.06 in 1879, and \$5.93 in 1880.

The number of acres of school lands remaining unsold on November 30, 1878, was 1,025,556.78; the number of acres deeded during the years 1879 and 1880, 7,991.60; leaving 1,017,555.18 acres of public lands still unsold. In the unorganized counties, and counties having no record of lands, there are estimated to be 889,720.33 acres of school lands; in unorganized territory belonging to the State, 527,360 acres. There were sold at public auction 11,741.22 acres in 1879 for \$88,448, and 2,482.03 acres for \$31,055 in 1880; and there were sold to lessees at private sale 16,881 acres in 1880 for \$122,008. There were leased in 1879 134,697 acres valued at \$572,078, and in 1880 122,843 acres valued at \$539,321.

The amount paid in to the temporary school fund during the two years was \$543,506, of which \$143,905 was derived from the State school-tax, \$97,169 was interest on school land sold, \$127,071 receipts from leases of school

land, and \$175,361 interest from invested funds, etc.

The Land Commissioner and the Attorney-General presented a claim on behalf of the State to the Department of the Interior at Washington for indemnity for lands lost from the sale of the Otoe and Pawnee reservations. The Interior Department has admitted the justice of the claim. The quantity of land which will be added to the school lands by virtue of the claim is 22,372 acres. The permanent school fund, invested in registered county bonds, United States 4 per cent. consols, and other securities, has reached the sum of \$639,086.

The aggregate number of acres of land owned by the State on the 30th of November, 1880, was as follows:

Common-school lands.....	2,434,645.51
University lands.....	45,089.93
Normal lands.....	12,722.39
Saline lands.....	13,285.00
Penitentiary lands.....	676.71
Agricultural College lands.....	89,452.78
Internal improvement lands.....	480.00
Total.....	2,596,302.32

The saline lands were donated to the State by the General Government for the development of salt-springs within the State, toward which no steps have yet been taken by the Legislature.

The General Assembly in 1879 appropriated \$50,000 from the general fund for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the State University and the Agricultural Farm. As a special fund had been created for these objects, the Auditor refused to pay this appropriation from the general fund. He was obliged to make the payment by a mandamus issued by the Supreme Court. The expenses of these institutions have in this manner been paid out of that fund, and the Governor recommends that the amounts drawn be refunded from the temporary university fund, when the collections for this fund are sufficient for that purpose. The endowment of the university from the lands donated by the General Government will probably make the institution ultimately very wealthy. The students of the university come from all parts of the State, and a good number of them from other States. The State Normal School at Peru is in a prosperous condition. The reports show 275 scholars enrolled in 1880, and 90 graduates during the two years.

The number of prisoners in the Penitentiary at the close of the year was 266, of whom 11 were United States prisoners and 59 convicts from Wyoming Territory. The effects of the "good-time act" and of a humane system of discipline have proved very salutary. Only three have died in the two years. In the Insane Hospital the number of patients has increased from 122 in 1878 to 192 at the close of 1880. The building has been enlarged. The number of inmates in the Deaf and Dumb Institute on the 30th of November was 75, an increase of 50 per cent. in the two years. Improvements have been made, and a further enlargement is

demanded. The pupils have been instructed in different branches of industry, and the trades which have been introduced have each proved self-sustaining. The buildings of the Institute for the Blind are large enough for present requirements. On November 30th the number of inmates was 27. The proportion of blind persons to the total population is very low in Nebraska. The building of the Reform School which has been established at Kearney has been completed.

The necessity of calling upon the United States authorities for aid to preserve the peace during the Olive trial in April, 1879, suggested to the Governor and the Adjutant-General the advisability of making the State militia more efficient. There was no militia law in existence, and no appropriations had been made for the purpose. Nevertheless, a force of 598 officers and men was organized and uniformed, without aid from the State, upon the call of the Governor.

The Fish Commissioners placed 190,000 California salmon-fry in the streams of the State in 1879, and 300,000 in 1880; they also distributed a number of German carp. There are 6,485 miles of streams and rivers in Nebraska, and 11,160 acres of lakes.

The Republican Convention for the nomination of a State ticket assembled at Lincoln, September 2d. The incumbents of all the offices, with the exception of the defaulting State Auditor, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, S. R. Thompson, who declined a renomination, and the Land Commissioner, were renominated by acclamation, as was also Congressman E. K. Valentine. The ticket was composed as follows: For Governor, Albinus Nance; Lieutenant-Governor, E. C. Carns; Secretary of State, S. J. Alexander; Auditor of Public Accounts, John Walliehs; Treasurer, G. M. Bartlett; Attorney-General, C. J. Dilworth; Commissioner of Public Lands, A. G. Kendall; Superintendent of Public Instruction, W. W. W. Jones. The following platform was adopted:

1. The Republicans of Nebraska most heartily endorse the profession of principles formulated by the National Republican Convention at Chicago, and pledge their unwavering support to the candidates there nominated.

2. We affirm that the doctrine of national sovereignty is the fundamental principle upon which the perpetuity of the nation rests, and that the principle of home rule as enunciated by the Democratic party is but the cautious expression of the Calhoun doctrine of State rights, is revolutionary in its character, and destructive to the unity of the nation.

3. We regard the recent seizure of the polls and wholesale robbery of the franchises of the Republican citizens of Alabama, by the Democratic party officials, surpassing in the magnitude and effrontery of the crime any former effort of that party under the Tweed plan in New York and the Mississippi plan in the South, as a fair specimen of Democratic methods, and a foretaste of Democratic dominance in national affairs, that should incite every honest man and tax-payer in the country to the most earnest endeavor to defeat the party of brigandage and fraud at the polls in November.

4. We have considered what "Lee and Jackson

would have done if they were alive," and have determined to employ our best energies in preventing the seizure of the national Government by their living comrades through the fraud of a "solid South."

5. We congratulate the people of the State upon its rapid increase of population and wealth, and upon the good measure of prosperity that has rewarded their labor, and upon the rapid rebuilding of our material interests since the success of resumption and the revival of trade.

6. We pledge our support to such legislation in Congress, and such measures by the State Legislature, as may be necessary to effect a correction of the abuses, and prevent extortion and discrimination in charges by railroad corporations.

7. We most cordially invite the aid and coöperation in this defense of the national integrity and the nation's purse, of all Republicans and war Democrats who have differed with us on temporary issues, or have clung to a party name honored by their forefathers, but dragged in the dust by the degenerate party leaders of to-day.

The regular Democratic State Convention met at Hastings, September 29th, and made the following nominations for State officers: For Governor, Thomas W. Tipton; Lieutenant-Governor, S. H. Calhoun; Secretary of State, G. W. Johnson; Auditor of State, D. C. Patterson; State Treasurer, Frank Folda; Commissioner of Public Lands and Buildings, E. H. Andrus; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Alexander Bear; Attorney-General, George E. Pritchett. The platform included the following strictures on the Republican management of State affairs:

The Democracy of Nebraska declare that under Republican fundamental laws, under Republican statutory enactments, and under the administration of Republican officials, during its thirteen years of State existence, its people have been plundered, as to their public domain (which has been divided out ostensibly for the purpose of constructing railways, but really for enriching political favorites), to the extent of nearly all the five hundred thousand acres of internal improvement lands, and that taxes under a Republican Constitution which provided for them, and under special laws which made them collectable, have been levied upon the many for the purpose of constructing and giving railroads to the few; that the fundamental proposition, that no citizen shall be deprived of his property without due process of law, has been ignored and trampled under foot by the Republican system of subsidizing corporations, and by the imposition and collection of taxes from the people as a subsidizing sequence.

Therefore the Democrats of Nebraska protest against the further endowment of private corporations, either at the expense of the public domain, or at a cost to the people's pockets, by the further issuing of county bonds, or other evidences of public debt.

The Democrats demand an amendment to the State Constitution which shall for ever prohibit the vesting, by gift from this State, of another acre of land in a private corporation, and which shall make it for ever impossible to donate county or precinct bonds, or any other evidence of public debt, to any corporation whatsoever.

Many of these obligations, incurred for the purpose of inducing the construction of railroads, are undoubtedly legal, and should be paid; and many of them are undoubtedly illegal and void. The former should be refunded, at a rate of interest not exceeding six per cent. per annum, and the latter should be legally resisted in every county, precinct, and town in the State.

They demand the calling in and liquidation of State bonds at the earliest possible moment, and the reduction of the rate of interest thereon at once by refunding.

The Democrats denounce the extravagance which has characterized the Republican party in the construction of the former Insane Asylum, the Penitentiary, the University, and other public buildings in Nebraska, and demand a thorough and searching investigation by the next Legislature into all contracts heretofore made, or now existing, between the State and certain contractors and jobbers, who are known to have eaten up many hundreds of thousands of dollars of the people's money.

Resolved, That we are in favor of such a change by the next Legislature of the existing revenue laws of the State, that the property of corporations for all objects shall be subjected to taxation for county, city, and school purposes, the same as individual property.

At the general election Albinus Vance received 52,237 votes for Governor; T. W. Tipton, 28,167; and O. T. B. Williams, 3,898. The other Republican candidates also were elected by large majorities as usual. In the Presidential election the Garfield electors received on the average 54,967 ballots, the Hancock electors 28,502, and the Weaver electors 3,856.

NETHERLANDS, THE,* a kingdom of Europe. King, William III, born February 19, 1817; succeeded his father March 17, 1849. He was married first to Sophie, daughter of King William I of Wurtemberg (died June 3, 1877), and secondly to Emma, Princess of Waldeck-Pyrmont. He has one son, Alexander, Prince of Orange, born August 25, 1851; and one daughter, Wilhelmine, born August 31, 1880.

The area of the kingdom is 32,972 square kilometres, or 12,731 square miles. The population in December, 1879, was 4,037,010.

The movement of population in 1879 was as follows: Marriages, 30,655; births, 155,134; deaths, 98,099 (the births and deaths include the still-births, numbering 8,075); surplus of births, 57,035.

The following cities had, at the close of 1879, more than 30,000 inhabitants:

Amsterdam.....	316,590	Groningen.....	43,246
Rotterdam.....	150,370	Leiden.....	41,236
The Hague.....	114,936	Arnhem.....	41,313
Utrecht.....	69,667	Haarlem.....	37,772

In the budget for 1880 the expenditures and revenues are estimated as follows:

EXPENDITURES.		Dutch florins.
1. Royal house.....		750,000
2. Cabinet, supreme state authorities.....		615,127
3. Ministry of Foreign Affairs.....		696,890
4. " of Justice.....		4,447,597
5. " of Interior.....		7,482,863
6. " of Navy.....		12,611,546
7. " of War.....		20,600,000
8. Public debt.....		27,956,667
9. Ministry of Finance.....		35,182,296
10. Colonies.....		1,441,041
11. Public Works, Commerce, and Industry.....		19,771,025
12. Unforeseen.....		50,000
Total.....		114,545,052
REVENUE.		
1. Direct taxes.....		24,451,444
Land-tax.....		10,699,044
Poll-tax.....		9,810,000
Patent-tax.....		3,942,400
2. Excise.....		83,775,000
On spirits.....		22,400,000
On other liquors.....		16,375,000
3. Taxes on stamps, registration, inheritances.....		22,452,600

* For a detailed account of the population of the several provinces, for latest statistics of the army, navy, and merchant navy, and of the movement of shipping, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.

	Dutch florins.	
Brought forward.....		85,679,044
4. Customs.....		4,611,040
5. Taxes on gold and silver wares.....		386,100
6. Domains.....		1,625,000
7. Post.....		8,750,000
8. Telegraph.....		846,600
9. Lottery.....		430,000
10. Taxes on game and fishery.....		146,000
11. Pil-taxes.....		900,000
12. Taxes on mines.....		2,300
13. State railroads.....		1,572,000
14. Miscellaneous.....		10,639,885
Total.....		110,537,969
Deficit.....		4,007,038

The financial estimates are always framed with great moderation, mostly exhibiting a deficit, which in the final account becomes a surplus.

In 1880 the national debt was represented by a capital of 933,215,604 florins, divided as follows:

DIVISION OF DEBT.	Capital.	Interest.
1. Debt bearing interest at 2½ p. c.	618,300,204	15,332,505
2. " " " " 3 " "	90,312,400	2,709,372
3. " " " " 3½ " "	10,626,000	374,535
4. " " " " 4 " "	132,075,000	7,283,000
5. Bonds bearing 4 per cent. interest, issued in accordance with law of June 5, 1878.....	36,902,000	1,476,116
6. Miscellaneous.....		55,639
7. Bearing no interest.....		
8. Amortization.....		
Total, 1880.....	933,215,604	27,291,167
Total, 1879.....	10,000,000	725,500

The imports and exports in 1878 were as follows (in florins):

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain.....	216,541,000	131,044,000
Zollverein.....	193,065,000	231,552,000
Hanse Towns.....	10,218,000	12,465,000
Austro-Hungary.....	69,000	11,000
Belgium.....	116,516,000	90,479,000
Russia.....	62,901,000	9,837,000
Denmark.....	833,000	3,274,000
Sweden and Norway.....	9,247,000	5,600,000
France.....	15,528,000	17,191,000
Italy.....	2,903,000	6,835,000
Spain.....	6,763,000	2,345,000
Portugal.....	975,000	1,220,000
Other countries.....	6,130,000	1,976,000
1. EUROPE.....	641,487,000	508,829,000
United States.....	51,995,000	3,460,000
Cuba and Porto Rico.....	864,000	134,000
Brazil.....	1,548,000	95,000
Rio de la Plata.....	1,468,000	265,000
Peru.....	10,204,900	
Other American countries.....	1,314,000	1,629,000
2. AMERICA.....	67,393,000	5,583,000
British East Indies.....	22,994,000	892,000
China.....	85,000	86,000
Japan.....	4,246,000	45,000
3. ASIA.....	27,275,000	418,000
4. AFRICA.....	4,034,000	1,132,000
5. OTHER COUNTRIES.....	123,000	
Total foreign countries.....	740,317,000	510,957,000
DUTCH COLONIES:		
Java.....	68,904,000	52,711,000
Dutch West Indies.....	553,000	228,000
Total Dutch colonies.....	69,457,000	52,939,000
Grand total.....	809,774,000	563,896,000

The aggregate length of railroads in operation on January 1, 1880, was 1,930 kilometres, of which 914 were state railroads.

The aggregate length of the state telegraph lines on January 1, 1880, was 3,761 kilometres; aggregate length of wires, 13,654 kilometres; number of offices, 346; number of telegrams carried in 1879, 2,704,794; revenue, 922,883 florins; ordinary expenditures, 1,287,635 florins; extraordinary expenditure, 123,128 florins.

The number of post-offices in 1879 was 1,290; the number of inland letters was 42,039,163; of foreign letters, 12,693,123; of postal-cards, 14,202,277; of newspapers, etc., 34,858,810. The revenue of the department amounted to 3,863,381 florins; the expenditure to 2,763,425 florins.

The colonies of the Netherlands are considerably larger and more populous than the mother-country itself. In the East Indies, Java and Madura have an area of 131,733 kilometres, and a population of 18,807,320. The aggregate area of the other colonies amounts to 1,700,000 kilometres; their native population is not accurately known, but estimated at about 7,800,000. The foreign population was as follows:

Europeans, civilians.....	36,860
Europeans, army.....	17,730
Members of their households.....	1,919
Chinese.....	824,943
Arabs.....	14,013
Hindoos.....	11,366

In America, Surinam or Dutch Guiana had, in 1878, an area of 119,321 square kilometres, with a population of 68,405 inhabitants; the colony of Curaçoa, in the West Indies, 1,130 square kilometres, with 42,506 inhabitants.

The budget estimates of the Dutch colonies for the year 1880 were as follows (in florins):

COLONIES.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Deficit.
East Indies.....	142,450,020	145,773,494	3,323,474
Surinam.....	1,380,700	1,687,663	306,963
Curaçoa.....	352,691	523,277	140,586

The revenues of the East Indian colonies in 1877 were as follows: Imports, 153,705 florins; exports, 220,509 florins. The movement of shipping in the East Indian ports was as follows: Entered, 7,858 vessels, of 1,816,121 tons; cleared, 8,046 vessels, of 1,734,161 tons. The commercial navy consisted of 1,430 vessels, of 122,883 tons.

A new session of the States-General was opened September 20th. His Majesty, in the speech from the throne, stated that the trade and industry of the kingdom showed a certain improvement. Agriculture was in a flourishing condition, the harvest generally was very satisfactory, and the pneumonia that had been prevalent among the cattle had nearly disappeared. The revenue from taxation was progressively augmenting, but increased resources were nevertheless necessary to effect a financial equilibrium. The King announced the pres-

entation of bills relative to the constitution of the militia and Communal Guards, with a view to the completion of the system of national defense, and also a bill for improving the canals. Adverting to colonial affairs, his Majesty said that, although armed resistance had not yet been entirely subdued in Acheen, Dutch authority was so far established there that the Government could now prepare the organization and regular administration of the colony. The general condition of the Dutch East Indies could be described as satisfactory, were it not for the sickness among the population and the disease affecting the cattle.

M. Dullert was reelected President of the Second Chamber. The First Chamber voted the address in reply to the speech from the throne, in which was inserted a clause pointing out that the present condition of the finances made a reduction of expenditure necessary. During the discussion of the address in the Second Chamber motions to insert a paragraph recommending a revision of the electoral laws were rejected by fifty-one votes to sixteen. An animated debate took place on the paragraph of the address relative to the East Indian colonies, in the course of which the views held by the Government respecting affairs in Acheen were criticised as optimistic. The Minister of the Colonies replied to the criticisms, and maintained that the condition of the settlements in question was in all respects favorable. The address was adopted, September 29th. The Dutch-Indian budget for 1881 was presented, September 23d, to the Second Chamber. Both the revenue and the expenditure were estimated in round numbers at 144,000,000 gulden. An actual deficit was reported of about one third of a million, against one of three millions in 1879-'80, thus showing a considerable improvement in the finances of the colony. The expenditure in most of the departments was increased, but as a set-off a diminution of rather more than three millions in the war charges was calculated upon. The estimates were unanimously voted by the Chamber in November, after rejecting a proposal by the Minister to fix, by law, the proportion of the expenses of the East Indian colonies which the Netherlands should pay. They were afterward approved by the First Chamber.

The home budget for 1881 was introduced, October 2d, by the Minister of Finance. The expenditure was estimated at 126,333,000 gulden, and the revenue at 105,000,000 gulden, thus showing a deficit of about 21,000,000. The Minister proposed to meet this deficit for the time being by the issue of Treasury bills, and ultimately by a fresh loan of sufficient amount to include the outlay necessary for the improvement of canals. The Government, at the same time, deemed it requisite to provide for a permanent increase of revenue by the imposition of a tax on rentes.

A new penal code was proposed in October,

and underwent an active discussion in the Second Chamber. A motion for reestablishing capital punishment was rejected. Provisions were adopted, imposing life-long and limited terms of imprisonment, the latter not to exceed twenty years; fixing the minimum term of imprisonment for any offense at one day; founding a conditional release to be bestowed upon prisoners who should conduct themselves well after three years of imprisonment, and when three fourths of their punishment should have been endured; defining the crime of inciting minors to immorality, and affixing a punishment to it; and imposing a punishment for the offense of cruelty to animals, whether the maltreatment takes place publicly or not, with an exemption in favor of vivisection. The code was adopted, November 9th, by a vote of fifty-eight to ten. The Chamber decided, after protracted debates, that a priest who should anticipate a civil marriage, by performing the religious ceremonies before it takes place, should be punished for a contravention of the law. An appropriation was voted for the equipment of the vessel William Barentz for an Arctic voyage in 1881.

The Minister of the Colonies had stated, in the Second Chamber, before its adjournment in 1879, that, although the war in Acheen might be considered as terminated, a considerable force must still be maintained there. A dispatch was received by the Colonial Office in January, which was dated from Kotta Radja, December 15th, stating that Tengkoë Arab, the spiritual chief of the XXVI, Moskims, and several other chieftains had made their submission and taken the oath of allegiance. The "Staats Courant," the official journal, in September published a statement on the war, showing that the principal Acheenese fort had been only partially razed by the Dutch troops. General Van der Heyden had returned to Kotta Radja because the forces under his command were insufficient to inflict a decisive defeat upon the enemy. Kraton and its environs in Acheen were visited in November by a sudden inundation, which caused great damage.

A statue erected in memory of Spinoza at the Hague was unveiled, September 14th. The Prince of Orange was represented at the ceremony by the Minister of the Interior, and the novelist Herr Berthold Auerbach was mentioned as among the foreign persons who were present. M. Van Vloten delivered an address eulogizing the character and writings of Spinoza, whom he described as the promoter of civilization and of the progress of humanity. The Cosmophile Club of Leipsic sent a wreath to place on the statue, which is the work of the sculptor Hexamer.

NEVADA. The financial condition of this State seems to have undergone a change, and not for the better, the various sources of her revenue since 1878 having materially decreased in amount, and even in number, as not a few of them are considered exhausted.

The State Comptroller's report for 1879 shows the public receipts and expenditures during that year to have been as follows:

Receipts from all the counties, \$225,888.82; from payments on State land, \$45,058.61; from miscellaneous sources, \$652,312.50; making a total of \$923,159.53.

Aggregate expenditures for all purposes, including the three departments of the State government, interest on the public debt, schools, charitable institutions, and State Prison, \$1,276,050.79.

Assets, after paying all State debts..... \$286,975 71
State and Territorial bonded debt..... 600,000 00

In the list of payments made to the public Treasury in 1879, the item from the proceeds of mines is \$34,969.53, exceeding but little the poll-tax item, \$31,841.73.

The amount of all State taxes collected from the fourteen counties in 1879, including \$54,456.28 of delinquent taxes, was \$766,288.47; of which sum the county of Storey alone contributed more than one fourth, \$195,404.26.

An additional statement embodied in the said report, exhibits the annual State expenditures of Nevada from its organization in 1865 to December 31, 1879. For the fifteen years together, these expenses amount to \$8,566,917.43, but vary considerably from year to year; the smallest among them belonging to 1868, \$288,463.58, the largest to 1879, \$1,276,050.79.

Pursuant to a call published by the Central Committee in February, the Republicans of Nevada held a State Convention at Austin on May 11th, for selecting delegates to the National Republican Convention that was to meet at Chicago on June 2d, to nominate its candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States. The following persons were appointed as such delegates: E. Strother and C. C. Stevenson, of Storey County; J. J. Meigs, of Elko; W. W. Bishop and M. D. Foley, of Eureka; and T. D. Edwards, of Ormsby.

By a resolution adopted in this Convention, the delegates were instructed to vote in the National Convention as a unit, and also to use all proper means in their power to secure the nomination of James G. Blaine, of Maine, for President, so long as his name should be before the National Convention as a candidate for that office.

The November election for State officers in Nevada being limited this year to a Supreme Judge in the place of William H. Beatty, the present Chief Justice, to a State Representative in the Lower House of Congress to succeed Rollin H. Daggett, whose official term is to expire on March 3, 1881, and to the Presidential electors, the Nevada Republicans met in State Convention at Carson, on August 11th, to nominate their candidates, with the following result:

For Congressman, Rollin H. Daggett was nominated by acclamation.

For the nomination of a candidate for Su-

preme Judge, a ballot was taken, William H. Beatty, R. H. Taylor, of Virginia City, and George M. Sabin, of Eureka County, being the competitors; and, after an animated struggle protracted to seventy-one ballots, William H. Beatty was declared the Republican nominee, the vote of the last ballot having stood: Beatty, 55; Sabin, 33; Taylor, 13; the entire number of the votes cast being 101.

For Presidential electors, were nominated: R. H. Taylor, by acclamation; A. E. Morton of Esmeralda County, and O. H. Grey, of White Pine County, by ballot.

The following platform was reported from the committee on resolutions, and unanimously adopted by the Convention:

Resolved, That the platform of principles adopted by the National Republican Convention at Chicago in June, deserves and receives the approval and hearty endorsement of all Republicans of Nevada.

Resolved, That the hordes of Chinese that are coming in upon our shores to eat out our substance are destroying our country, impoverishing our mines, miners, and laborers, debauching our youth, and making both men and women lower in the scale of humanity. This evil must and shall be stopped, and to this we pledge the entire strength of the Republican party. In the language of our great leader, we regard the immigration of Asiatics to the United States as little less than a servile invasion. Should the commissioners now in negotiation with the Chinese Government fail to secure by the 1st of next January such a modification of the Burlingame Treaty as will practically put an end to the influx of Chinese to this country, we demand that the treaty then be promptly annulled, and such laws enacted as will relieve us at once and for ever of the Asiatic scourge now menacing the well-being of the republic.

Resolved, That we most heartily endorse the general financial policy of the Republican party, which, in spite of every opposition on the part of the Democracy, has led to the resumption of specie payments, the raising of our national credit to a height never before known, and the restoration of national prosperity. But we also demand the complete restoration of silver coin to its former position by the side of gold, and, for the purpose of attaining that end, we hold it to be the duty of the General Government, through the authorization of Congress, to coin into standard dollars or other legal-tender currency, at the cost of coinage and for the benefit of the producer, the entire silver product of the country, and relieve the mining industry from the loss attending the shipment to, and sale of silver bullion in, foreign markets. As mining for the precious metals is the leading industry of Nevada, we are inflexibly opposed to the bill reported by the Committee on Mines and Mining, and now before the House of Representatives, prohibiting the following of fissure veins or deposits beyond vertical lines of surface boundaries, and we urge our Representatives in both Houses of Congress to continue their efforts for its defeat. Such a restriction would work disaster to the labors of the prospector, and seriously retard the development of the mineral riches of the West, and we cordially endorse the action of our Representative, the Hon. K. M. Daggett, in this behalf.

Resolved, That the Republican party claims it to be the right and duty of the State and Territorial Legislatures to regulate and restrict the charges of railroads exclusively within their respective boundaries, and that it is no less the constitutional right than positive duty of Congress to regulate tariffs and restrict the charges of inter-State railroads.

Resolved, That while we congratulate the country on the successful resumption of specie payments, and the splendid financial condition of the republic, we are in favor of restricting the issuance of national and

State legal-tender notes to denominations of not less than five dollars, thus creating an increased home demand as a circulating medium for the precious metals which our mines are annually yielding.

Resolved, That General James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur, by their services to the country, by their devotion to principles, and by their unspotted reputation as men and as citizens, are deserving of the united and earnest support of all the loyal people of the United States for President and Vice-President. We rejoice in their nomination, and pledge to them the electoral vote of Nevada at the ensuing election by an overwhelming majority.

The Democrats in their State Convention nominated for the above-mentioned offices the following ticket: For Supreme Court Judge, Charles H. Belknap; for Congressman, George W. Cassidy; for Presidential elector for the State at large, Ogden Hiles.

The result of the election on November 2d was most favorable to the Democratic party, its candidates for Supreme Court Judge, Congressman, Presidential electors, and nearly all the others, having been elected to the offices for which they had been nominated. The Republicans acknowledged in their newspapers this great defeat of their party, ascribing it to apathy or undue confidence of victory among its adherents, to want of organization, and to defective management of party interests during the campaign.

The charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions of Nevada appear to continue under good management, and answer the purposes intended. The insane patients are still kept at Stockton, in the neighboring State of California, in the private establishment of Drs. Langton and Clark. As this method costs the State a yearly sum of about fifty thousand dollars, the press in Nevada, with scarcely an exception, earnestly urge the building of an insane asylum within the State; which measure the small dissenting portion of the people admits to be desirable, but objects to it as inexpedient at this time, on account of the great outlay of money which the erection and first establishment of such an institution would necessarily entail on the State, and which the present unpropitious condition of her finances renders her unable to bear without greatly aggravating the burden of the already overburdened tax-payers.

The education of youth in Nevada seems to be healthy and prosperous.

The rate per capita allowed for children of school age, in 1879, was six dollars; about the same amount will be allowed for each of them in the following year.

A new railway line, entirely within the limits of the State, after many years' hard work and great expense, has been completed and put in operation in 1880. It goes under the name of "The Nevada Central Railroad," extending from Battle Mountain to the city of Austin, and passing through portions of Lander and Nye Counties. It is confidently predicted that its working will prove most beneficial to the people of the said counties, and chiefly to the city of Austin.

The business operations of the Central Pacific Railroad within the State of Nevada are very considerable in extent and amount. This railroad company is now consolidated with three other railroad companies outside of Nevada, upon terms and for purposes set forth in the following statement:

Certified copies of "Articles of association, amalgamation, and consolidation between the Central Pacific Railroad Company, California and Oregon Railroad Company, San Francisco, Oakland and Alameda Railroad Company, and the San Joaquin Valley Railroad Company," dated August 20, 1879, have been filed in the office of the County Recorder of Storey County. These articles, by whereas, etc., recite the building and operating by the Central Pacific of 1,000 miles of railroad and telegraph, the California and Oregon 313 miles, the San Francisco, Oakland and Alameda 25 miles, and the San Joaquin Valley 300 miles, and state that a consolidation of their capitals, debts, properties, assets, roads, telegraphs, lands, and franchises will be mutually advantageous; that more than three fourths of the stockholders of each road have consented thereto; therefore:

ARTICLE I. Said parties do hereby amalgamate.

ART. II. The object is to purchase, construct, own, maintain, and operate all and each of said lines.

ART. III. Directors of the new company: Leland Stanford, W. E. Brown, Mark Hopkins, C. P. Huntington, Charles Crocker, Edward H. Miller, Jr., and Charles H. Cummings.

ART. IV. Capital stock, \$100,000,000, in shares of \$100 each.

ART. V. Stockholders shall have the same number of shares now held by each.

ART. VI. The new company shall assume all the contracts, agreements, debts, etc., of the former companies.

The articles are accompanied by the certificate of officers, February 7, 1880: Directors—Leland Stanford, E. H. Miller, Jr., Charles Crocker, E. W. Hopkins, W. V. Huntington, C. F. Crocker, C. P. Huntington. Leland Stanford, President; C. P. Huntington, First Vice-President; Charles Crocker, Second Vice-President; E. W. Hopkins, Treasurer; E. H. Miller, Jr., Secretary.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. The members of the New Hampshire Temperance League held their second annual session at Concord on March 18, 1880, to see the progress of the work which they have undertaken, and deliberate on the best means that should be employed to insure success. The meeting was fully attended, and, at various times during its deliberations, prominent associates addressed it. The prosecuting committees, appointed in different sections of the State to sue before the courts and bring to punishment all offenders against the laws relating to the sale of intoxicating beverages, reported the success which the discharge of the duties imposed on them had met with in their respective localities. A new set of officers for the third year was chosen; and the following resolutions, as reported from the appropriate committee, were adopted:

Resolved, 1. That moral suasion is a great and important instrumentality for promoting the advancement of the temperance cause, to be constantly used and never abandoned.

2. That to the end there may be a full and complete triumph of the temperance cause, the places of temptation must be closed, the principles of prohibition recognized, and the prohibitory law fearlessly, impartially, and energetically enforced.

3. As a means to an end, we approve of a strictly moral detective system in the enforcement of the law and the suppression of the liquor-traffic, until such time as the law shall be enforced by the regularly constituted authorities.

4. That we are in favor of the instant repeal of the local-option beer law, and the enactment of a law making lager-beer, cider, and old malt-liquors intoxicating within the meaning of the statute.

5. That we condemn the practice of prosecuting officers in hanging up cases, and demand of such officers a rigid enforcement of the law against all offenders.

6. That we believe the temperance movement can not complete its work till the manufacture as well as the sale of intoxicants is prohibited by law.

7. That we are in favor of the enactment of a civil damage law making rum-sellers liable for all damages resulting from the unholy traffic.

8. That we regard the practice of suspending indictments as tampering with the ends of justice, temporizing with the law and its processes, and a practice fraught with danger to our institutions; and that we insist as a condition precedent, when these officers in 1880 ask our suffrages for reelection, that they show by their works the honesty of their profession, by pushing relentlessly to trial and verdict every indictment hereafter found against rum-sellers, and that no solicitor who compromises with rum-sellers should receive the suffrages of temperance voters.

9. That we recommend, as a measure to suppress the illegal traffic in intoxicating liquors, the prosecution of those persons who are renting their premises for this traffic.

10. That we respectfully request the Attorney-General, when a grand jury refuses to indict a rum-seller on positive evidence, to report the facts to the court, or instruct the solicitor so to do; and, if no new panel is ordered, to present on "information" for immediate trial all cases sustained by evidence furnished by the officers of the League, and not passed upon by the grand jury.

The Democrats of New Hampshire met in State Convention at Concord on April 29th, for selecting delegates to the Democratic National Convention, which was to assemble at Cincinnati on June 22d, for nominating the party's candidates for President and Vice-President of the Federal Government. As delegates for the State at large—five names having been proposed—Harry Bingham, Frank Jones, John H. George, and Martin Van Buren Edgerly, received the highest number of votes at the ballot, and were declared selected. As many alternates were also chosen. The district delegates were selected at meetings separately held by Democrats residing in the respective districts, with the following results: First district, George N. Proctor, of Exeter, and Charles A. Busick, of Laconia; second district, Alvah W. Sulloway, of Franklin, and Timothy B. Crowley, of Nashua; third district, Hosea W. Parker, of Claremont, and Irving W. Drew, of Lancaster.

The following platform was reported from the committee on resolutions and adopted by the Convention:

We, the Democracy of New Hampshire, reaffirm our devotion to the principles of democratic-republican government, as asserted by the founders of American liberty, embodied in the Constitution, and consistently maintained by the Democratic party of the Union.

We denounce the so-called Republican party—its

doctrines, its methods, and its controlling minds—as the persistent enemy of our free government; and we especially denounce that most infamous act of usurpation whereby the fairly-determined will of the American people, constitutionally expressed at the polls, was most outrageously defied, and the shameless creatures of conspiracy and fraud installed in the places of the lawfully chosen President and Vice-President of the United States.

We unite with our brethren throughout the land in asserting the sacred right of free elections—the right of every citizen to cast his ballot unintimidated by Federal bayonets or any instrumentality of force or fraud. We call upon the representatives of the people in Congress to persevere in the maintenance of that right, and the people everywhere to assert their determined purpose never again to be defrauded of the legitimate result of its exercise.

With full confidence in the judgment and patriotism of our delegates this day chosen, we believe in the exercise of wise discretion conjointly with the representatives of the Democracy from all the States, that they will select as the standard-bearers of the party at Cincinnati men who will command the hearty and enthusiastic support of every honest Democrat and sincere patriot in the land, to the end that the party of usurpation, corruption, and fraud shall be defeated, and honest constitutional government reestablished in our midst.

On motion, subsequently made by a member, the assembly voted “that it is the sense of this Convention that the National Convention adhere to the two-thirds vote.”

The Republicans assembled at Concord on the 6th of May, to choose their delegates to the Republican National Convention that would meet at Chicago on June 2d, to nominate the Republican candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States. Of the eight competitors balloted upon for delegates at large, William E. Chandler, David H. Buffum, Ruel Durkee, and Benjamin F. Prescott were announced chosen, the most numerous votes being cast for them. As their alternates, Benjamin A. Kimball, John H. Broughton, James A. Wood, and Augustus A. Woolson were, on motion, selected by acclamation.

For district delegates the following selections were made by Republicans of the several districts, who met among themselves for that purpose: First district, Charles M. Murphy and Joel Eastman, delegates; Charles B. Gaffney, of Rochester, and Stephen Girard Northross, of Conway, alternates. Second district, Charles Holman and James E. Sturgiss, delegates; Charles Williams, of Manchester, and David H. Goodell, of Antrim, alternates. Third district, S. W. Hale, of Keene, and A. L. Brown, of Whitefield, delegates; E. G. Gustine, of Keene, and H. L. Tilton, of Littleton, alternates.

The following preamble and series of resolutions were reported by the chairman of the appropriate committee, and unanimously adopted by the Convention:

Whereas, The Republicans of New Hampshire, in State Convention assembled, desire once more to attest their devotion to the cardinal principles of the party, and to place them upon record, that the whole world may see the very foundation of their belief and action; therefore

Resolved, That we are in favor—

1. Of a currency based upon gold, upon which the

prosperity of the country, individually and collectively, largely depends.

2. Of one free and untrammelled ballot for every legal voter, North and South—free from intimidation or control of every sort—as was contemplated by the founders of our Government.

3. Of equal rights for every citizen, everywhere, and the securing of those rights, if absolutely necessary, by the strong arm of the General Government, in accordance with the letter and the spirit of the constitutional amendments.

4. Of such conduct of the civil service as shall result in giving to the country a thoroughly honest and efficient administration of every department of the Government.

Resolved, That we arraign the Democratic party for its recreancy to the principles of free government, amply attested by its adherence to the doctrine of State supremacy; its connivance at the nullification of the laws for the protection of the rights of the freedmen in the South; its attempt to count out, by fraud and force, the fairly and legally elected Legislature of Maine; and its subserviency to the Southern oligarchy, now endeavoring to secure by legislative methods what it failed to achieve by a resort to arms in 1861-64.

Resolved, That we heartily approve of the present attitude of the Administration upon all the great principles of the Republican party, and most especially and emphatically of its conduct of the national finances, by that great financier, Hon. John Sherman, of Ohio.

Resolved, That we congratulate Ulysses S. Grant, the most renowned and illustrious citizen of the republic, on his safe return from a tour of the world; and we fervently wish that the afternoon of his remarkable life may be made serene by exemption from strife, and happy in the respect and affection of a grateful country, whose unity he did so much to preserve, and whose great destiny he did more than any of his compatriots to advance.

Resolved, That while we are in favor of sending an uninstructed delegation to Chicago, it is our earnest belief that the man for the times, above all others, embodying every element of a triumphant candidate and a successful Administration, is the Hon. James G. Blaine, of Maine.

Resolved, That any unit rule which seeks to compel a delegate to vote for a candidate not his choice, or the choice of his constituents, is tyrannous and un-republican, and we request our delegates to Chicago to so vote on all questions as to leave every delegate free to follow an unfettered and honest judgment.

Resolved, That our delegates to the Chicago Convention are requested to call the attention of that body to the propriety of a change in the existing basis of delegate representation in future National Republican Conventions, to the end that hereafter the number of delegates from the different States may be determined by the actual Republican vote cast therein at the last preceding State or national election.

Resolved, That the Republicans of New Hampshire pledge themselves to give the nominee at Chicago their hearty and enthusiastic support, and a rousing majority at the polls next November.

Preparatory to the general election of November, 1880, for State officers, the Republicans convened at Concord on September 7th to nominate their candidates, 545 delegates being in attendance. The nominations for the several State offices were as follows: For Governor, Charles H. Bell, of Exeter, was, on motion, declared the Republican nominee by acclamation; State Councilor, First District, Thomas G. Jameson, of Somersworth; Second District, Lyman D. Stevens, of Concord; Third District, John W. Wheeler, of Salem; Fourth District, George H. Stowell, of Claremont;

Fifth District, Albert S. Twitchell, of Gorham. For Railroad Commissioners, James E. French, of Moultonborough; Charles A. Smith, of Manchester; and Edward J. Tenney, of Claremont. For Congressmen—First District, Joshua G. Hall, of Dover; Second District, James F. Briggs, of Manchester; Third District, Everts W. Farr, of Littleton. For Presidential electors, Nathaniel White, of Concord; Ezra B. Winchester, of Portsmouth; Alfred L. Eastman, of Hampstead; John A. Spalding, of Nashua; and Henry L. Tilton, of Littleton.

The two first named in the foregoing list being intended to serve as Presidential electors for the State at large, the Convention nominated them together, on motion, by acclamation. Mr. White having suddenly died of apoplexy, or *angina pectoris*, on October 2d, the Republican State Committee, at a meeting held for the purpose in Concord on October 13th, filled the vacancy by choosing Aretas Blood, of Manchester, as such elector.

The committee on resolutions reported the following, which were received with loud applause by the Convention, and unanimously adopted:

The Republicans of New Hampshire, adhering to their party organization which prevented slavery extension, put down a slaveholders' rebellion, saved the Union of the States, abolished human bondage, decreed manhood suffrage, and established itself as the advocate and protector throughout the national domain of equal rights before the law to all citizens, and a free ballot to every voter; and opposing the Democratic party, which made itself the defender of slavery extension, encouraged secession and rebellion, opposed and prolonged the war for the Union, resisted emancipation and impartial suffrage, and made itself the ally of terrorism and murder as means for the suppression of all free suffrage at the South, hereby declare as appropriate to the opening of a new political campaign:

1. That we approve and endorse the platform adopted by the Republican National Convention at Chicago, and cordially support the candidates for President and Vice-President there nominated.

2. That the national Republican party is sacredly pledged to the complete protection of all its citizens in the free enjoyment of all their civil, political, and public rights, to be not only theoretically conceded, but actually and fully exercised in every part of the Union; and that, for securing the same, it is the solemn obligation of the legislative and executive departments of the Government to put into immediate and vigorous exercise all their constitutional powers, and that we imperatively demand a Congress and Chief Executive whose courage and fidelity to these duties shall not falter until those results are placed beyond dispute or recall.

3. That if any State shall attempt to limit or abridge directly or indirectly the freedom of the citizen, or his untrammelled right to the labor of his hands; shall oppose or neglect to provide for universal education; shall impede or destroy by legislation, intimidation, or fraud, the exercise of the right of suffrage, either for national or State offices; shall overcome lawful majorities by turbulent, armed, or rebellious minorities; shall adopt or tolerate oppression, terrorizing, whippings, or murder as election practices, or omit to enact and enforce laws for the punishment of such crimes—in any and all of these cases we demand the active interposition of the Federal Government to furnish the citizens of the States that protection and those benefits which State action fails to supply; and for these pur-

poses we advocate the vigorous enforcement of all existing laws of Congress, and, if found necessary, the enactment of new legislation, and the adoption of additional constitutional amendments.

4. That the party that has maintained the financial integrity of the republic by the resumption of specie payments, and the honest discharge of the national liabilities, thereby lifting the industries of the country from unparalleled depression to unprecedented prosperity, should not be supplanted by a party which has repudiated its financial obligations, and done all in its power to debase the national currency and throw a perpetual blight upon the industries and prosperities of the nation.

5. That we point with pride to the present Republican national Administration, and congratulate the country upon its financial success, and its faithful performance of its public duties, in spite of the systematic opposition of a Democratic Senate and House of Representatives.

6. That in the nomination of James A. Garfield for President, the Republican party presents for the suffrages of the American people a brave and successful Union general, a tried and experienced statesman, whose integrity and ability have won not only the admiration and confidence of his political associates, but also the respect and esteem of his opponents; that in Chester A. Arthur, our candidate for Vice-President, we have an eminent citizen of New York, whose patriotism, honesty, and business capacity are unsurpassed, and we pledge them our hearty and enthusiastic support.

7. That we recur to the administration of State affairs by the Republicans of New Hampshire for twenty-four years, against the ability and honesty of which no serious charge has ever been made by our bitterest opponents, as a reason for continuing State control in Republican hands; and we hereby commend Hon. Charles H. Bell, this day nominated for Governor, and James E. French, of Moultonborough, Charles A. Smith, of Manchester, and Edward J. Tenney, of Claremont, nominated for Railroad Commissioners, as candidates in every respect worthy the votes of the people of the State.

The Democratic party, in State Convention at Concord, on September 15th, nominated their candidates in competition with the Republican nominees for all the offices mentioned above. In the State Convention they also adopted a platform expressing their principles and rules of action in government.

As Democratic candidate for Governor was declared Frank Jones, of Portsmouth, for whom six hundred votes were cast.

For Congressmen from the three districts, in their numerical order, were nominated, Messrs. Sanborn, Sulloway, and George A. Bingham, one of the Judges of the State Supreme Court. On his being nominated for Congressman, Mr. Bingham sent to Governor Head his resignation of the office he held as Justice of the Supreme Court, which was accepted; and in order to fill the vacancy thereby created, the Governor subsequently appointed Isaac N. Blodgett as Justice of the Supreme Court, which appointment was confirmed at the meeting held by the Governor and State Councilors on November 30, 1880.

The adherents to the Liquor-Prohibition party of New Hampshire assembled also in State Convention in September, and adopted the following platform:

Whereas, We regard temperance as the most important issue in this State or nation, and more impor-

tant than any or all others, and the legal prohibition of the liquor-traffic as a most efficient means of promoting temperance; and whereas our independence was achieved and our Government founded through the privations, sufferings, and patriotism of our fathers, and is only to be maintained by emulating their patriotism and their virtues, and adhering to their time-honored and wise counsel: therefore,

Resolved, That we still hold fast upon the principles of the founders of this Government, that temperance, morality, and the impartial enforcement of our laws are the guardians of our civil and religious liberties.

Resolved, That we strongly commend and concur in the declaration of Washington that our laws, State and national, should be impartially sustained, and that all opposition to the executive and proper authorities in the discharge of their duties, coming from whatever pretext or from whatever source, should be frowned upon as unpatriotic and dangerous in its influence upon the perpetuity of a free government.

Resolved, That we desire that the laws of this State should be so amended as to prohibit the manufacture of all distilled and fermented liquors.

Resolved, That we demand the repeal of the local-option law in relation to lager-beer, and an enactment declaring lager-beer and all malt-liquors intoxicating.

Resolved, That having no evidence or belief that the leaders of either of the old parties have the desire or intention to enforce the prohibitory law, we therefore deem it necessary to make and support independent prohibitory nominations for State and other officers, while fully endorsing and supporting the nomination of Neal Dow and H. A. Thompson for President and Vice-President.

Resolved, That we pledge our hearty and uncompromising support to the nominees of this Convention.

Resolved, That we recommend and desire the pardon of Thomas E. Drake from the State Prison, as demanded in the interests of law, temperance, and justice.

The Greenbackers, so called, held their State Convention at Manchester, on October 6th, when they adopted a platform declaring their views, and nominated a full ticket for the several officers, as follows:

For Governor: Warren L. Brown, of Whitefield. State Councilors: First District, O. L. Giddings, of Exeter; Second District, D. M. Clough, of Canterbury; Third District, Peter Woodman, of Manchester; Fourth District, John Norwood, of Richmond; Fifth District, H. L. Colbath, of Barnstead. Railroad Commissioners: Nathaniel Wiggins, of Greenland; and John D. Emery, of Manchester.

Of the third candidate for Railroad Commissioner, the Convention intrusted the nomination to the Executive Committee.

For Congressmen: First District, Lafayette Chesley, of Chester; Second District, John D. Woodbury, of Manchester; Third District, Dudley F. Chase, of Claremont. Presidential electors: Lafayette Moore, of Northumberland; G. J. Greenleaf, of Portsmouth; P. B. Holmes, of Greenland; D. C. Whittemore, of Manchester; and E. M. Blodgett, of Wentworth.

The election, on November 2d, proved favorable to the Republicans, whose nominees for almost all the offices voted upon in State and local elections were elected by considerable majorities over their Democratic competitors. Besides the Governor, they had their candidates elected for Presidential electors; for the three

seats of New Hampshire in the Lower House of Congress; for the three Railroad Commissioners; and for four among the five State Councilors, one of the Council districts having returned a Democrat.

As to members of the State Legislature for the next session, the proportional numbers elected by the two parties in either House were as follows: In the Senate, 16 Republicans and 8 Democrats. In the House of Representatives, 179 Republicans and 114 Democrats; which gives the Republicans a majority of 73 on joint ballot.

The aggregate number of votes polled in the State for President this year exceeded by 193 that for Governor, which was 86,050. Of these, Mr. Bell had 44,376, Mr. Jones 40,796; the remaining 878 votes were reckoned as scattering.

Everts W. Farr, the member of Congress from New Hampshire's Third District, who was also elected on November 2d, to continue in his seat for the next term, having departed this life on November 30th, the Governor, on December 3d, issued a precept ordering a special election to be held in that district on December 28th, "for the choice, by ballot, first, of a representative for the unexpired term in the Forty-sixth Congress, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of the late member, Everts W. Farr," and "second, of a representative in the Forty-seventh Congress, for the term commencing on March 4, 1881." At this special election, the competing candidates, nominated by the opposite parties in the interval, were: Ray, of Lancaster, Republican, and J. D. Hosley, of West Lebanon, Democrat, with the result that Mr. Ray was elected by a majority of nearly 5,000 votes over Mr. Hosley.

From the tenth decennial census of New Hampshire, it appears that her aggregate population in 1880 is 347,311 (the tables of the United States census fix it at 347,784), showing an increase of 28,961 since 1870, when it was 318,350. Not a few of her towns have considerably lost in the number of their respective residents during the last decade, while many others have more considerably gained. Concord in 1870 had 12,241 inhabitants; their number in 1880 is 13,849—which increase, in the apportionment of town representation in the Legislature to be adjusted on the basis of the present census, entitles Concord to two representatives more than formerly. Manchester has gained enough in population during the ten years last past to add seven members to her representation in that body.

The Railroad Commissioners of New Hampshire, in their report for the year 1879-'80, which is the thirty-sixth annual report of that Board, state the business of her railways to have "improved during the year in proportion to the general prosperity." Besides the discussions and recommendations on other matters connected with railroad management, and their prudent regulation by legislative enactments,

the Commissioners point at the injustice resulting from the want of due proportion in the rates for *through* and *local* freight; an evil much complained of by local shippers, and greatly aggravated by the multitude of private freight-car companies everywhere established, whose business does also interfere with that of the regular railway companies; these being thereby deprived of the possibility of earning a fair income on the capital invested, and the amount of current expenses necessary to operate their roads.

Twenty-two railway lines are in actual operation in New Hampshire, some of them having both their termini at different places within its limits, others passing through various portions of it from, and into, other States. Their names, and the amount of State tax assessed on each for the present year, appear from the following table, prepared by the State Board of Equalization:

NAMES OF RAILROADS.	Amount of tax assessed on each road.
1. Eastern.....	\$4,085 12
2. Boston and Maine.....	17,600 00
3. Ashuelot.....	1,715 00
4. Boston, Concord and Montreal.....	25,424 73
5. Fitchburg.....	217 50
6. Nashua and Lowell.....	4,688 75
7. Wilton.....	8,111 50
8. Cheshire.....	11,421 25
9. Grand Trunk, lessee of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence.....	5,000 00
10. Northern.....	28,258 32
11. Concord.....	30,455 62
12. Manchester and North Weare.....	975 00
13. Concord and Portsmouth.....	5,558 12
14. Dover and Winnepesaukee.....	4,168 75
15. Portsmouth, Great Falls, and Conway.....	2,036 87
16. Manchester and Lawrence.....	17,458 42
17. Concord and Claremont, New Hampshire.....	4,375 00
18. Sullivan County.....	6,250 00
19. Worcester and Nashua.....	2,372 50
20. Mount Washington.....	1,750 50
21. Monadnock.....	1,865 00
22. Suncook.....	1,593 75

The total of the taxes here set down is nearly forty thousand dollars less than it was in the preceding year; which reduction is caused "by a general undervaluation of property for taxation throughout the State, the undervaluation in some places amounting to about fifty per centum."

*The fish-culture appears to succeed well in New Hampshire. The Fish Commissioners, in their report for the year ending June 30, 1880, refer to the 100,000 eggs of Atlantic salmon, which they collected from mature fish, and planted in the Pemigewasset River, between five and eight years ago; the 60,000 eggs of landlocked salmon, received from the Penobscot River, having also been placed in the Pemigewasset. They anticipate a fully stocked river by June 14, 1882, the last day of the period during which the fishing of salmon is prohibited by law. From the "Grand Lake Stream" enterprise, the Commissioners have received and planted 67,000 eggs of landlocked salmon. As to brook-trout, they have collected 150,000 eggs from spawners at the hatching-house, one half of which was sent to Massachusetts, the other half distributed into differ-

ent parts of New Hampshire to replenish exhausted streams. The Commissioners propose to stop the distribution of black bass after the present season, above a hundred brooks having been stocked already with this fish.

On November 30, 1880, the State prisoners under sentence in New Hampshire, numbering about one hundred and fifty, were safely removed from the old Penitentiary into the more capacious one erected and enlarged by acts of the Legislature within the last three years.

NEW JERSEY. The annual session of the Legislature began January 13th and ended March 12th. Sherman B. Oviatt was elected speaker of the Assembly, and William Sewell President of the Senate. There was a Republican majority in both Houses, the number of Republican Senators being fifteen; of Democratic Senators, six; of Republican Assemblymen, thirty-four; of Democratic Assemblymen, twenty-six.

The Legislature did not take action upon the important subjects of tax-reform and the regulation of municipalities, as was expected. A new bribery law was enacted, making bribery at any election, consisting in the promise or gift of money, preferment, or other consideration for giving or withholding any vote, a misdemeanor, punishable with a fine not to exceed one thousand dollars, or imprisonment for not more than one year, or both, and working the disfranchisement of the person convicted, and, if a candidate, his disqualification for office if elected; subjecting to the same punishment any person marking a ballot-ticket for the purpose of corruptly identifying it; and requiring a party to bribery to give evidence against the other party by depriving him of the immunity from giving testimony which may be self-criminating. The latter provision is the novel feature of the bill. A new judiciary salary bill was passed, which prevents the bill enacted in 1879 from going into operation. That bill curtailed the salaries of the judges to such an extent that the eight Associate Judges, the Chief-Justice, and the Chancellor would receive together \$31,000, instead of \$50,400, the amount of their pay in 1880 under the old law. The new law requires the fees to be paid into the Treasury, and fixes the salary of the Chancellor at \$10,000, that of the Chief-Justice at the minimum rate of \$7,500, and those of the other justices at the minimum of \$7,000, with additions proportionate to the excess of the population of their judicial districts over eighty thousand. The aggregate salaries, computed on the basis of the census of 1875, will amount to \$79,777. A bill was passed in 1879, the object of which was to break up the store-order system, but it was so loosely drawn that the law was easily evaded. A Senate bill for the same purpose was introduced in the session of 1880. A proviso, which was added by amendment, is sufficient to defeat the intention of the law. This is to the effect that debts due to employers may be off-

set in the payment of workmen's wages. The practice of giving pass-books to employees of glass-works and other factories, who are constrained, from want of cash, to trade at the company stores, in which excessive prices are charged, is said to prevail extensively, particularly in the southern part of the State. A bill to modify and relax the Sunday laws, favored by German and other citizens, of Essex and Hudson Counties particularly, which was introduced by Krueger, of Newark, was, after much debating, lost by a heavy majority.

The proposed amendment to the Constitution, providing for biennial sessions of the Legislature, was passed just before adjournment. The amendment will have to be ratified by another Legislature before it can be submitted to the popular vote. The Senate, after hesitating for some time to approve the appointment of a Judge belonging to the opposite party in politics, confirmed, before adjournment, the nomination by the Governor of ex-Governor Joel Parker as a Justice of the Supreme Court. Before acting upon the nomination, the Senate passed a resolution to address a communication to the Governor, requesting him to withdraw the nomination, on the ground that the appointment of another Judge from the political party of ex-Governor Parker would be impolitic, quoting a passage from one of the Governor's messages which said that "something more is necessary than that the judiciary should be really pure, impartial, and just; it is also requisite that the people believe them to be so." The Governor replied that he had appointed three Judges from the opposite party before making this one from his own; that none of the nominations were made on political grounds, and none were likely to bring the bench into discredit.

The special tax commission, appointed in accordance with an act of the Legislature passed in 1879, after examining the operation of the existing tax laws, and the way in which they affect the property and industries of the State, recommended modifications of the laws such as seemed necessary to them to equalize the burdens of taxation; which recommendations, however, were not acted upon by the Legislature during the session. They divide property into five classes: real estate; visible and material personal property; bonds, shares, etc., issued by corporations of the State; those issued by outside corporations; and franchises, as represented by express, telegraph, and other companies. They recommend that real property and tangible and visible personalty be taxed wherever found; and bonds, stocks, etc., in all cases, at the place of issue. The principle of allowing deductions for debt is considered wrong. They propose that the tax upon mortgaged real estate be collected from the mortgagor, who can obtain a special receipt if desired for the portion of the tax representing the mortgage, and must make a special contract with the mortgagee with regard to offsetting the tax against

the interest. The creation of a State Board of Equalization is counseled. The commission approve the exemption of the property of religious and charitable institutions from taxation, and state that their inquiries elicited the fact that the preponderance of public opinion in the State is in favor of such exemption. Machinery used for manufacturing purposes, and agricultural implements, they recommend should also be exempted; likewise household goods to the amount of one hundred dollars. They recommend that a valuation of real estate take place every three years, with a provision for revaluation in case of the loss or addition of improvements, to facilitate which improvements should be valued separately.

Another special commission was appointed in 1879 for the purpose of framing for the consideration of the Legislature general laws to govern all municipalities. This commission also reported a bill late in the session. It was not acted upon, but was referred, as was also the bill proposed by the tax commission, to a special committee of members of both Houses, to be reported with amendments to the next Legislature. Since the amendment of the Constitution prohibiting special local laws as well as private bills went into force, in 1876, many laws affecting municipalities, general in form, but special in their intention, have been enacted. Such laws have been usually decided by the courts to be void, as evading the spirit of the Constitution. Governor Ludlow, in his inaugural address, referred to the evils which made the amendment necessary, and to the inconveniences which have attended its operation. Before the adoption of the amendment each Senator or member of the Assembly was allowed by a kind of common courtesy to prescribe to the Legislature acts for his own constituency. Individual demands rather than public claims were the bases of municipal legislation; all sorts of schemes were passed for localities whose representatives asked for them, and public debts were piled up to colossal heights. The constant intermeddling of the Legislature in the affairs of the municipalities was felt to be a serious injury. The establishment of legislative commissions for the government of cities was a course which was subversive of the principles underlying the republic, and productive of the greatest mischief. Such a commission governed one of the largest cities of the State many years against the wishes of its citizens, and in spite of the protests of its representatives in the Legislature. The evils of special legislation have not been prevented, but the attempts to conform to the amendments have led to much legal confusion, which is scarcely less disastrous than the former license in local enactments.

The whole effort seems to have been to avoid rather than conform to their spirit and meaning; not to adopt general principles for the government of all, but to legislate for single localities by laws under a general title and context, from the operation of which

all the rest of the State is sought to be absolved by a proviso often grotesque in its complications.

By this method not only have all the old evils been retained, but there have been added to them the doubts as to what localities the laws are intended to and do apply; and, further, whether they are themselves constitutional.

As it is now, after the lapse of but a very few years, neither a common council, a town committee, nor their legal advisers can possibly tell what they are authorized and what they are forbidden to do until the whole mass of seemingly general legislation shall be carefully gone over, and the applying acts culled from the chaos which fills the books of the past five years.

When that has been done, there still remains the by no means trivial question as to how many of them have been either directly or by implication abrogated by the courts as evasions of the Constitution.

Were this the result of accident, it would not be so bad, but the practice has been of general adoption; and it has more than once happened that acts have been passed which had, previous to their enactment, been declared by the legal adviser of the Legislature to be unconstitutional.

It is proper to say that there was at first a desire to comply with the Constitution, but, as difficulties arose, the policy of evasion was inaugurated. One success paved the way for others, and each succeeding session has gone a step further than its predecessor, until the above culmination has been reached.

There seems to be but one way out of this labyrinth of doubt and uncertainty, so long as the requirement of the Constitution remains as at present; and that is, by the passage of a general law or laws under which municipalities can act, and then compelling them to do so.

Much of the difficulty of the position will disappear on the mere resolution to overcome it, and to abide by the law. If it is known that a city can not get authority to spend money for a Fourth-of-July celebration, or to open some particular street in some peculiar way, or to take away from or give power to some particular officer unexpectedly elected, by a special act of the Legislature, the act will not be applied for; much time and money will be saved both to the city and to the State, and nobody will really be the loser. And yet it will be found that much of the special legislation for which the directions of the Constitution have been disregarded, has been of a character and grade no more important than these.

The report of the commission on prison-labor approves the employment of convicts in productive labor and in skilled trades in order that they may be self-supporting while in prison and as well qualified as possible for earning their living when released. In the New Jersey Prison 368 convicts were employed in manufacturing shoes, in which trade over 6,000 free laborers are employed. The recommendations of the commission were as follows:

1. That the Supervisor and Inspectors be instructed to employ the convicts in the State Prison in as many different industries as the facilities at their disposal and a due regard for the proper maintenance and support of the prison and prisoners will admit.

2. To enable this to be done, and for the urgent needs of the State Prison in other respects, hereinbefore mentioned, that the present State Arsenal, and the grounds pertaining to it, be added to the prison and fitted for its uses.

3. That in order to prevent the labor of the convicts in our State Prison from becoming injurious to free labor in future periods of depression—for it is only in periods of financial and industrial depression that the competitive labor of convicts can be injurious, or sensibly felt—the Legislature should empower the Governor to confer with the Executives of the other

States, proposing the appointment of a commission, to consist of two or more members from each State, to devise a plan by which the convict-labor of all the States may be so distributed and employed among the various productive industries as to be just and fair to each one; and that the Governor be also empowered to appoint commissioners to represent the State in such commissions whenever the proposal shall have been accepted by a majority of the States in which convict-labor is an important competing element.

4. That the Legislature provide for the establishment of an *Intermediate Prison*, where convicts between the ages of sixteen and thirty years, sentenced to imprisonment for the first time, may be kept separate from old and hardened offenders, trained to useful occupations and regular habits, and, so far as possible, reformed.

The number of persons of school age in 1880 was 330,685, an increase of 2,867. The aggregate enrollment was 204,961, an increase of 1,393. The average attendance was 115,194, an increase of 3,124. There were 3,477 teachers employed, 991 males and 2,486 females. The total number of schoolhouses was 1,585, of which 26 were newly erected and 65 rebuilt. The average time that the schools were open was nine months and twelve days, a decrease of two days. The percentage of attendance to the school population is as follows: Attending public schools, 62 per cent.; private schools, 13 per cent.; attending no schools, 25 per cent.; attending ten months, 8 per cent.; between eight and ten months, 21 per cent.; between six and eight months, 19 per cent.; between four and six months, 18 per cent.; less than four months, 34 per cent.; percentage of average attendance, 56; percentage of the school census that the schools will accommodate, 57; in the cities, 41. The proceeds of the two-mill school-tax have decreased steadily, and will show a further decrease in 1881; but in 1882 and thereafter there will probably be an increase. The increase of the school census in 1881 counterbalances the increase in rates, and leaves the per capita apportionment about the same. The total value of school property is \$6,244,139; the average value of school-buildings, \$4,108. The average cost of education per pupil, based on the total school census, was \$4.66, a decrease of five cents. The average cost on the average attendance was \$13.39, an increase of fifty-two cents.

Although the total amount of money raised for school purposes was greater than in 1879, in the majority of districts the revenue was smaller. The cities and towns raise a considerable local tax, while the rural schools depend solely on the State funds, which have decreased from \$4.49 per capita in 1875 to \$3.41 for 1880. In most of the districts the salaries of the teachers were cut down in 1880. The average monthly salary of male teachers was \$55.82, a decrease of \$1.12; the salaries of female teachers averaged \$32.90, a decrease of eighty-three cents. Governor McClellan's annual message contained the following references to the subject of keeping up the standard of the efficiency of public-school teachers, and raising the rates of remuneration in order to at-

tract to the profession those who possess the suitable talents and attainments:

It may be doubted whether there is any profession in regard to which the theory of the world at large has differed so much from its practice. The accepted theory is, that there is nothing nobler than the work of educating the young, nothing more important than the training of the future citizens and rulers of a free country. The necessary inferences from this theory are, that teaching should be a profession, not a trade; that teachers should, as far as possible, possess a high order of intellect, tact, adaptability, and patience; broad, general views and information united with mastery of detail; the power of teaching children to think for themselves, as well as that of impressing facts upon their minds; self-command and kindness of heart united with a strict sense of justice and firmness of purpose; knowledge of human nature and the ability to grasp and deal with the individual characteristics of every pupil; entire devotion to the work; large experience—especially for the higher positions—and, in addition to other self-evident qualifications, the true spirit of Christianity; in other words, that teachers should possess, in a high degree, all those qualities which insure success in the best-paid and most alluring walks of life, and that they should make teaching their life's work.

The practice, too generally, is to commence all measures of economy by reducing the small salaries of the teachers, and to regulate the quality of the teachers by the amount set aside for the salary, instead of the reverse operation.

The consequence is, that there is seldom any inducement for highly qualified persons to devote their lives to the profession, so that such persons either adopt teaching as a temporary resource, until something better offers itself, or they are obliged to submit to the anxieties of poverty, while they see their inferiors in intellect and acquirements gaining all the advantages of worldly prosperity, or the places must be filled by incompetent persons, who can find nothing better to do.

There can be no question that the general results of public education would be far greater were those intrusted with the direction of such matters to adopt the principle that they would first select the most competent teachers available, and then assign them salaries sufficient to content them and make them regard teaching as their permanent occupation, and that the last measure taken in the interest of economy should be the decrease of the teacher's salary below a proper point.

If education is worth doing at all, it is worth doing well; and the quality of the teachers is at the foundation of the whole system.

The subject of public education has been so widely discussed that there is no necessity for its being entered upon in any detail here. It is generally conceded that in a republic it is the right and duty of the Government to require that each future citizen shall possess and use the means of obtaining an education which will enable him to understand his rights, duties, and responsibilities.

Many able and experienced men, as well in our own country as in others, have reached the conclusion that where public instruction is general its purpose should be to fit young people for that position in life which from their surroundings they are probably destined to occupy; that for the great majority of the schools there should be established a plain and useful course of studies, not only to afford the necessary information upon essential points, but also to train the pupils' minds and give them habits of thought and study to enable, and, if possible, induce them to continue their studies when the obligatory course has been completed; that for those exceptional cases of intelligence and vigor, which are sure to force themselves upward, exceptional facilities should be afforded, surrounded by just enough difficulty and sacrifice to make sure that the aspirants possess sufficient intelligence and earnest-

ness of purpose to prove them worthy of the advantages they seek.

A question of such magnitude as that of public instruction can seldom be solved by theory alone; careful inquiry and thought, comparison of theory with practice, and the best energies of able men devoted to the subject, are required to reach satisfactory results. It may prove to be the case that a Board of Education, less numerous than our existing one, clothed with a good deal more power than it now possesses, and empowered to determine the course of studies and methods pursued, could facilitate the solution of this vital problem, which perhaps may be concisely stated thus: to afford all young persons in the State that foundation of knowledge and habit of correct thought which will enable them to do their duty as citizens and to become useful members of a thriving and progressive community; to do this fully without undue waste of time, while avoiding that superficial over-education of the many which really unfits them for the everyday work of their lives, without enabling them to enter upon a successful competition for the higher prizes of life.

It would be well if all in this land could be taught to realize that for those who perform their allotted life-work honestly and manfully all pursuits are alike honorable, and that he who spends his life in hard manual toil, if he is worthy and industrious, is just as deserving of respect as he who devotes himself to purely intellectual labor; and, more than this, that it may be doubted whether at the close of a busy life the sum of content is greater in the latter than in the former case.

State Superintendent Apgar instituted inquiries with regard to the length of time which is passed in the schools by city children, for the object of arranging a proper course of study for the city schools. The school age in New Jersey is between the ages of five and eighteen years. Of the total school population in the cities, 53 per cent. is enrolled in the public schools, 18 per cent. attends private schools, and 29 per cent. does not attend school. Less than half of the children between five and six years old attend the public schools, and about one sixth private schools, more than one third being kept out of school. The numbers attending both public and private schools increase, and attain their maximum between the ages of seven and ten years, only one per cent. being out of school at those ages, 75 per cent. attending the public and 24 per cent. the private schools. Many attend only a small portion of the year. At the age of thirteen the children begin to drop out of the schools at a rapid rate; at the age of fifteen more than one half have ceased going to school, only 13 per cent. of the persons between fifteen and sixteen years of age attending the public and five per cent. the private schools. Between sixteen and eighteen years seven per cent. are remaining in the public and three per cent. in the private schools, while 90 per cent. are out of school.

In 1878 the Legislature passed a law to provide for the establishment of industrial schools. Through the imperfections of this act, and by reason of other difficulties, the system of public technical instruction has not yet been introduced. Governor McClellan strongly recommends the plan of supplementing the common-school system with a scheme of technical and artistic education. He deems it an experiment

of moment and of great promise, and points out the vital importance to a manufacturing State of improving the efficiency of its industries, and of promoting technical knowledge and proficiency for that object. The example of other countries proves the wisdom of such a course, for the establishment and encouragement of technical schools by governments has been found to act directly and beneficially on the welfare of the community.

The Governor cited some statistics of the Bureau of Labor and Industries to show how greatly the interests of New Jersey are involved in this question. In 1880 the products of twenty-six branches of industry were of the value of \$110,000,000. In the manufacturing establishments in which these trades were carried on, there were paid about \$28,500,000 for wages to nearly 75,500 employees. Of the branches enumerated, there are twelve which especially require technical or artistic skill. Of these, the products amounted to \$75,000,000; while they paid more than \$18,000,000 in wages to about 47,000 employees. For example, under the head of steam-engines and machinery, the value of the products is over \$19,750,000, and more than \$3,800,000 are paid in wages to 7,852 employees; the silk-manufactories produce goods to the value of nearly \$16,000,000, and pay more than \$4,000,000 in wages to 12,680 employees; manufactories of other textile fabrics produce more than \$10,700,000, and pay more than \$2,500,000 in wages to 8,593 employees; the potteries produce nearly \$3,000,000, and pay nearly \$1,250,000 to 3,195 employees; in jewelry the products amount to nearly \$4,000,000, and there are paid more than \$1,250,000 as wages to 2,393 employees.

Governor McClellan makes the following comments on the subject of industrial training:

In very many cases skilled labor and a considerable amount of technical and artistic knowledge are indispensable for the preservation and development of these industries, which do so much to insure the general prosperity of the State.

Never before in the history of industrial enterprises has there existed so great a demand for skilled labor, while the practical abolition of the system of apprenticeship and the lack of technical schools render it impossible to supply the demand to the requisite extent. Unskilled labor is superabundant—the professions are overstocked. The necessity of the hour is to convert unskilled into skilled labor, and also to open avenues for remunerative employment in the arts and industries to those who otherwise would only add to the already excessive number striving for existence in the professional or mercantile walks of life.

The total receipts of the Treasury in 1880 were \$2,467,697.15, from the following sources: Two-mill school-tax, \$1,063,703.70; income of school fund and securities paid off during the year, \$321,612.35; income of Agricultural College fund, \$6,960; State fund, \$1,075,421.10. This, with the balance on hand from the preceding year, made the amount available during the year \$2,967,985.59. The receipts for the year on account of the State fund were \$255,-

404 from the proceeds of the State tax, and \$820,017 from the regular sources of revenue; altogether \$1,075,421. The balance in the Treasury at the beginning of the year made the total available sum for the expenses of government \$1,392,109. The expenditures for the year were \$1,007,379, a decrease of \$59,980 as compared with the preceding year. The balance on hand, October 31st, was \$384,730. With this balance, the decrease in the expenses, and the increased receipts from the regular sources of revenue, the removal of the State tax by the Legislature is warranted, and would not entail any financial embarrassment. If the same economy continues to be practiced by the Legislature in making appropriations and regulating expenses, there will be no necessity of reimposing the State tax. There was a total balance in the Treasury at the end of the year of \$544,067.55. Of this, \$384,730.45 stands to the credit of the State fund, and \$159,337.10 to that of the school fund. There was a decrease of \$68,797.68 in the receipts from the two-mill school-tax as compared with 1879, and of \$276,754.02 from State taxes—the latter caused by a reduction in the rate of taxation. The whole of the balance credited to the State fund was not immediately available, there having been included in the balance from 1879 the sums of \$33,990 deposited in the State Bank of New Brunswick and of \$6,000 in a Newark bank, both of which institutions have passed into the hands of receivers. Partial payments have been made, but there is still due \$22,443.75, and, until that amount is paid, the available State fund must be reduced by that amount.

The detailed account of disbursements for the year ending October 31, 1880, is as follows:

For account of public debt..... \$90,000 00

CHARITABLE AND REFORMATORY.

Support of State Lunatic Asylums..	\$73,240 79
Support of County Lunatic Asylums	22,204 83
Special appropriation to Morristown	
Asylum.....	15,000 00
Deaf and Dumb, Blind and Feeble-minded.....	66,156 83
Reform School at Jamesburg.....	18,900 00
Home for Disabled Soldiers at Newark.....	17,799 71
Pensions.....	7,550 08
Girls' Industrial School at Trenton.....	7,500 00
Soldiers' Children's Home at Trenton.....	467 04
Soldiers' State bounty.....	233 51
	<hr/>
	280,511 74

STATE GOVERNMENT.

Legislature.....	\$6,285 21
Salaries and fees.....	29,023 61
State-House expenses.....	14,486 06
Clerical service.....	12,061 88
Stationery and postage.....	5,937 58
State Library.....	1,465 99
	<hr/>
	132,259 83

SCIENTIFIC, SANITARY, ETC.

Inspection of cattle.....	\$12,228 64
Geological Survey.....	8,370 00
Inspection of fisheries.....	6,486 39
Propagation of food-fishes.....	5,000 00
Vital statistics.....	2,598 84
Agriculture.....	1,035 75
Agricultural experiment stations.....	2,938 44
Bureau of Statistics.....	2,566 40
State Board of Health.....	2,258 06
Pleuro-pneumonia.....	951 04
Bounties on fibrous plants.....	50 75
	<hr/>
	44,540 11

Brought forward.....		\$497,911 68
MILITARY.		
Militia.....	\$70,824 83	
Rifle associations.....	5,634 63	
Ordnance.....	4,276 97	
Arsenal.....	1,959 18	
		82,245 56
COURTS, CRIMES, ETC.		
Court expenses.....	\$82,634 32	
Law and equity reports.....	13,277 76	
Legal expenses.....	5,153 75	
Revision of statutes.....	472 50	
Costs on forfeited recognizances.....	208 86	
Requisitions.....	4,003 21	
Transportation and costs of conviction.....	80,618 97	
State-Prison salaries.....	55,129 50	
State-Prison maintenance.....	51,636 68	
State-Prison repairs.....	10,323 56	
Discharged convicts.....	1,185 00	
Commission on prison-labor.....	8,063 44	
		257,752 55
EDUCATIONAL.		
Normal School.....	\$15,000 00	
Normal-School scholarships.....	5,000 00	
Normal-School repairs.....	1,056 24	
Education.....	15,315 21	
Farnum School.....	1,200 00	
Free-school libraries.....	1,420 00	
		38,991 45
PUBLICATION.		
Printing.....	\$47,739 60	
Advertising.....	52,890 40	
Preservation of records.....	1,500 00	
Binding.....	925 00	
		103,055 00
MISCELLANEOUS.		
Riparian commission.....	\$11,000 00	
Commission on cities.....	6,424 81	
Tax commission.....	2,058 56	
Washington headquarters.....	2,500 00	
Wrecks.....	1,471 60	
Sinking-fund expenses.....	2,831 43	
Incidentals.....	2,236 65	
		28,028 10
Total.....		\$1,007,379 34

The estimates of expenditures for 1881 are for charitable and reformatory, \$251,200.29; courts, crimes, etc., \$270,000; State government, \$131,878.30; scientific, sanitary, etc., \$45,058.05; military, \$65,000; education, \$38,000; publication, \$103,500; miscellaneous, \$25,363.36. Total, \$1,020,000. The estimated revenue for the year is, including available balance on hand, \$1,304,860.90. So that, if no appropriations outside the ordinary expenditures are made, there will probably be a balance at the close of the year of \$284,860.90.

New Jersey has contracted no floating debt during the year. The only funded debt is the remaining portion of the war loan, amounting at the close of the year to \$1,996,300, and at the date of the Governor's message to \$1,896,300. Under the present arrangements for the redemption of these bonds, they will cease in about ten years to be a charge upon the State fund, after which time at the latest the sinking fund will be sufficient to extinguish the debt. A number of lots, thirty-two in all, of valuable real estate, have come into possession of the State through the foreclosure of mortgages which secured loans, made as an investment of the moneys of the sinking fund during the speculative period preceding the crisis of 1873. In order that the loss to the fund should be as

little as possible, the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund have not yet sold the foreclosed property, anticipating a rise in its market value after the return of general prosperity. This policy has received the approval of the Senate committee appointed to examine into the condition of that fund.

The Senate passed a resolution requesting the State Treasurer, George M. Wright, to give information as to his conduct in connection with the matter of the State Bank of New Brunswick, which failed in 1877 with \$33,990 of State funds in its hands. The Treasurer made the required statement of the dates and amounts of the deposits and drafts, and the legal steps taken to recover for the State. A petition was filed in the Court of Chancery after the closure of the bank, praying that the State's claim should be satisfied before any other one could be allowed. The Chancellor decided in the May term of 1878 that the State did not possess the prerogative which the common law gives to the Crown, of a preference before all other creditors, which decision was affirmed by the Court of Errors and Appeals in November of the same year. A draft was made by the Treasurer against the balance in the bank before the failure, which was deposited with the Trenton Banking Company for collection. The question whether the latter rendered itself liable for the amount of the check, \$7,990, through negligence, is in litigation. The allegation of the interlocutors against the Treasurer was that the bank, which had once before suspended payments, was known by him to be infirm, and that he had kept a balance of the public moneys in the bank, and had increased it with new deposits, while the State was borrowing money at interest to meet current obligations, from partisan motives, in order to influence local elections.

The State Agricultural College is incorporated with Rutgers Scientific School. Of the forty free scholarships, all but five were filled in 1880. The graduates are fitted to engage in engineering, manufacturing, farming, and other occupations requiring a high degree of knowledge and training. The farm carried on in connection with the school serves as a model for farmers; and the experiments to be made there promise to be of considerable practical value to the farming interests. The Agricultural Experiment Station was established by the Legislature of 1879. It has done a creditable amount of work already in the analysis of fertilizers, of samples of milk, feed, fodders, and soils, and the investigation of some questions of practical importance in agriculture. The results of the researches are regularly disseminated in bulletins.

The Adjutant-General, W. S. Stryker, reports 3,147 men and 260 officers as the force of the National Guard, an increase of 182. They have greatly improved in proficiency in the use of the rifle. The same uniform has been provided for the entire body—nearly the

same as that used in the United States Army. The dress hat has been changed for the helmet. The reserve militia force of the State is estimated approximately at 223,914 men.

In the State Lunatic Asylum, at Trenton, 550 patients were under treatment at the close of the year—303 males and 247 females. The whole number of cases treated during the year was 672; 49 were discharged cured, 26 improved, 9 incurable, and 38 died. The total number treated since 1848 has been 5,661, of whom 3,491 have been returned recovered or improved. The practice of confining insane convicts with the other patients is deprecated by the managers. The messages of the Governors have expressed disapproval of this policy at different times. There were thirty-six of these in the asylum at the end of the year. The branch asylum at Morris Plains makes an equally favorable showing. The indigent, mute, feeble-minded, and blind children receive instruction in institutions outside of the State, and the establishment of State institutions for the purpose is not advised.

The Boys' Reform School, at Jamesburg, is organized on the cottage, or family, system, and has a very thorough and successful method of discipline, instruction, and encouragement for the reformation of juvenile offenders. There were 270 in the school at the beginning of the year and 258 at its close. The total number of commitments since 1867 has been 1,051—970 white and 81 colored. The daily net cost for maintenance per capita, including clothing, is twenty-one cents. The school is under the superintendence of James H. Eastman. The buildings and grounds are pleasant, and are made as free from the suggestion of restraint as ordinary boarding-schools. The principal occupation of the boys is making and laundrying shirts, at which they work seven hours a day. A good number are employed also on the farm, and others in brickmaking, blacksmithing, baking, tailoring, etc. The means of the school do not admit of instructing all the boys in trades. In the shirt-factory the boys become very skillful, and their earnings are enough to greatly reduce the cost of the institution. The shop-building cost \$13,000, and the receipts for the work done in it in the first four years amounted to \$33,800. The school has been in existence fifteen years, and is considered one of the most successful of its kind. There is also an Industrial School for Girls at Jamesburg. It is on a much smaller scale, and in the last report is stated to be overcrowded.

From the report of the State Board of Health, it appears that the year has been unusually free from fatal disease, and that the number of deaths was about 1,000 less than in 1879. There has, however, been more disease of a remittent or malarial type. The local boards of health are increasing in number, and improving in activity and efficiency. The investigation of diseases of animals indicates that the danger from that source has not been appreciated;

that pleuro-pneumonia has not been extirpated, but still occurs in some localities, and requires close watching lest it become endemic in the State.

The Geological Survey has, with its topographical and other labors, made an examination of the fire-clays found in New Jersey, and their respective degrees of infusibility. They have also given attention to the question of water-supply for cities and seaside resorts. There have been a number of new iron-mines opened during the year. The survey advises caution in risking capital in mining for other metals than iron and zinc in the State.

The returns of the assessors show a total valuation of the property of the State of \$518,617,518, against \$508,892,338 in 1879. Until 1880 the valuation of taxable property showed a steady decline since 1874, the decrease from that year's valuation to that of 1879 amounting to over \$110,000,000. This variance is attributed only partly to the general decline in values. The defects in the system of assessment are supposed to account in a large measure for the decrease.

The report of Secretary of State Kelsey on the savings-banks shows that the assets of the thirty-four savings-banks in the State on January 1, 1880, were \$18,361,011; their total liabilities, \$17,533,055; the total number of depositors, 68,457. The increase in the amount of assets over that of the previous year was \$1,771,120; in the liabilities, \$1,721,008; in the surplus of assets over liabilities, \$53,111; in the number of depositors, 5,467. The increase in assets was mainly in Government bonds.

The Bureau of Labor and Statistics is very active in collecting information regarding the material welfare of the Commonwealth. Its report contains a chapter on the condition of the public highways. The roads of the United States are declared by Governor McClellan to be inferior in proportion to the amounts expended upon them to those of any other country. The bureau recommends the encouragement of silk-culture by the State. It appears that New Jersey already manufactures sixteen million dollars (\$16,000,000) of the thirty million dollars (\$30,000,000) produced in the United States, and consumes more than sixty (60) per cent. of the raw silk imported into the United States. The Legislature in 1879 authorized the payment of bounties for the cultivation of certain fibrous plants. A beginning has been made in flax-culture. A number of Irish spinners to whom specimens of flax raised in New Jersey were shown have expressed their intention, if the hopes of the bureau regarding flax-culture are realized, of establishing factories in the State. The culture of jute, it is believed, can be profitably carried on in south New Jersey, as indicated by experiments in Virginia.

The Commission of Fisheries has seen to the regular though judicious enforcement of the

fish laws, and as the result of its activity the supply of food-fishes has largely increased.

The census returns make the population of New Jersey, in 1880, 1,130,892, as against 906,096 in 1870, an increase of 24·8 per cent. Of the different counties Camden shows the highest ratio of increase, 46·7 per cent., and Sussex the smallest, 1·65 per cent.; the largest numerical increase was in the counties of Hudson, 58,883, and Essex, 45,980.

The Republican Convention which chose delegates to the National Convention met at Trenton, May 12th. The following resolutions were adopted:

1. *Resolved*, That, as American citizens, we hold the welfare of the entire Union to be above any and all sectional interests; that, as New Jersey men, proud of our State and loyal to her in all things, we believe that her prosperity and advancement are best to be served by steadfast advocacy of and devotion to the principles of the Republican party, and unswerving loyalty to and love for the national Union.

2. *Resolved*, That we insist upon perfect protection to every American citizen of whatsoever color, native or naturalized, in all his political and civil rights; that we are in favor of the extension of the public-school system throughout the Union, free from sectarian influence, believing, as we do, that the common schools are to do the work of preparing the millions of this country for the responsibilities that come with universal suffrage.

3. *Resolved*, That we congratulate the country upon the fact that such has been the financial policy of the Republican party that no man, foreign or native, has ever lost one dollar by the promises of the United States. We congratulate the country that we have returned to specie payments, and that resumption is now certain and permanent.

4. *Resolved*, That we favor a sound currency—the foundation of which shall be coin, or notes redeemable in coin, and that we regard any man or party as a most dangerous enemy who in any way seeks to impair the national credit.

5. *Resolved*, That it is the duty of the national Government to secure free and fair elections everywhere throughout the Union within the scope of the powers conferred upon it by the Constitution of the United States.

6. *Resolved*, That we will cordially support the nominee for President to be selected at Chicago, for the honor and welfare of our country and our State.

The Democratic State Convention for the selection of delegates to the Presidential Convention met at Trenton, May 20th. The platform adopted was as follows:

Resolved, That the Democracy of New Jersey reassert the principles of constitutional government, civil and religious liberty, and the equal rights of the people, to preserve which the Democratic party was founded by the men who founded the republic, and to perpetuate which is the aim, the mission, and the sacred duty of Democracy.

Resolved, That the preservation of the States and the maintenance of their governments are as much within the design and care of the Constitution as the preservation of the Union and the maintenance of the national Government; that the Constitution in all its provisions looks to an indissoluble Union composed of indestructible States; that the Government created by the Constitution was not designed for the regulation of matters of purely local concern; that the States are fully competent to provide for the due administration of justice between their own citizens in their own courts, as well as the regulation of highways, schools, hospitals, and charitable institutions; that the inter-

ference by Congress with the States in the administration of their governments and the enforcement of their laws with respect to matters over which jurisdiction was not surrendered to the United States, is not authorized by the Constitution or any of the amendments, and the attempt to enforce such legislation by a partisan judiciary is a dangerous usurpation, destructive of the liberties of the people, and, if persisted in, will result in reducing the States to mere municipal corporations, thus effectually destroying the government of our fathers.

Resolved, That a free and fair ballot is the right preservative of all rights. We denounce all pleas and subterfuges for surrounding the polls with troops, in imitation of imperial usurpers, and with petty officials clothed with the arbitrary power of arresting citizens without warrant, as pretenses of the enemies of free elections, whose aim it is to prevent an untrammelled expression of the popular will by a terrorizing and tyrannical system. We demand a free ballot as the inalienable right of free men.

Resolved, That the widespread disasters that followed the temporizing financial policy of the Republican party, and its legalized repudiation, have served to vindicate the Democratic doctrine that a sound currency, with a specie basis, is the best means of securing business stability and permanent prosperity; and to this doctrine we adhere. We favor economy in administration as the best means of strengthening the Government credit and lightening the burdens of the people; and we are opposed to all monopolies, class legislation and subsidies, which disturb the equal operation of the laws of trade, create unequal privileges, or interfere with the legitimate opportunities of honest labor and private enterprise.

Resolved, That we look to the Democratic National Convention for a Presidential candidate who will represent the foregoing principles, and whose election will secure their renewed ascendancy in the administration, believing that, through their observance alone, the Government, long perverted from its original and true purpose, can be restored to the purity, simplicity, and justice which should distinguish our republican institutions.

Resolved, That we favor the continuance of the two-thirds rule by the National Convention in the nomination of candidates.

Resolved, That we can not too often reiterate our abhorrence of the monstrous fraud by which the sovereign will of the American people in the choice of their Chief Magistrate was defeated in the last Presidential contest, and through which the United States has since presented the shameful spectacle of a republic with an Executive not elected by its people. To the execration in which the men and the party guilty of this crowning iniquity of the nineteenth century must be held, should be added their condemnation and defeat at the coming election as a warning that this people are resolved to maintain their priceless heritage of self-government.

The Republican Convention for the nomination of Governor and Presidential electors met at Trenton, August 18th. Frederick A. Potts was nominated for Governor.

In the Democratic State Convention, held at Trenton, September 1st, George C. Ludlow was nominated for Governor. The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the platform adopted by the National Democratic Convention at Cincinnati meets our hearty approval.

Resolved, That we cordially endorse and ratify the nominations for President and Vice-President made by said Convention.

Resolved, That the Democratic party in this State is in favor of such a tariff as will best protect our home industries.

Resolved, That the Democratic party will in the fu-

ture, as in the past, so act as to protect the best interests of the laboring-man.

Resolved, That we arraign and condemn successive Republican Legislatures, especially the last, for their inconsiderate passage of acts affecting the public Treasury, by which, had they not been defeated by the wise action of the Democratic Executive, the continuance of an onerous State tax would have been a necessity; and we approve and commend Governor McClellan for withholding his approval of such acts.

Resolved, That we emphatically condemn the Republican system of management of the State finances, by which a loss of more than fifty thousand dollars occurred by the defalcation of a Republican State Treasurer, covering a period of several years, and of a further loss of more than forty thousand dollars by the failure of two banks, in which a Republican Treasurer had, in his own discretion, deposited the public funds.

In the State election Ludlow received 121,666 votes; Potts, 121,015; Hoxsey, Greenback candidate, 2,759; and Ramson, Prohibition candidate, 195—electing Ludlow Governor by a plurality vote over the Republican candidate of 651. The Presidential vote was 122,565 for the Hancock electors, 120,555 for the Garfield electors, 2,617 for the Weaver electors, and 191 for the Dow electors—giving Hancock's electors the plurality of 2,010.

NEW YORK. The annual session of the Legislature of New York began on the 6th of January, and came to a close on the 27th of May. Among the minor incidents of the session was the appointment by the Governor and the confirmation by the Senate of Silas B. Dutcher as Superintendent of Public Works; and the election, in joint session of the two Houses, of Neil Gilmour as Superintendent of Public Instruction. The reappointment by Governor Cornell of John F. Smyth to be Superintendent of the Insurance Department excited a lively spirit of opposition in the Senate. Mr. Smyth's official course had been the subject of serious criticism and accusation, and an unsuccessful attempt to remove him from office had been made. His course as the leader of the Republican organization in the city of Albany had also occasioned some division in the party. The character of the opposition evoked by his reappointment led to the withdrawal of his name, and the substitution of that of Charles G. Fairman, who was promptly confirmed.

The death of Chief-Justice Sanford E. Church, of the Court of Appeals, which took place at Albion on the 14th of May, was announced to the Legislature by an Executive message on the 17th. In communicating the intelligence of this event, the Governor said:

For nearly forty years Judge Church has been a conspicuous figure in the public affairs of the State. Possessing superior ability and untiring devotion to duty, combined with high character and unquestioned integrity, he early secured the confidence of the people, and maintained it throughout his long and eventful career. Positive, fearless, and consistent in his political course, and faithful to those who shared his views, he merited and enjoyed the favor of his party in a remarkable degree. In official service his record is an enviable one. As member of the Assembly, District Attorney, Lieutenant-Governor, Comptroller, member

of the Constitutional Convention, and Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, he acquitted himself with unusual credit. In every capacity or association he uniformly proved himself to be a leader of men. At the bar, in the councils of his party, and in all deliberative bodies, he occupied a place in the front rank, wielding an influence inferior to none, and equaled by few. In social life, his genial manners made him always a welcome guest, while the purity of his private life and the happiness of his domestic relations present a symmetry of character and an example worthy of emulation.

Called by the people to preside over our highest court just ten years ago to-day, Judge Church discharged his great trust with eminent success and fidelity. His former partisanship caused him, perhaps, in the beginning to be distrusted by many of opposite political opinions, but his impartiality and patriotic bearing soon dispelled every doubt; and it can now be truthfully said that never in the history of our State has the Appellate Court enjoyed the confidence of the people in a higher degree than during the period of his service as the presiding Judge.

The following commemorative record was unanimously adopted, after eulogistic remarks by several members, in the Assembly:

We, the representatives of the people of this State, bow with submission, but with deep sorrow, to the sad and sudden bereavement occasioned by the death of Sanford E. Church. A profound and able jurist as Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, his decisions challenge and receive the approbation of all men. As a statesman his record as legislator, Lieutenant Governor, Comptroller, and head of the Finance Committee of the last Constitutional Convention is a bright and enduring monument to his skill, energy, foresight, unquestioned ability, and above all, to his great purity of thought and action. In his daily contact with his fellow-men, dignity was not lowered by his unrestrained intercourse with the humblest, nor was it elevated by his acknowledged equality in all things with the most refined and intelligent in the land. Socially he was loved by all, and in that nearer and closer intimacy of his family circle his example as a loving husband, a kind, indulgent, but judicious father, can well be followed by all. In his conduct and character we can mark this phase of life not the least of his many virtues.

We tender to his stricken family the only sympathy in our power. The State and the nation are with you mourners at the bier of this great and good man.

Our Speaker will name on the part of our body five of our number, who will represent us at the funeral, and we request the Clerk to cause this memorial to be properly engrossed and presented to the family of our departed friend.

Eulogies were also pronounced in the Senate, and that body appointed a committee of three to act with that designated by the Assembly. In the Court of Appeals, at the first meeting after the death of the Chief-Justice, the session of the day was devoted to tributes to his character and worth by his former associates, and an adjournment of one week was taken out of respect for his memory.

Two important subjects of legislation occupied a large share of attention during the session, though with unsatisfactory results. These were the revision of the laws relating to assessment and taxation, and the regulation of railroads. There had long been great dissatisfaction with the inequalities of taxation in the State, the small share of the burden borne by corporations, the escape of personal property

under the provision for deduction on account of debt, and general irregularity and uncertainty in the operation of the laws. The Governor, in his annual message, recommended the appointment of a commission to make a careful revision of the statutes relating to this subject, and to report at the next session; but this method had been tried more than once with unprofitable results, and the suggestion was not acted upon. Resolutions declaratory of the principles on which a revision of the tax laws should be made were introduced, and after some delay a joint special committee of the two Houses was appointed to deal with the whole subject. This committee set out with an avowed determination to make the needed revision of the laws, and adopted as an outline of their work the taxation of all corporations on their capital stock or receipts, from which source the entire revenue for State purposes was to be derived, the abolition of all exemptions except in the case of property used for public purposes, a strict assessment of all forms of wealth, including credits and certificates of shares, and a rigid enforcement of all provisions for a thorough and equal assessment and collection of taxes. It encountered a good deal of opposition in its work, and was forced back from some of its plans, while the bills prepared were largely modified after they left the hands of the committee, and some of them wholly defeated. The consequence was, some material changes in the laws, but no systematic revision. A bill defining lands was drawn which was intended to bring under assessment railroad tracks, telegraph wires, underground pipes, private docks, etc., but it was amended so as to exempt horse-railway tracks, and as passed was vetoed by the Governor, on the ground that on account of its loose wording it would fail of much of its purpose. The effort to restrict exemptions was wholly defeated. A bill to tax the deposits in savings-banks encountered so much opposition that it had to be abandoned, and the scope of that taxing the premiums received by life-insurance companies had to be materially limited. The latter passed, however, in such a form as to levy eight tenths of one per cent. on the premiums derived from business within the State during the year for which the assessment was made. This tax was to be levied and collected for the use of the State under the authority and direction of the Comptroller. A more general act for obtaining revenue for the State from corporations was passed, after some modification from the form given to it by the committee. It provides for a State tax on capital, to be collected under the authority of the Comptroller, the companies themselves being required to make reports of the amount and value of the capital, manufacturing corporations not being included. The tax, in the case of corporations paying dividends of six per cent. or more, is one fourth of a mill for each one per cent. of the dividend on every dollar of the par value

of the stock, and where smaller dividends or none at all are paid, one and a half mill on each dollar of an appraised value of the stock. A tax of eight tenths of one per cent. was also levied on the gross receipts of fire and marine insurance companies, and five tenths of one per cent. on the gross receipts of transportation companies. Street surface-railroads were exempted from the operation of the tax on gross receipts. The real estate of corporations was left subject to assessment for local purposes, but it was declared that their capital and personal property should be exempt from taxation except as in this act provided. The operation of this law did not prove altogether satisfactory, and the experience of the year failed to justify the anticipations of its supporters. Some difficulty was experienced in obtaining a list of all the corporations in the State, and in securing the reports required by the law. Then the provision exempting the capital and personal property of corporations from other taxation gave rise to doubt which resulted in litigation. A transportation company belonging to Richmond County claimed exemption from local assessment, but Judge Gilbert held that the exemption applied only to taxes for State purposes, and left the property subject to taxation for local purposes. The State Comptroller reported a collection of only \$141,127.03 in taxes under this law up to October 1st, but he anticipated that, when its meaning was clearly settled, and it could be effectively enforced, there would be a revenue of \$2,000,000 annually from this source. He suggested, however, a number of important amendments to be made to the law.

The matter of taxing shares in the stock of national banks not only occupied much attention in the Legislature, but in the courts as well. The statute of the United States relating to national banks, which forbids the taxing of their capital by State authority, declares that their shares may be included in the assessment of the personal property of the holders, but must not be assessed at a "higher rate" than "other moneyed capital in the hands of individual citizens of the State." The Legislature passed an act in 1866 for the assessment of bank-shares, providing that the tax should be paid by the banks, and by them held back from the payment of dividends on the stock. The question was raised whether deductions for debt were to be allowed. The Attorney-General gave it as his opinion that such was not the intent of the act, and the assessor proceeded on this interpretation of the law. The Exchange Bank in Albany resisted the collection of the tax, and the matter was carried through a protracted litigation which culminated in a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in March of this year. The State Court of Appeals had sustained the interpretation of the act of 1866, which had been acted upon in the assessment of bank-shares, and the Federal tribunal accepted its construc-

tion of the State law as correct, but declared that the assessment of bank-shares under it, without allowing deduction for debts as in the case of other personal property, was in violation of the restriction of the act of Congress. The points decided by the State Court of Appeals were as follows:

1. That it was not the duty of the defendants, as assessors of the city of Albany, to comply with the demand made by said relator, and reduce his assessments to the sum of one dollar, and answer the first question submitted in the negative.

2. That under the law of the State of New York, referred to in the second question, and passed April 23, 1866, the defendants, as such assessors, were justified in refusing to reduce the relator's assessment on his shares of bank-stock mentioned in said submission to the sum of one dollar, and answers the second question in the affirmative.

3. That the said law of the State of New York, passed April 23, 1866, is not in violation of any law of the United States relating to the amount of taxes on shares of national banking associations, and answers the third question submitted in the negative.

In regard to these the United States Supreme Court says:

Of the second of these propositions this Court has no jurisdiction, but must accept the decision of the highest court of the State that the act of 1866 took the money invested in bank-shares out of the general provision of the law of 1850, which allowed a deduction of the debts owing by the shareholder from the value of the personal property, as a basis for laying the tax. In that respect we are bound by the decision of the Court of Appeals as the true construction of the State statute. The first proposition is but the necessary result of the case, if the other two are decided in favor of defendants by that Court. We have thus left for our consideration the third proposition, which being decided against a right asserted by plaintiff under the act of Congress establishing the national banking system, presents a question reviewable by this Court. We proceed to consider it.

The conclusion was adverse to the position of the State authorities, and was in effect that the refusal to allow the deduction for debt resulted in the assessment of bank-shares at a "higher rate" than other moneyed capital within the meaning of the Federal statute. On this point the Court used the following language:

"Taxation shall not be at a greater rate than is assessed upon other moneyed capital in the hands of individuals." Seizing upon the word *rate* in this sentence as if disconnected from the word *assessment*, and construing it to mean percentage on *any* valuation that might be made, the Court of Appeals arrive at the conclusion that, since that percentage is the same in all cases, the act of Congress is not infringed. If this philological criticism were perfectly just, we still think the manifest purpose of Congress in passing this law should prevail. We have already shown what that was. But the criticism is not sound. The section to be construed begins by declaring that these shares "may be included in the valuation of the personal property of the owner, in assessing taxes imposed by authority of the State within which the association is located." This *valuation*, then, is part of the *assessment* of taxes. It is a necessary part of every assessment of taxes which is governed by a ratio or percentage. There can be no rate or percentage without a valuation. This taxation, says the act, shall not be at a greater rate than is assessed on other moneyed capital. What is it that shall not be greater? The answer is, taxation. In what respect shall it not be

greater than *the rate assessed* upon other capital? We see that Congress had in its mind an *assessment*, a *rate* of assessment and a *valuation*; and taking all these together, the taxation on these shares was not to be greater than on other moneyed capital.

The concluding words of the opinion, which was delivered by Mr. Justice Miller, were as follows:

We are, therefore, of opinion that the statute of New York, as construed by the Court of Appeals, in refusing to plaintiff the same deduction for debts due by him, from the valuation of his shares of national bank stock, that it allows to those who have moneyed capital otherwise invested, is in conflict with the act of Congress, and the judgment of that Court is reversed and the case remanded for further proceedings in conformity to this opinion.

It was still assumed that the assessment of bank-shares might be made under the act of 1866, provided deductions for debt were allowed. This was the opinion of the Attorney-General of the State and the corporation counsel of the city of New York, and assessments were made under it, where the law required these to be made in the early part of the year. But before the end of the session the Legislature passed an act declaring that the capital of national banks was exempt from taxation, but that the shares might be included in the assessment of the personal property of holders, and specifically providing that the rate of assessment should not be higher than that imposed on other moneyed capital, and that deductions should be allowed for debt as in the case of other personal property. A separate act placed the shares of State banks on the same footing with those of national banks, and another provided for a tax of one half of one per cent. on the "average of all sums of money used or employed" in the State by foreign banks or bankers. Later in the year the United States Circuit Court at Syracuse decided, in the case of the Albany Exchange Bank, that the act of 1866 was wholly invalid for conflict with the Federal statute, and that assessments under it were of no effect. An injunction was granted restraining the collection of the tax, although deductions for debt were allowed. The decision was rendered in November by District Judge Wallace. Still later, in the early part of 1881, it was further decided at Albany by Judge Wallace that the bank could recover the taxes paid under protest in previous years. Even the new act of 1880 has been called in question. Judge Wallace sustained its validity in one of the Albany cases in 1881, but other suits are pending which involve the question of its validity.

The effort to abolish deductions for debt from the assessment of personal property was defeated, as was that which aimed at a "listing system," requiring citizens to fill out and swear to a full schedule of their property subject to taxation. Dissatisfaction with the tax laws was hardly mitigated by the action of the Legislature, and the subject continued to enter largely into public discussions. It was destined

to occupy a still larger share of attention in the Legislature of 1881 than in that of 1880.

The subject of regulating railroad traffic was brought before the Legislature by the report of the Assembly investigating committee, of which A. B. Hepburn was the chairman. This committee had been appointed in 1879, and had conducted its inquiries during a large part of that year. The report, including all the evidence taken, filled four bulky volumes. The investigation had taken a wide range, and exhausted all questions of abuses and irregularities in management. The conclusions of the committee were that charges in regard to discriminations, special rates, secret rebates, "stock-watering," etc., were fully proved; that the necessity existed for restrictive legislation, and that the State had the requisite authority for bringing the corporations under the regulation of law. A series of six acts was submitted to the Legislature for its approval, as affording the measure of relief deemed of immediate importance. The first of these was an amendment of the general law of 1850 restricting the increase of their capital by railroad companies. It provides that an increase shall be made only when necessary to effect the legitimate purpose of raising new capital for construction or operation, and then only with the concurrence of two thirds of the stockholders and the approval of the State Engineer. The second provided that when two or more companies were consolidated, the stock capital of the resulting corporation should not be greater than the sum of the capitals of the companies of which it was formed. The agreement for a consolidation was also required to be subject to the approval of two thirds in interest of the stockholders. The third measure regulated voting at meetings of stockholders, and prohibited voting on proxies furnished by persons to whom stock had been pledged. The fourth was known as the "Anti-discrimination Bill," and required equal facilities under the same circumstances to be furnished to all customers on equal terms. It forbade discriminations between persons and all secret or special rates, and prohibited a higher charge for a shorter than for a longer distance. The fifth, known as the "Commission Bill," provided for three railroad commissioners, to have supervision over the operations of railroad companies, and to see that all laws in regard to them were enforced. The commissioners were required to make investigation of accidents and of complaints against the companies, and to make annual reports to the Legislature. The sixth of the bills submitted by the committee provided for fuller reports to be made by the railroad companies, specifying all the various items to be included. A supplementary report was afterward made in regard to the leasing of the elevated railroads in New York City, and a bill was submitted with it, intended to prevent a virtual "watering" of stock by the lease of the property of one or more companies

to another having no property of its own, but issuing and disposing of stock representing no outlay of capital.

Four of the six original bills were passed without material change, and with no very strenuous opposition, but the "Anti-discrimination" and "Commission" Bills were strongly opposed by the railroad interest, especially the former of the two. This opposition had much effect, particularly in the Senate. The Commission Bill, after being favorably dealt with in the Assembly in the first stages of its progress, was unaccountably defeated on the third reading, and a motion to reconsider, of which notice was given, never came to a vote. So this measure did not reach the Senate. The Anti-discrimination Bill passed the Assembly, but in the Senate was so far modified as to make it unacceptable to the former body. It was finally sent to a conference committee which failed to agree, and it was therefore lost at the close of the session. The supplementary bill in regard to leases passed the Assembly, but in the Senate was sent to a committee which never reported it.

The question of railroad regulation continued to be a prominent topic of public discussion throughout the year, the Chamber of Commerce of New York City taking an energetic part in support of the policy of regulation.

The other legislation of the session was unimportant. The resolution proposing an amendment of the Constitution for biennial sessions of the Legislature failed in the Senate. There were some minor changes made in the election laws. Among these were the requirement of separate ballots for "county" and "judicial" officers, and a provision for uniformity in the ballots, requiring them to be of plain white paper, without distinguishing marks, and printed in plain type and black ink, with a caption "in one straight line, in black ink, with plain type of the size now generally known and designated as 'great primer Roman condensed capitals.'"

The State Comptroller addressed to the Governor the following charges regarding the management of the Binghamton Asylum:

STATE OF NEW YORK, COMPTROLLER'S OFFICE, }
ALBANY, April 23, 1880. }

To his Excellency A. B. Cornell, Governor, &c.

SIR: The very large appropriation asked for by the Trustees of the Binghamton Asylum for the Chronic Insane, greatly in excess of the sum originally thought sufficient to make the necessary alterations in the Inebriate Asylum building to fit it for its new uses, having attracted my attention, I requested Mr. Letchworth, President of the State Board of Charities, and Mr. Gallien, the Deputy-Comptroller, to proceed to Binghamton and make an examination of the expenditures of the said board. I have the honor to submit their report.

I have carefully considered the facts therein mentioned, and have arrived at the following conclusions:

1. The Trustees have violated the law, in that they have departed materially from the plans approved by the State Board of Charities, and have neglected to submit for approval other plans, specifications, and estimates involving large expenditures.

2. They have violated the law in that they did not do the work by contract, but by day's work.

3. They have violated the law, in that they have expended largely in excess of the original appropriation, and have contracted for work in excess of the appropriation.

4. They have violated the law in that they have agreed by resolution to pay the architect and building superintendent in excess of the six dollars per day provided by the statute.

5. The entire management has been careless, reckless, and of an exceedingly extravagant nature, an economical disbursement of the State's moneys seemingly being lost sight of entirely. It is intended gradually to enlarge the asylum to the capacity of 1,500 inmates. Large amounts of money must annually be expended to accomplish that end. An economical and judicious application of these sums rests entirely upon the management of the Trustees. In fact, the whole financial success of the institution depends upon them.

In view of the facts brought out in the joint report of Mr. Letchworth and Mr. Gallien, I do not see how the future success of the institution can be attained under the present management. I therefore recommend the removal of the Trustees appointed by virtue of chapter 208, laws of 1879.

With great respect,

J. W. WADSWORTH, Comptroller.

The matter was submitted to the Senate by the Governor in the following communication, but no action was taken:

STATE OF NEW YORK, EXECUTIVE CHAMBER, }
April 23, 1880. }

To the Senate:

Your attention is respectfully called to the accompanying letter of the Comptroller, charging Alvin Devereux, William S. Smith, Edward D. Van Slyck, Garvis Pierce, William E. Knight, Samuel I. Halliday, Rodney C. Ford, Erastus Root, and Frederick O. Cable, as Trustees of the Binghamton Asylum for the Chronic Insane, appointed pursuant to chapter 208 of the laws of 1879, with violations of law and extravagance in the management of the official trust confided to them, in the manner and instances set forth and specified therein. The report of the Deputy-Comptroller and President of the State Board of Charities in reference to the same subject is herewith submitted.

Assuming from the official reports above mentioned that the charges referred to are true, you are hereby recommended to remove the said Trustees.

ALONZO B. CORNELL.

The Republican party of the State opened the political campaign early, with an apparent purpose of giving direction and impetus to the Presidential canvass. The State Committee, after consultation, called the Convention for the appointment of delegates to the national nominating assembly, to be held at Utica, on the 25th of February. The following resolutions were adopted at the opening of the proceedings on that occasion:

Resolved, That the delegates from the several Congressional districts be empowered to nominate and report for the action of the Convention Presidential electors for their respective districts, and that the State Committee be empowered to fill any vacancies which may hereafter occur in the electoral ticket, and that the committee be appointed by the Chair for the purpose of reporting the names of delegates at large also report the names of two electors at large.

Before any nominations or appointments were made, the following was submitted by the committee on resolutions:

The Republicans of the State of New York, assem-

bled to appoint delegates to represent them in the National Convention, reaffirm the principles and patriotic purposes of the Republican party, heretofore declared and faithfully acted upon, and deeply impressed with the responsibility now devolved upon them, declare the safety of the nation is again imperiled by the virulent and unlawful efforts of the Democratic party to overawe State governments, as represented by the conduct of its leaders in Maine, and in several of the Southern States, thereby intending to secure control of the General Government by deeds of violence and fraud and in defiance of the carefully constituted judicial authorities. In the presence of these graver and threatening dangers, it is the duty of the Republican party, in its united strength, to meet and prevent them; and to this end, mindful of their great responsibility in the coming Presidential contest, and of the fact that it must be determined by the electoral vote of this State, the Republicans of New York hereby solemnly pledge to the Republicans of other States their ability to cast it for Ulysses S. Grant. We declare that in him we repose absolute trust for his honesty, his fidelity to duty, his serene judgment and solid intelligence, his varied experiences, and for the uniform success that has ever attended his efforts in securing the integrity, perpetuity, grandeur, and prosperity of our common country. For these reasons and because we are satisfied with him, the nation North and South decidedly greet the candidate deserving its confidence. We present him as entitled to the suffrages of every patriotic citizen. We also declare the objection to a third Presidential term applies only to a third consecutive term and is utterly inapplicable to the reelection of General Grant, who is and has been a private citizen, absent from the country, destitute of all Presidential or official influence or patronage, and whose election must be by the free choice of the people, unaided by those influences which alone give force, if any there be, to that objection: therefore,

Resolved, That the Republicans of New York believe the renomination of Ulysses S. Grant, as a Presidential candidate, is of urgent importance, and the delegates this day appointed are called upon and instructed to use their most earnest and united efforts to secure his nomination.

An amendment was offered, substituting the name of James G. Blaine for that of General Grant, and striking out the reference to the third term. This was afterward modified so as to leave the delegates to the National Convention unpledged, and, after a lively discussion, was in that form rejected by a vote of 180 yeas to 217 nays. The resolution was then adopted with the preamble as reported. The list of delegates at large, submitted by the committee appointed for that purpose, and of district delegates as selected by the representatives from the districts, was adopted by the Convention as a whole. The delegates at large were Roscoe Conkling, Alonzo B. Cornell, Chester A. Arthur, and James D. Warren. The candidates for electors and members of the State Committee were also approved as reported, and the State Committee was empowered to fill vacancies in its own membership.

The Democratic Convention was held at Syracuse, on the 20th of April. An attempt had previously been made in the city of New York to secure a united delegation from the "regular" and "Tammany" organizations to a proposition emanating from a body called the "Democratic Union." The General Committee of the regular organization sent a reply inclosing the following resolution:

Whereas, In the judgment of this committee, every honorable means should be adopted to promote the union and consolidation of the Democracy; but the unconditional support of candidates nominated by National and State Conventions, convened in accordance with the time-honored usages of the Democratic party, is a cardinal principle and obligation imposed upon every Democratic organization; and

Whereas, To recognize and negotiate with any faction that arrogates to itself the privilege of violating this essential rule of political action would be a dangerous precedent and a fatal concession: therefore,

Resolved, That we disapprove of any arrangement that necessarily involves the responsibility of introducing into the National or State Conventions delegates from any organization which threatens to dispute their authority and repudiate their candidates. Whenever such organization consents to unite with the regular Democracy in the unreserved support of national and State candidates, this committee will be prepared cordially to arrange the terms and conditions upon which Democratic coöperation and harmony can be secured and perpetuated.

The Tammany organization took no part in the State Convention, but, at a gathering of its own, appointed delegates to the Democratic National Convention. At the regular Convention, delegates to Cincinnati were appointed, candidates for Presidential electors were nominated, and the following platform was adopted:

The Democratic party of New York renew their fidelity to the principles set forth by the National Democratic Convention at St. Louis, and approved by decisive popular majorities in the Presidential election of 1876. The victory then won was in the name and for the sake of reform. The people were defrauded of the fruits of that victory by a false count of the electoral votes. Reform throughout the Federal Administration is still an imperative necessity. It yet remains for a truly national party to restore the national Government to the fraternal spirit, the constitutional principles, the frugal expenditure, and the administrative purity of the fathers of the republic. But the Democratic party of New York also declare their settled conviction that the success of that conspiracy against the people's constitutional sovereignty, which by perjuries, forgeries, bribes, and violence, in effect, disfranchised 4,300,316 voting citizens—a large majority of all—and which, by a false count of the electoral votes, reversed the result of the last Presidential election, compels the next to turn upon a single commanding issue. That issue precedes and dwarfs every other. It imposes a more sacred duty upon the people of this Union than ever addressed the consciences of a nation of freemen. That duty is to vindicate the right of the people to elective self-government; that is, whether this generation shall condemn or sanction the wrong-doing of those Republican party leaders who four years ago frustrated the people's deliberate will and cheated them of their choice in the supreme act of their sovereignty; whether we shall preserve and transmit to coming generations our own glorious political heritage, or paralyze the cause of popular sovereignty here and throughout the world. Despite a century of broadening precedents, despite the guarantees of the Declaration of Independence, of every Bill of Rights, of the Federal Constitution, and of every State constitution, establishing the right of the people to govern themselves and to change their rulers at will, those party leaders nevertheless foisted a defeated candidate into the chair of the Chief Magistracy, there to administer the government according to a policy condemned by the people, through ministers repudiated by the people, every one of whom, contrivers, abettors, advocates, and apologists, all were straightway rewarded for their several shares in the conspiracy of fraud by the foremost beneficiary of that unexampled political crime. Republics can not shirk the care of their own

destinies. A government of the people, for the people, must be a government by the people. The lawful exercise and orderly transfer of the people's power, through successive administrations of government preserved by the people's choice, is the fundamental condition of a representative Democratic republic. It is the political object for which constitutions and laws are framed. It is the first of popular rights, for, besides being the greatest of them, it is the one without which the others can not exist. It is that for which a republic is anywhere preferred above a monarchy, where the transfer is by hereditary succession, as an escape from usurped magistracies and civil wars. It is the substance of civil liberty. As for democracy (the people's rule), the people's right to rule, it is the very breath of its life.

This, then, is the momentous issue, the right of the people to exercise and enjoy an elective self-government, without impediment by force or fraud from any quarter, least of all by fraud and force from their temporary but discarded servants. Shall the conspiracy of 1876 be sanctioned as a precedent by the impunity of its authors and the submission of its victims? Its victims are the honest citizens of all political parties. To destroy and stigmatize that corrupting precedent, by inflicting a fatal blow upon the Republican party, whose recognized and rewarded leaders were guilty of it, is the supreme duty of the American people. Neglected now, in the nature of the case, it is lost for ever. Not now to make that crime odious, is to invite its repetition. The polluting infamy, unpunished, sanctioned, must go on demoralizing all political parties, putting their leadership at the mercy of brigands, and infecting their healthful contentions with disease and death. The character, the future, of this republic are all at stake in the next Presidential election.

The Democratic party of New York add to their condemnation of the electoral conspiracy of 1876 an emphatic declaration of their continued confidence in the character, ability, and fitness of that distinguished citizen of New York who was then elected to the highest office in the people's gift, and who was, in his own person, the object of their joint attack on his party, his fellow-citizens, and the cause of free government. The blow which deprived the country of its chosen ruler was not aimed so much at him as at the Democratic millions who stood behind him. While making no instructions as to candidates, and committing to our delegates, as heretofore, the duty of joining in the deliberations of the National Convention, we respectfully suggest to our brethren of other States that the dignity and welfare of the party and nation demand of them that they take such action as shall best present this great issue to the people. Higher than all other party duties is the solemn obligation to give to the free voters of the land an opportunity to pass their judgment upon this monstrous crime against popular rights. On any such issue the State of New York will speak with no doubtful voice.

The Democratic party of New York hereby readopt their resolutions adopted in the State Conventions of 1864, 1868, 1872, and 1876, as follows:

Resolved, That the delegates to the Democratic National Convention, to be appointed, are hereby instructed to enter that Convention as a unit, and to act and vote as a unit, in accordance with the will of a majority of the members thereof; and, in case any of its members shall be appointed a delegate by any other organization, and shall not forthwith, in writing, decline such appointment, his seat shall be regarded as vacated, and the delegates shall proceed to fill the same; and it is hereby also empowered to supply all vacancies by death, absence, resignation, or otherwise.

And whereas, the Democratic party of this State has, in the last four national contests, instructed its delegations to the Democratic National Conventions to enter the Convention as a unit for the purpose of protecting itself thereby against fictitious and fraudulent contests of the seats of the regularly-appointed delegates; therefore,

Resolved, That in case any attempt should be made

to dismember or divide the delegation by contesting the seats of a portion of the delegates, and any of the delegates appointed by this Convention should countenance such attempt by assuming to act separately from the majority of the delegation appointed by this Convention, or to enter the National Convention separately from such majority, or should fail to cooperate with such majority, the seats of such delegates shall be deemed to be vacated.

Before the time for holding the Republican National Convention arrived, there were indications of a revolt of several of the State delegates against the instructions of the Convention at Utica. Their position and claims are sufficiently indicated by the following statement of one of their number, which was communicated in the form of a letter to the editor of the Albany "Journal":

ALBANY, May 6, 1880.

To the Editor of the Albany Evening Journal:

May I avail myself of the columns of the "Journal" for reply to inquiries of friends from various parts of the State in regard to my course as a delegate to the Chicago Convention? The last Republican National Convention held that where a State Convention had instructed its delegation to vote as a unit, each delegate had the right to vote for his individual preference. With Republicans that decision is final, and the Utica Convention had no power to overrule it. As well might the General Term of the Supreme Court reverse the judgment of the Court of Appeals.

The delegates at large are bound by the instructions of the State Convention. The district delegates are under no such obligation. A district delegate should represent the wishes of the Republicans of his district.

The Republicans of my district, with great unanimity, prefer James G. Blaine as the Republican candidate for the Presidency, and with them, in this respect, I am in full accord.

On the first roll-call at Chicago, and on each subsequent one till a nomination shall be made, I shall vote for James G. Blaine.

I shall vote for him because he is the choice of the Republicans of the district which I represent.

I shall vote for him because to-day he is, in my judgment, the strongest and most popular Republican living, and these qualities it will be well for the Convention to consider in making its choice, as on the election of the nominee will depend, to a great extent, the nation's welfare.

I shall vote for him because, if elected, he will make a safe and wise ruler. Under his Administration all rebellion will begin and continue to respect the Government, and the country will enter upon a career of prosperity and greatness hitherto unknown.

Yours, truly, W. H. ROBERTSON.

Judge Robertson's lead was followed by three of his colleagues in the State Senate, who made oral statement of their purposes in that body under the guise of "personal explanations."

The Democratic State Committee, at a meeting held in New York on July 21st, adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That this committee, while disclaiming any right to interfere in any purely local differences, if such exist among Democrats in any part of the State, particularly where such differences are due to strenuous rivalry in support of State and national candidates of the party, yet hopes that in all parts of the State the voice of dissension may be hushed, and impulses to cordial cooperation encouraged, to the end that, irrespective of past differences, the undivided strength of the party may contribute to success against the common enemy of administrative reform, better

government, and the restoration of fraternal love among our countrymen.

The death of Chief-Judge Church, of the Court of Appeals, occasioned the necessity of choosing his successor at the election in November, and the parties were called upon to nominate candidates for the office. The Republican State Committee, at a meeting held in New York on August 24th, decided not to call a convention for this purpose, but to put in nomination on its own responsibility Charles J. Folger, who had already been appointed by the Governor as Judge Church's successor. The proposition to hold a convention was negated by a vote of five to twenty-six, and then the following resolution was adopted unanimously:

Whereas, The general sense of the Republican party is opposed to a State Convention, for the reasons, among others, that the time occupied in the selection of delegates to a State Convention would disturb and retard the work of the campaign, already auspiciously begun, and that the character of Charles J. Folger dictates his nomination for the high place he now occupies, and no other name would be acceptable to the Republican party; therefore be it

Resolved, That, in compliance with the sentiment of the Republican party, the State Committee places in nomination for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals Charles J. Folger, of Ontario.

The Democratic State Committee, after some consideration of the matter, concluded to call a State Convention, being somewhat moved thereto by the determination of Mr. John Kelly, of New York, and the committee of the Tammany organization, to hold a convention if the regular party organization did not. The Convention was held at Saratoga on September 28th, and represented a union of the two factions. Charles A. Rapallo was nominated for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, and the following was adopted as a platform:

The Democrats of the State of New York, in convention assembled, reaffirm the declaration of principles made at the late Convention of 1879, and ratify the resolutions adopted by the Democratic National Convention at Cincinnati. The Democrats of New York hereby pledge the thirty-five electoral votes of this State to Hancock for President and English for Vice-President, and we hereby express the confidence that the next Federal Administration will be conducted by constitutional methods; that the right of local self-government in the States will be respected; that industry will be relieved from the weight of unequal taxation; that American commerce will again be carried forward under the American flag; and that the union of these States will once more find its perfect and sure defense in the affection of all the people.

The Democrats of New York congratulate their brethren upon the prospect which now exists of success throughout the whole country, and we think ourselves justified in claiming that the result is in part due to the manner in which we have maintained and applied democratic principles and methods of administration in our own State.

Resolved, That the death of Sanford E. Church, Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, has caused a grave loss to the court over which he presided, and has deprived the Democratic party of one of its most trusted and wisest counselors. We express our admiration for his great talents and exalted character, and will cherish his memory as a priceless heritage to the people of the State.

The union of the two Democratic factions

was maintained until after the election, their differences being reconciled in New York City, where they chiefly existed, by an agreement upon a division of the local nominations between the Tammany Hall and Irving Hall organizations. The candidate for Mayor of the city, Mr. William R. Grace, was selected by the Tammany Committee from a list of names submitted by that of the Irving Hall Democrats. The selection proved far more satisfactory to the Tammany faction than to the other, and many of the latter, together with the great body of independent voters, joined with the Republicans in support of William Dowd for Mayor. The local contest turned largely on the public-school question and the fact that Mr. Grace was a Roman Catholic, and it was probably not without effect on the State and national elections.

The total vote cast for Presidential electors on November 2d was 1,105,226. Of these, 555,544 were for the Republican, 534,511 for the Democratic, 12,373 for the "Greenback," and 1,517 for the Prohibitory ticket. There were 80 votes for the Antimasonic candidates, and 1,201 returned as "scattering." The Republican plurality over the Democratic vote was 21,033; majority over all, 5,862. The vote for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals was 1,094,134, of which Folger received 562,821, Rapallo 517,661, Armstrong, Greenback candidate, 13,183, and 469 were "scattering." Folger's plurality was 44,160. An amendment of the Constitution was voted upon and ratified by a majority of 110,678 out of a total vote of 333,128. The vote for Mayor in New York City was 101,760 for Grace, and 98,715 for Dowd, making the plurality of the former 3,045.

The constitutional amendment which was ratified provided for detailing Judges of the Superior and Common Pleas Courts of New York and the City Court of Brooklyn to hold special terms of the Supreme Court in their districts, and for the continuation of the salaries of Judges of the Supreme Court and Court of Appeals who are forced to retire by reason of being seventy years of age before the expiration of the term for which they were elected, provided they have served on the bench ten years, such continuation to be only for the unexpired term.

CHARLES J. FOLGER, who was elected Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, was born in Massachusetts, April 16, 1818. At the age of fourteen years he removed with his parents from Nantucket to Geneva, New York, where he entered Hobart College, graduating in 1836. He studied law at Canandaigua, and was admitted to the bar by the Supreme Court at Albany in 1839. After practicing a short time at Lyons, he finally settled down at Geneva in 1840. In 1844 he was chosen Judge of the Court of Common Pleas in Ontario County, and Master and Examiner in Chancery, positions which were abolished by the remodeling

of the judiciary by the Constitution of 1846. In 1851 he was elected County Judge in Ontario, and held the position four years. He was elected to the State Senate in 1861, and served in that body continuously until 1869, taking a prominent part in the important legislation of that period. In 1869 he accepted the position of Assistant Treasurer of the United States at New York. In 1871 he was elected to the bench of the Court of Appeals as one of the Associate Judges for the full term of fourteen years. On the death of Chief-Judge Church, he was appointed by Governor Cornell to fill the vacancy until the election which confirmed him in the position.

About two weeks before the election considerable excitement was produced by the publication in New York City of the following letter, alleged to have been written by the Republican candidate for the Presidency:

[PERSONAL AND CONFIDENTIAL.]

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
WASHINGTON, D. C., January 23, 1880. }

DEAR SIR: Yours in relation to the Chinese problem came duly to hand.

I take it that the question of employees is only a question of private and corporate economy, and individuals or companies have the right to buy labor where they can get it cheapest.

We have a treaty with the Chinese Government which should be religiously kept until its provisions are abrogated by the action of the General Government, and I am not prepared to say that it should be abrogated until our great manufacturing and corporate interests are conserved in the matter of labor.

Very truly yours, J. A. GARFIELD.

H. L. MOREY, Employers' Union, Lynn, Massachusetts.

General Garfield at once denounced this as a forgery, but a *fac-simile* of the manuscript having been printed, a prominent member of the Democratic National Committee, who was familiar with General Garfield's handwriting, publicly expressed the opinion that it was genuine. It was widely circulated by the committee and the press, and occasioned much bitter controversy. Shortly before the election, an *attaché* of the newspaper in which the letter first appeared was arrested on a charge of forging it, and an investigation was begun by the Court of Oyer and Terminer in New York. Evidence was produced to the effect that there was no such person as H. L. Morey, of Lynn, and tending plainly to show that this letter had been concocted and a forgery committed for political effect. The accused was held for trial, but a *nolle prosequi* was subsequently entered in the case. One of the witnesses who testified to the genuineness of the letter was, however, convicted of perjury and sentenced to eight years' imprisonment.

Controversy in regard to the power of the Mayor of the city of New York to remove the heads of executive departments, which began in 1879, continued during a greater part of this year. The charter of the city provides for such removals by the Mayor, on charges and after a hearing, subject to the approval of the Gov-

error of the State. Mayor Cooper had removed certain of the police commissioners, and, while giving them an opportunity to answer the charges against them in person, had refused to hear counsel or to make a judicial investigation of his charges. In the case of one of the commissioners, Mr. Sidney P. Nichols, whose removal had received the approval of the Governor in April, 1879, the matter was carried into the courts by an application for a writ of *certiorari* for his reinstatement. This and other cases involving the Mayor's power of removal were in litigation for several months, and there was much conflict of judicial opinion and decision; but the Court of Appeals decided that the Mayor was bound to conduct a judicial inquiry, hearing evidence and argument, before he could remove the officials against whom his charges were directed. This virtually determined the controversy in favor of the commissioners and against the Mayor.

The financial condition of the State is declared by the Governor to be "eminently satisfactory." The following statement exhibits the transactions of the financial department for the fiscal year, and the general condition of the State Treasury on the 30th of September:

Aggregate balances in the Treasury of all the funds, October 1, 1879.....	\$4,518,356 41
Aggregate receipts during the fiscal year ending September 30.....	11,835,570 93
Total.....	\$16,353,927 34
Payments during the year.....	12,905,711 96
Balance in the Treasury September 30....	\$3,448,215 38
Amount of receipts into the Treasury on account of the general fund revenue during the year.....	\$5,859,566 20
Payments.....	6,290,418 91
Apparent deficiency, September 30.....	\$430,852 71
Balances due from county Treasurers, September 30, on State tax of 1879.....	\$222,606 92
Add amount paid on account of 1880 appropriations, included in tax levy, payable into the State Treasury in April and May, 1881, of which \$590,000 are for New Capitol....	1,069,065 39
Total.....	\$1,231,672 31
Deduct apparent deficiency of the revenue, September 30, as shown in preceding statement.....	\$430,852 71
Also balances of 1879 appropriations unpaid, and in force September 30.....	208,059 99
	638,912 70
Actual surplus September 30, 1880.....	\$652,759 61

On the 30th of September, 1879, the total funded debt was \$9,122,054.87, classified as follows:

General fund (representing Indian annuities).....	\$122,694 87
Canal.....	8,958,360 00
Bounty.....	11,000 00
Total.....	\$9,122,054 87

On the 30th of September, 1880, the total funded debt was \$9,114,085.87, classified as follows:

General fund (representing Indian annuities).....	\$122,694 87
Canal.....	8,958,360 00
Bounty.....	3,000 00
Total.....	\$9,114,054 87

The general fund State debt is all paid, and the item of \$122,694.87 represents the amount required to yield at the rate of six per cent. the sum necessary to pay the Indian annuities. The balance of \$3,000, bounty debt, for which funds are provided, had not been presented for redemption at the close of the fiscal year. A balance of \$2,051,480.17 in the canal sinking fund leaves the amount of that debt, unprovided for, September 30, 1880, at \$6,936,879.83.

The State debt on September 30, 1879, after deducting the unapplied balances of the sinking fund, amounted to.....	\$7,659,426 89
On September 30, 1880 (including \$122,694 87), to.....	7,050,574 70

Showing net contributions to sinking fund of The actual reduction of the debt during the same period by cancellation being.....	\$599,851 69
	8,000 00

The total valuation of property in the State for purposes of taxation is \$2,637,869,235, and the State tax levy for 1880-'81 is three and a half mills on the dollar.

The revenues of the canals for the year ending September 30, 1880, were as follows:

Tolls.....	\$1,188,852 74
Rent of surplus water.....	2,177 03
Miscellaneous.....	14,604 81
Total.....	\$1,200,134 63
Total expenses for ordinary repairs, superintendence, and collection of tolls.....	889,015 84

Surplus revenues of the canals for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1880.....	\$311,118 79
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A comparison with the previous year shows the following results:

A gain in revenue of.....	\$278,881 82
Increase in expenses.....	137,241 02
Gain in net revenue.....	\$141,640 80

The amount necessary to meet the constitutional requirements in regard to the canal debt for the year is as follows:

For interest on canal debt.....	\$538,902 00
For the sinking fund.....	450,000 00
Total.....	\$988,902 00
Surplus revenue realized.....	311,118 79

Deficiency for year ending September 30, 1880.....	\$677,783 21
Add deficiency in tax in 1879.....	24,507 46
Add for interest on these deficiencies until the same can be realized from taxes.....	56,207 25

Total amount to be supplied by tax.....	\$758,797 92
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The canals were suddenly closed by ice in November, and more than one thousand boats were arrested in their passage. Of these, 746 were loaded with grain for tidewater, containing approximately six million bushels.

The record of the calendar year showed an increase of 20½ per cent. in the tonnage of canal traffic, and 22½ per cent. in tolls. The following shows the tolls and tonnage for the last four years:

CANALS.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
Tolls.....	\$880,896	\$993,348	\$941,574	\$1,155,257
Tonnage.....	4,955,953	5,171,320	5,362,372	6,402,220

The total number of miles of railroad in the State is 9,186, of which 477 miles are horse-

railways. This includes the elevated railroads in the city of New York. The steam surface-roads have cost \$695,525,828.48, the horse-railways \$40,686,946.64, and the elevated roads \$33,038,332.12, a total of \$770,251,107.24. The steam surface-roads carried 47,197,385 passengers during the year, the horse-roads 244,900,717, and the elevated roads 60,831,757. The steam surface-roads also carried 57,356,128 tons of freight. Their aggregate earnings were \$108,965,556.04, operating expenses \$64,996,989.54, leaving as net earnings \$43,968,566.50, or 64 per cent. on the cost. The earnings of horse-railroads amounted to \$13,449,121.87; cost of operating, \$9,157,457.28; net earnings, \$4,291,664.59, or 10½ per cent. of cost. Earnings of elevated roads, \$4,612,975.56; expense of operating, \$2,644,525.24; surplus, \$1,968,650.32, or about six per cent. on the cost. It is a noteworthy fact that, notwithstanding the large number of passengers carried by the elevated railways in New York City, the horse-railways carried a larger number, and showed a larger aggregate of receipts, than in 1877, when these structures were not yet in operation, with the exception of the unimportant line on the extreme west side of the city. The total paid-up capital of all the steam-railroad companies of the State is \$516,934,587.91; of the horse-railroad companies, \$211,702,857.94; total funded debt of steam-roads, \$361,270,474.59; of horse-roads, \$16,706,708.08; floating debt of steam-roads, \$27,302,156.22; of horse-roads, \$1,584,638.19. The aggregate of stock and debts is \$905,507,218.72 for steam and \$42,990,204.21 for horse-roads, but of the former only \$662,871,488.93 represents roads within the limits of the State.

There were 68 banks of discount and deposit doing business under the laws of the State on the 1st of October, at which date their condition was as follows:

Resources.....	\$99,850,755
Capital.....	18,738,200
Surplus profits.....	8,058,280
Due depositors.....	61,795,773
Other liabilities.....	11,258,502

During the year deposits increased \$9,536,184; profits, \$821,715; loans and discounts, \$12,328,180. The net aggregate increase in assets was \$13,157,573. Six banks closed during the year, four of which went into voluntary liquidation, one was converted into a national bank, and one failed. One new banking association was formed during the year.

One hundred and twenty-eight savings-banks reported July 1, 1880, eleven of which do not receive deposits and have only a nominal existence. Three went into voluntary liquidation, paying depositors in full.

The aggregate resources of these institutions amounted, on the 1st of January, 1881, to \$400,944,380. This includes a surplus of \$47,099,094, the deposits amounting to \$353,625,657. This is an increase for the year of \$34,371,156, and is larger by many millions than ever before known in the history of these in-

stitutions. The increase of surplus for the year is \$12,317,142, and of number of depositors, 89,237. The whole number of depositors was 953,707, which is greater by more than seventy thousand than in any previous year.

Of trust, loan, and mortgage companies, twelve institutions are in operation, having \$11,377,375 capital and \$96,713,717 of resources. Also eight corporations for the safe keeping and guarantee of personal property, with aggregate capital of \$1,376,900.

There are 167 fire-insurance companies doing business in the State, of which 87 are organized under its laws, 58 belong to other States, and 22 are foreign. Their total assets are \$143,248,869; liabilities, including capital stock, \$94,107,073; surplus, \$49,146,966; gross income for the year, \$60,548,160; gross expenses, \$58,822,513. Of life-insurance companies, there are twelve organized under the laws of the State, with \$202,562,831 of assets and \$169,675,366 of liabilities, and nineteen belonging to other States, whose assets are \$198,952,961, and liabilities, \$166,562,705. There are eighteen marine insurance companies, seven of which are organized under the laws of the State, and their assets are \$20,147,902, the surplus over liabilities amounting to \$3,565,707; and four casualty insurance companies, with \$1,800,000 of assets and a net surplus of \$271,000.

The amount expended on the new Capitol at Albany during the year was \$1,251,989.02, and \$421,180.60 of funds remained in the hands of the commissioners.

The public-school statistics for the year ending with September 30th are as follows:

Total receipts, including balance on hand September 30, 1879.....	\$11,390,888 16
Total expenditures.....	10,296,977 26
Amount paid for teachers' wages.....	7,638,921 88
Amount paid for schoolhouses, repairs, furniture, etc.....	1,145,881 15
Estimated value of schoolhouses and sites.....	80,747,509 00
Number of schoolhouses.....	11,899
Number of school districts, exclusive of cities.....	11,263
Number of teachers employed for the legal term of school.....	20,596
Number of teachers employed during any portion of the year.....	80,780
Number of children attending public schools.....	1,081,598
Number of persons attending normal schools.....	5,753
Number of children of school age in private schools.....	108,567
Number of volumes in school-district libraries.....	735,653
Number of persons in the State between the ages of five and twenty-one years.....	1,641,173

The property, real and personal, held for charitable purposes in the State, may be set down in round numbers as follows:

By State institutions.....	\$6,900,000 00
By cities and counties.....	6,200,000 00
By incorporated associations.....	21,900,000 00
Total.....	\$35,000,000 00

The total expenditure during the year for the support of the several charitable institutions, public and private, reached about eight million dollars. The average number of beneficiaries was approximately as follows:

In State institutions.....	4,800
In city and county institutions.....	15,700
In incorporated benevolent institutions.....	24,200
Total.....	44,700

The total number of insane persons in the several State and local asylums, poor-houses, and private asylums, for the years stated, was as follows:

October 1, 1880.....	9,548
October 1, 1879.....	9,015
October 1, 1878.....	8,771
October 1, 1877.....	7,921

The average annual increase of insane for the four years was 400 persons. The Buffalo asylum, which has been so far completed as to accommodate 300 patients, cost about \$1,250,000, or more than \$4,000 for each inmate.

The average number of prisoners in the Clinton, Auburn, and Sing Sing Prisons for the last three years is as follows:

1878-'79.....	8,379
1879-'80.....	8,062
1880-'81.....	2,970

The earnings and expenditures of the several State Prisons for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1880, were as follows:

SING SING.	
Earnings.....	\$217,028 69
Expenses.....	184,277 69
Surplus.....	\$32,751 00
AUBURN.	
Earnings.....	\$114,925 00
Expenses.....	130,103 75
Deficiency.....	\$15,183 75
CLINTON.	
Earnings.....	\$54,952 46
Expenses.....	90,606 69
Deficiency.....	\$35,654 23
	50,837 98
Total deficiency.....	\$18,086 98

There were about 500 inmates at the Elmira Reformatory during the year. The cost of maintenance was \$81,338, while the earnings amounted to \$62,657, leaving a deficiency of \$18,681.

The organized militia or "National Guard" of the State comprises six divisions, eleven brigades, twenty-one regiments, five battalions, and thirty-six separate companies of infantry, eight troops of cavalry, and ten batteries of artillery; in all, 18,102 officers and enlisted men.

The number of passengers arriving at the port of New York from foreign ports during the year was 372,880. Of these, 327,371 were aliens, and 320,607 were steerage-passengers. The increase of arrivals over 1879 was 186,611. Of the total immigrant arrivals, 112,119 went to the Western States and 63,368 to the Eastern States, while 137,561 remained in New York State. The Southern States drew but 6,497, and Canada 1,627. The distribution of immigrants in some other States was as follows: Illinois, 32,641; Wisconsin, 9,847; Ohio, 18,869; Iowa, 7,649; Minnesota, 12,640; Ne-

braska, 4,237; Michigan, 11,303; Kansas, 3,546. The monthly arrivals of immigrants for the year were as follows: January, 5,677; February, 7,904; March, 21,094; April, 45,578; May, 55,084; June, 42,027; July, 25,382; August, 25,321; September, 26,942; October, 30,702; November, 18,904; December, 15,992. Their nationalities were as follows:

Germany.....	104,264	Hungary.....	6,672
Ireland.....	66,399	Denmark.....	5,577
England.....	33,768	Austria.....	4,461
Sweden.....	85,217	France.....	4,087
Italy.....	11,190	Wales.....	8,583
Norway.....	9,937	Netherlands.....	3,259
Scotland.....	9,625	Belgium.....	1,309
Switzerland.....	8,223	West Indies.....	1,293
Russia.....	7,693	Spain.....	991
Bohemia.....	7,606		

It costs the State about \$200,000 a year to attend to the needs of arriving immigrants. The Board of Commissioners aid them in reaching their destination and in obtaining employment and care for the sick and temporarily helpless at the institutions on Ward's Island, where 3,933 persons were received during the year. There were remaining on the 1st of December 337 sick inmates in the hospital, 115 insane in the asylum, 85 cripples and 42 children at the Refuge. The Castle Garden Labor Bureau found employment for 39,942 applicants during the year. The Board of Commissioners has incurred a debt of \$353,575.88 in consequence of insufficient appropriations. The United States Government has been persistently urged for several years to relieve the State of the expense of caring for immigrants whose destination is the country at large rather than New York.

According to the Federal census, the State has 5,082,844 inhabitants, but the table of population by counties and classification has not been completed in time for insertion here. The cities of the State having more than 20,000 inhabitants are the following: New York, 1,206,590; Brooklyn, 566,689; Buffalo, 155,137; Albany, 90,903; Rochester, 89,747; Troy, 56,747; Syracuse, 51,791; Utica, 38,913; Watervliet, 22,220; Auburn, 21,924; Oswego, 21,117; Elmira, 20,541; Poughkeepsie, 20,207. According to a report of the Census Bureau, prepared by Robert Porter, the total valuation of property in the State is \$2,679,139,133, of which \$2,326,669,813 is for real estate, and \$352,469,320 for personal property. The same authority gives the aggregate of the bonded debt of counties as \$11,601,675.09; floating debt of counties, \$786,634.71; bonded debt of cities of 7,500 inhabitants and more, \$208,787,710.33; floating debt of the same, \$7,075,868.59; bonded debt of cities, villages, etc., of less than 7,500 inhabitants, \$1,781,950.95; floating debt of the same, \$29,771.55; bonded debt of towns, \$18,601,930.93; floating debt of towns, \$100,576.72; grand total of local indebtedness exclusive of school districts, \$248,766,118.87. The amount of taxation is presented as follows: State, \$4,940,600.18; county, \$6,204,517.24; cities of 7,500 inhabitants

and more, \$29,253,003.47; cities and villages of less than 7,500 inhabitants, \$843,238.54; town or townships, \$4,722,648.21; total, \$45,973,007.64, exclusive of a State school-tax of \$2,945,199.55, and not including school-district taxation. The statistics given for the city of New York in these matters are: valuation of real estate, \$1,049,340,336; personal property, \$197,532,075; total valuation, \$1,246,872,411; bonded debt, \$136,406,733.66; floating debt, \$6,039,966.41; total indebtedness, \$142,446,700.07; share of State tax, \$2,368,906.28; city tax, \$20,935,926.65; total taxation, exclusive of school, \$23,304,832.93; school-tax, \$1,382,155.91.

There were during the summer several disasters of an unusual character, closely connected with New York. On the night of June 11th the steamers Narragansett and Stonington, plying between New York City and Stonington, Connecticut, and connecting with railroad for Boston, came into collision in a fog near the mouth of the Connecticut River on Long Island Sound. The Narragansett took fire, and about fifty passengers lost their lives. In the afternoon of June 28th the steamer Seawanhaka, plying between New York and several towns on the north shore of Long Island, took fire on its way from the city when off College Point, and was run aground and burned to the water's edge. In this case also about fifty lives were lost, mostly by drowning. On the morning of July 21st a portion of the tunnel in course of construction under the Hudson River from Jersey City to New York caved in, and twenty workmen were suffocated and buried in the ruins. Several weeks were occupied in recovering the bodies and restoring the work to the condition it was in previous to the disaster.

The Hudson River Tunnel is intended to furnish the means of extending the railways which now terminate on the New Jersey side of the river to the heart of the city of New York. It is in process of construction by a company with \$10,000,000 capital, and consists of two shafts about twenty-five feet in diameter side by side and penetrating below the bed of the river. The excavation is carried on with the aid of compressed air, which keeps the soil and silt in position until a casing of iron is put in, within which the masonry of the tunnel is built. The beginning is made on either side of the river from an upright circular shaft which is connected with the horizontal shafts by an air-lock. The tunnel has been extended some hundreds of feet from the New Jersey side, and work has been begun on the New York side. The entire length will be about 12,000 feet; or one mile beneath the river, and nearly three quarters of a mile underground on either side.

NORTHBROOK, THOMAS GEORGE BARING, Earl of, first Lord of the Admiralty in the new English Ministry, was born in 1826, and received his education at Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated (second class in classics)

in 1846. He is the eldest son of the first Baron Northbrook, who was long known as Sir Francis Baring. He was successively private secretary to Mr. Labouchere at the Board of Trade, to Sir George Grey at the Home Office, to Sir Charles Wood at the India Board, and at the Admiralty till 1857, when he was returned to the House of Commons for Penryn and Falmouth, which constituency he continued to represent in the Liberal interest till he became a peer on the death of his father in 1866. He was a Lord of the Admiralty from May, 1857, to February, 1858. He has since held the following offices: Under-Secretary of State for India, from June, 1859, to January, 1861; Under-Secretary for War, from the latter date till June, 1866; and again under Mr. Gladstone, from December, 1868, until February, 1872, when he succeeded the late Lord Mayo as Viceroy and Governor-General of India. He resigned the viceroyalty in 1876, and was then advanced to the dignities of Viscount Baring and Earl of Northbrook.

NORTH CAROLINA. Governor Jarvis called the General Assembly together on the 21st of February to take action on a proposition of W. J. Best, of New York, and others, for the purchase of the State's interest in the Western North Carolina Railroad, and the speedy completion of the road. Of this railroad, the section running from Salisbury westward to Asheville, 148 miles in length, was practically completed. The other portions, consisting of two branches, forking at Asheville, about 200 miles in total length, had not been constructed. One of these runs from Asheville northward along the French Broad River to Paint Rock, near the Tennessee line, 45 miles. The other, or main line, known as the Ducktown line, runs southwestward for 135 miles to Murphy, the county-seat of Cherokee County, and thence across the State line to Ducktown, eighteen or twenty miles distant in the direction of Chattanooga. The proposition, as modified and perfected after extended conferences between the Governor and the contracting parties, was that the State should make a deed of its entire interest in the railroad property to the syndicate, consisting of W. J. Best, J. N. Tappan, W. R. Grace, and J. D. Fish, which instrument should be held in trust, and not be delivered until the completion of the railroad and the other stipulations of the contract are performed. The purchasers agree to construct the road to Paint Rock and the Ducktown line to Pigeon River before July 1, 1881, and to complete the line to Ducktown by January 1, 1885. They assume the \$850,000 first-mortgage bonds on which the State is paying interest from the date of the ratification of the act authorizing the sale. They are to be authorized to issue bonds for \$15,000 on every mile completed, deducting the \$850,000 already issued, on the guarantee of a conditional mortgage which can not be foreclosed until the railroad is completed

to Paint Rock and to Murphy. The State is to receive \$550,000 of these bonds to reimburse it for expenditures made since its purchase of the road in 1875. In case of failure to perform the requirements of the contract, if the State can not or does not choose to enforce specific performance, the entire division from Salisbury to Paint Rock is forfeited to the State, subject only to the lien resting upon it already, and a conditional mortgage which is not due until the road is completed to Murphy. The railroad when completed to Paint Rock will be worth, it is estimated, \$3,000,000. The purchasers agree not to discriminate against the cities and towns of North Carolina in the matter of transportation charges, nor favor any towns to the detriment of others. The State agrees to furnish 500 convicts to be employed in the construction of the railroad, for whose labor the syndicate is to pay to the State \$125 each, or \$62,500 altogether, per annum for five years. The Governor had been advised not to call a special session of the Legislature by a majority of the Board of Directors of the Western North Carolina Railroad, and by a majority of the Board of Internal Improvements. The representatives of the State in Congress favored the acceptance of the proposition of the New York capitalists. It was the first offer ever made to take the railroad out of the hands of the State and to complete it with private capital. The probable cost of the extra session, which need not last over ten days, was estimated at \$13,387. The advantages offered to the State by the proposition were the relief of the people from \$183,000 annual taxation, \$59,500 interest on the railroad bonds, \$70,000 for material used in the extension of the road, \$45,000 for the support of convicts, and \$8,500 or more for the expenses of collection, and the rapid completion by the investment of about \$4,000,000 of foreign capital of the railroad which was projected nearly thirty years ago, the discharge of the duty and engagements of the State to the inhabitants of the western counties, and the development of that valuable mineral region.

The charter for this railroad was first granted in the session of 1854-'55, and work was begun soon after. It was from the beginning the subject-matter of political discussion, and pledges for its speedy completion have been made by rival political parties in nearly every campaign. Prior to 1868 the State issued bonds for this work to the amount of \$4,000,000; \$1,300,000 were paid by counties and private parties; and the company issued mortgage bonds for nearly \$1,500,000. Before the purchase of the road by the State in 1875 as much as \$7,000,000 in cash, including the proceeds of the sale of \$6,640,000 of special tax-bonds, had passed through the hands of the officers of the company; and yet the construction had not advanced beyond Old Fort, in McDowell County. In 1875 the road was sold off at auction, the State bidding it in for \$850,-

000, for which amount 7 per cent. mortgage bonds payable in 1890 were issued, the interest being guaranteed and the coupons made receivable for taxes. The road was placed in the hands of a company in 1877, and considerable work has been done since the reorganization, the State providing the materials and a force of convict laborers averaging about 500. The cost to the State up to March 1, 1880, was as follows: for iron, etc., \$150,173; for interest, \$266,175; for support of convicts, \$140,031; total, \$556,379. From estimates prepared by the president of the company, there would be required within two years \$220,000 to repair the road between Salisbury and Asheville; \$650,000 would be needed to build and equip the road from Asheville to Painted Post, and \$5,330,000 to construct the Ducktown line; and the time required to complete both branches under existing laws would be thirty years. The net earnings of the completed portion in 1879 were \$22,157, not enough to keep the road in repair.

The General Assembly convened on the 15th of March, and adjourned on the 29th, after a session of thirteen days. The proposition of William J. Best had been submitted before the Governor convened the Assembly in the form of an engrossed bill. A redraft of the proposition was prepared and laid before the Legislature. In the new bill, besides a clearer statement of the terms of the contract, the principal change was a provision that in the case of default on the part of Best and his associates the State may take possession of and build and complete the roads as "by law may be directed," instead of the matter being subject to an arrangement between the State and Best. The bill passed both Houses on the eleventh day of the session. The principal amendment was one making the \$550,000 bonds issued to the State a prior and unconditional lien of the same standing with the existing bonds. Another change was a proviso that the existing laws regarding the construction of the roads with convict-labor should continue in force if the grantees should not commence work within the stipulated two months. Not much general legislation was transacted in the extra session. The tax paid by liquor-dealers was reduced, the road law was amended, and a number of special acts were passed.

The completion of the contract with the purchasers of the Western North Carolina Railroad depended upon the validity of the act of 1879 repealing the charter of the Western Division of the railroad, which was alleged to be legislation of such nature "as impairs the obligation of contracts" and deprives a person "of his property without due process of law." The question was brought before the United States Supreme Court for adjudication by W. W. Rollins, President of the Western Division. The decision was against the latter, the effect being to vest the franchises and property of the Western Division, including cash and bonds in the

hands of the officers of the extinct corporation, in the new company, subject to the claims of creditors of the Western Division, the remainder to be administered as a trust for the stockholders of the Western Division. The purchasers of the State's interest had fulfilled their obligations up to the close of the year, paying off the floating debt according to a later amendment of the bill authorizing the sale, the limit of the obligation being \$30,000, paying cash for the hire of the convicts, etc. The Paint Rock branch, when completed, will be, it is reported, a link in an extensive combination of railroads lately effected by capitalists of Richmond and other cities, taking in all the important lines of connection east of the Alleghany Mountains.

The Atlantic and North Carolina Railroad, which is under the control of the State, is in a prosperous condition, having been able to pay the interest on its bonded debt of \$195,500 and a judgment debt of \$37,474, and having in the two years paid cash for all purchases, and spent considerable sums in repairing its roadway and keeping up its rolling-stock. Several offers have been made for the lease of the road, of which that of the Wilmington and Weldon Railroad Company is favored by the stockholders. Of the stock of the Albemarle and Chesapeake Canal held by the State, in all \$350,000, \$100,000 has been exchanged for State bonds. The law authorizing the exchange expired January 1, 1880. The Cape Fear and Yadkin Railroad has been graded fifty miles beyond Greensboro. The sale of first-mortgage bonds, authorized in 1879, will probably be sufficient to equip the road to Greensboro; \$30,000 out of \$50,000 appropriated was paid out in adjusting the indebtedness of this road. For the hire of convicts employed in the construction, the State receives first-mortgage bonds.

Pursuant to an act ratified March 14, 1879, George Davis, Montford McGehee, and Donald W. Bain were appointed commissioners to settle the portion of the State debt represented by the construction bonds of the North Carolina Railroad. The compromise effected by them involves the issue of \$2,750,000 of new bonds in settlement, the authorization of which is dependent on the action of the Legislature. The State owns \$3,000,000 of the \$4,000,000 of stock of this railroad. The dividends on this stock were pledged for the payment of interest on the bonds. In 1868 the interest on the bonds remaining after the exchange of a portion for Raleigh and Gaston stock was funded. There were \$2,795,000 of these bonds then outstanding. In 1871 the road was leased to the Richmond and Danville Company, and by order of the Federal Court in the Swasey suit, the rental was applied to pay the interest on the bonds. The bonds fall due in 1883, 1884, and 1885. If the adjustment proposed is accepted and the lease continues, the State will derive a surplus income from the road of

\$12,000. If the road ceases to be paying, the amount of taxes to be raised for the payment of the interest will amount to \$170,000 annually.

The summary of the total receipts and expenditures of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1880, is as follows:

Total receipts.....	\$546,996 04
Total disbursements.....	492,720 33
Balance in favor of receipts.....	\$54,275 71

If all the expenses incurred in the quarter ending September 30th had been paid in that quarter, the balance in hand would not have been so great. It is likely, however, that as great an amount will not be paid in the quarter ending September 30, 1881, so that this need not alter any estimate. Among the items in the receipts were the following: Drummers' licenses, \$42,300; fertilizer licenses, \$24,000; general tax, including tax on banks, \$208,220.80; income-tax, \$2,602.48; Insane Asylum, special tax, \$94,241.15; Penitentiary, special tax, \$92,860.48; insurance companies, \$15,181.04; merchants' tax, \$18,256.21; sewing-machines, \$2,400; three fourths tax on purchases of liquors, \$12,329.49; Western North Carolina Railroad, \$10,041.67. The principal disbursements were as follows: Agricultural department, \$24,697.07; Cape Fear and Yadkin Valley Railroad, \$30,000; commutation for loss of eyesight, etc., \$1,370; fugitives from justice, \$1,315; convict account, \$9,083.62; General Assembly, \$17,695.70; Insane Asylum at Raleigh, support account, \$40,000; Western Insane Asylum at Morganton, \$30,000; Colored Insane Asylum at Goldsborough, \$22,500; Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institution, \$24,375; interest on mortgage bonds of the Western North Carolina Railroad, \$58,485; judiciary, \$38,213.83; outside lunatics, \$115; Oxford Orphan Asylum, \$3,000; Penitentiary, \$103,000; public printing, \$7,900.86; Western North Carolina Railroad, \$30,747.06. The gross amount of State taxes collected was \$431,687.92; school-taxes, \$342,290.68; county taxes, \$1,309,714.66.

The following is a statement showing the amount of receipts and disbursements of the public funds of the State for each fiscal year from 1868 to 1880, inclusive:

YEARS.	Receipts.	Disbursements.
1868.....	\$1,925,564 98	\$2,019,909 41
1869.....	8,550,877 62	8,687,428 97
1870.....	8,557,867 43	8,454,214 10
1871.....	568,147 88	645,579 97
1872.....	654,476 21	628,532 70
1873.....	481,224 91	524,163 47
1874.....	667,114 49	448,539 68
1875.....	508,817 67	551,816 78
1876.....	524,039 17	628,055 22
1877.....	538,635 55	613,264 59
1878.....	538,322 04	534,157 07
1879.....	563,389 95	577,658 41
1880.....	546,796 04	492,720 33

The total assessed value of all kinds of property in the State, according to the returns of 1880, is \$166,268,241. Of this amount, \$101,-

799,424 represents real estate; \$38,531,897 personal property in farming-utensils, money, solvent credit, shares, railroad franchises, and other classes; and \$15,936,920 the value of horses, mules, cattle, hogs, sheep, and other live-stock.

The number of acres of land returned was 26,823,511; value, \$83,034,885; the value of town lots, \$18,764,539; compared with the report of 1872, there has been an advance in the aggregate value of land of \$13,500,000, or 20 per cent., and in the value of town lots of \$6,000,000, or 50 per cent. The value of farming-implements has increased from about \$2,500,000 to \$10,124,553. The amount of money on hand was returned as \$3,106,076; solvent credits, \$13,518,809; stock in incorporated companies, \$893,819; other personal property, \$892,582. The counties giving the highest personalty valuations are Wake, \$2,703,991; Mecklenburg, \$1,696,611; New Hanover, \$1,381,162; Edgecombe, \$1,316,234; Forsyth, \$1,192,900; Guilford, \$1,143,550. The number of horses was 137,133, value \$5,871,006; mules 81,021, value \$3,850,285; cattle 678,311, value \$3,844,964; hogs 1,530,403, value \$1,703,245; sheep 582,468, value \$521,345; goats, 25,772. The number of horses and mules has increased 46,000, or 25 per cent., since 1870. Sheep have increased only 10 per cent. in number. Then only 82,000 whites paid a poll-tax, now 118,610 list themselves for taxation. Then 39,500 negroes listed, now 56,028 of them pay their taxes. The entire amount collected by way of taxes reaches \$2,082,700, of which the counties spend two thirds, the schools one sixth, and the State about one fifth. The following school-taxes were collected: Tax on licensed retailers, \$25,844.59; on white polls, \$120,068.76; on colored polls, \$57,232.42; 8½ cents on total valuation of real and personal property, \$133,576.87.

Dr. Worth, the State Treasurer, has labored persistently for ten years to have a scheme adopted for the adjustment of the State debt, and with final success. Under the act to compromise and commute the debt, passed at the session of 1879, he has taken up the old bonds of the State to January 1, 1881, as follows:

Forty per cent. class.....	\$3,579,500
Twenty-five per cent. class.....	1,962,045
Fifteen per cent. class.....	1,923,700

Total.....\$7,470,245

He has issued in lieu of these new four per cent. bonds of the State, to the amount of \$2,211,816, upon which the interest was promptly paid on the 1st day of January. The old bonds taken up were recorded, as required by law, and burned. The total amount outstanding and to be funded of the several classes was as follows before refunding:

Forty per cent. class.....	\$5,577,400
Twenty-five per cent. class.....	4,700,045
Fifteen per cent. class.....	3,888,600

Total.....\$14,166,045

The first class, being the old State bonds, are

refunded at 40 per cent. of the face value. The second class were to be funded at 25, and the third at 15 per cent. of their face value. Of the entire debt it is possible that a considerable percentage is lost and will never be presented. The new bonds taken in lieu of the old bear 4 per cent. interest. The funded debt will not amount to more than \$4,000,000. The special tax-bonds which are repudiated by the people as unconstitutional and void, amounting to about \$18,000,000, have never been declared invalid by the courts. The amendment to the Constitution prohibiting their payment was ratified by the popular vote in the November election. Suits have been brought for a recommendatory judgment against the State, and by the advice of the Council of State the Governor engaged extra counsel in order to defend the State's interests as completely as possible. Two former cases involving this question were not decided finally. The first suit, brought in 1869 by August Belmont, of New York, was dismissed by the United States Court because the order to the auditor to include the special tax in the tax-levy, for which he sued, was anticipated by the Legislature, who had passed an act prohibiting it. The second suit was decided in favor of the State in the first instance, but dismissed on appeal by the State Supreme Court.

The earnings of the Penitentiary approximated the cost, as seen in the following exhibit for the two years ending November 1st. The expenditures for the two years were as follows:

At the State Prison.....	\$160,083 47
On Western North Carolina Railroad.....	82,478 97
On Cape Fear and Yadkin Valley Railroad.....	45,087 76

The receipts from convict-labor are reported as follows:

Work, etc., at Raleigh.....	\$47,525 88
Work on Western North Carolina Railroad.....	103,096 00
Cash for convict-labor.....	21,946 56
Work on Yadkin Valley Railroad.....	56,438 25
Shoe department.....	46,320 94
Oxford Railroad.....	9,849 00
Other work, about.....	6,000 00

Total.....\$291,328 98

From this statement it appears that, if the earnings of the Penitentiary were paid for in cash, the receipts would exceed the expenditures. The number of convicts is gradually decreasing. The entire number in 1880 was 841, of whom 400 were received during the year. There were 48 discharged, and 15 pardoned; 41 died; and 12 escaped. About 300 are confined at the Penitentiary. The entire number received since the opening of the Penitentiary, in 1870, is 3,822. Of those in prison about three fourths are unable to read and write, and comparatively few are over thirty years of age, the negroes who have grown up since the war furnishing a larger proportion of criminals than those who were reared in slavery. The care of the convicts who work on the railroads is said to be insufficient, and in the Penitentiary better sanitary regulations are needed, as shown

by the large ratio of deaths. The intention of the directors is to make the Penitentiary self-sustaining by employing the convicts, such as must be kept within the walls, at useful trades, for which suitable buildings are needed. The receipts from the hire of convicts on the Western North Carolina Railroad have been applied to the completion of the walls and buildings of the Penitentiary. The entire number of convicts on October 30th was 993, which was less than the number in confinement in any of the three years previous.

For the year 1879 there were reported 271,000 white persons of school age, and 154 colored persons. Of the former, 153,000 attended school during the year, and of the latter, 85,000. The State is divided into 4,000 school districts, about four in each township. There are 2,500 schoolhouses for the white children, and 1,000 for the colored children. There were taught during the year 3,600 white and nearly 2,000 colored schools. The teachers were paid on the average \$22 a month, \$183,000 having been paid to the teachers of white schools and \$110,000 to the teachers of the colored schools during the year. There was received from the poll-tax \$156,000, from the property-tax \$132,000, and from other sources about \$60,000.

The inadequacy of the means for the support of public instruction afforded by the present tax laws is dwelt upon in the message of the Governor, who recommends that the school-tax should be trebled, or raised from 8½ cents on the \$100 of property to 25 cents, and from 25 to 75 cents on the poll. The salary of the Superintendent of Public Instruction is notably deficient, being only \$1,500 per annum, with no allowance for his necessary traveling expenses. The Board of Education holds a fund of \$91,500, invested in four per cent. United States consols, which, it is recommended, should be placed in the new State four per cents, as they can be obtained below par some ten per cent., while the former command a high premium.

The Governor recommends that the swamp-lands, the title of which is vested in the Board of Education, should be made subject to entry and sale, in the same way as other vacant lands. Some of these lands, if cleared and drained, would be valuable. As it is, they are liable to be pillaged by the public. They have lain idle in the hands of the Board of Education for half a century. By the change in the law suggested they could be made to add to the taxable property of the State, and to yield a fund to aid the educational at a time when it would be of great service. The two normal schools established by the Legislature of 1876-'77 have been very successful in their work of preparing teachers.

The university is intended to furnish its benefits gratuitously to as many students of the State as possible. At present one student is received free of tuition from each county. In addition to this the University has been ac-

customed to receive all indigent students of good character. The Governor recommends that two beneficiary students from each county be received, and that the appropriation be increased by \$7,500 for this purpose. The State is indebted to the university fund derived from land-scrip donated by the United States in the sum of \$125,000, which was invested in special tax-bonds and lost. The State now pays the interest on this amount, for which it is responsible. In the normal school department of the university 800 teachers have received instruction. There were in attendance in the university 166 students at the end of the school year, of whom 89 paid no tuition. Contributions received after the reorganization of the university in 1875, to the amount of about \$20,000, were spent in repairs. With the \$7,500 paid by the State under the Land-Scrip Act of 1862, the university has done something toward establishing the industrial and agricultural department required. For normal teaching the State allows \$2,000 per annum.

The policy with regard to immigration adopted by the Department of Agriculture is to register lands for sale or to let, and through an agent in Europe to inform intending immigrants of the opportunities for settlement or employment. The agent in England has already brought many desirable tenants, purchasers, and laborers into the State. The registry fee for each tract of land, divided into any number of smaller tracts, is one dollar. For every sale effected through the agency of the department, a commission of 2½ per cent. of the purchase-money is charged. Every settler is enabled to select his location from all the pieces of land on the register, and receives all the information and advice in making his choice that can be given. The Agricultural Department of North Carolina has been the model upon which South Carolina and other States have framed their laws constituting such a department. Bulletins of the results of experiments and tests at the experimental station are published monthly.

The Insane Asylum at Raleigh is overcrowded, and 190 or more applicants are waiting for admission. For the extensions which are projected \$80,000 will be required. The Colored Asylum at Goldsboro has been opened, and contained 91 patients at the close of the year.

The Supreme Court Judges are overworked since the abolition of the fees for taking an appeal, and it is felt to be necessary either to increase the number of Judges or to regulate the appeals so as to diminish the work to be done. The imposition of a tax-fee of ten dollars in civil cases, and five dollars in criminal cases, is advised; and also the restoration of the twenty dollar attorney's fee. The costs now in a case in the Supreme Court are about nine dollars. They are less than they frequently are in the court of a justice of the peace. Fifty dollars (twenty for the library, twenty for attorney's fee, and ten for other costs) would not be

unreasonable, with the law still in force that allows the poor to sue in *forma pauperis*. The dockets of the Superior Courts are also overcrowded. It is necessary either to increase the number of circuits and Judges, or to establish separate courts for the trial of criminal cases. The Judges should hold three courts a year in each county; but no court should be held, as is now done, in the month of June, the busiest month for agriculturists. A codification of the statutes is demanded. This labor has not been done since the preparation of Battle's revision. The Governor calls for the establishment of a Board of Pardons. He granted sixteen pardons in 1879, and forty-six in 1880.

There have been held for two years past colored industrial fairs, in which much interest has been shown by public-spirited citizens of both races. At the fair held at Raleigh in September, Frederick Douglass, United States Marshal in Washington, who had been the most prominent colored champion of abolition, was present to deliver the oration. Introduced by Governor Jarvis, he expressed surprise and gratification at the evidences he saw of the amicable relations of the two races, and the material progress of the negro race:

It was well worth coming all the way from Washington, nay, from a much greater distance north, to see what he had seen to-day, to witness the presence in North Carolina of the Chief Executive of your great State coming here and meeting with you, men of the colored race, and holding forth to you in words of truth and soberness; encouraging and uplifting you from the dust; giving you a glorious send-off in the direction of knowledge and virtuous and excellence. There was no eloquence equal to that which he had just listened to from the lips of the noble Governor. He should go home and in the North and West would tell what he had seen and heard to day. He would speak it from the platform, spread it from the press. He could not tell how much he had been affected by his experience here to-day. He never expected to hear what he had heard or see what he had seen. Abroad it was supposed that there is a state of warfare between the races—aggression on the one hand, oppression on the other. What he saw and heard contradicted the idea plainly, unless he did not possess the ability to see, hear, or comprehend aright. He said that the colored race was emancipated under peculiar conditions, not under the action of cool, deliberate judgment, but in a moment, in the heat of war and passion. The development of the race since was little less than a miracle. Its labor had saved it, and its labor was to save it further on. He saw in North Carolina not the slightest evidence of anything but the kindest treatment of the colored people. He then spoke of the "exodus" in plain words, saying that a colored man had a right, no doubt, to go where and when he pleased, provided he did so at his own expense, without a stampede or calls for help; but it was folly for a people to leave a land to which they are suited, and where they are at home, to go to a strange place. Here they could often elect a man of their own color to office, but in Indiana or in other Northern and Western States they would be but a drop in a bucket, and voiceless. He declared that a flea in a tar-barrel without claws was far better off than a Southern darkey up North without money. The exodus the colored people want is the exodus from ignorance, vice, and lack of thrift.

Governor Jarvis comments upon the mutual relations between the white and colored races,

in referring to these industrial exhibitions, in the following terms:

The two races are working together in peace and harmony, with increasing respect for each other. The colored population, I am glad to say, are becoming more industrious and thrifty. Many of them are property-owners and tax-payers. They seem to be learning the important lesson that they have nothing to rely upon but their own labor. I have tried, on every important occasion, to impress this lesson upon them, and to assure them of the sympathy and hearty coöperation of the white race in their efforts to make themselves good and useful citizens.

I regard it as an imperative duty, from which the whites can not escape if they would, to see that in all things full and exact justice is done the blacks, and that they are not left alone to work out their own destiny. They are entitled, by many binding considerations, to receive aid and encouragement from the whites in their effort to be better men and women, and I have no doubt will receive it.

Of the history of the Swepson embezzlement case, which is still pending in the courts, Governor Jarvis gives the following account in his biennial message:

During the administration of Governor Caldwell, an indictment was found in Wake Superior Court against George W. Swepson and M. S. Littlefield for obtaining the bonds of the State under false pretenses. A farce of a trial was had before Judge Watts, and, in the absence of the defendants, he ordered a verdict of "not guilty" to be entered, and the State appealed. The appeal, after being in the Supreme Court a long time, was finally decided against the defendants, during the administration of Governor Vance, who employed counsel to prosecute the case. This case has twice since been to the Supreme Court on collateral questions, and both times the decisions have been in favor of the State.

He reviews the extradition proceedings in the case of Littlefield, as follows:

The defendant, Littlefield, has not been in the State since the indictment. In May, 1879, I heard he was in Florida, and having procured a certified copy of the indictment, I sent a messenger, with my requisition on the Governor of that State, for his arrest and delivery to my agent. The Governor issued his warrant promptly and Littlefield was arrested, but he was at once released upon a writ of *habeas corpus*, issued by a Judge Archibald, of that State. I then procured a copy of a bill of indictment, which had been found against him in Buncombe, and made a requisition upon that bill; but upon this the Governor refused to issue his warrant, holding that it was substantially the same offense. I was then powerless to do more.

Precedents have lately been established in some of the States which strip the clause in the United States Constitution, requiring the extradition between the States of persons charged with crime, of its compulsory character. This was notably the case in the refusal of the Massachusetts Executive to deliver up upon the requisition of the Governor of South Carolina a fugitive charged with a felony, who had been a prominent political character, it claiming the right to inquire into the merits of the case. A case involving the interpretation of the constitutional requirement, and the duty it imposes upon the Executives of the several States, has recently been decided in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia. The case came up on a requisition from the

Governor of North Carolina for the rendition of a fugitive from that State.

The ground is taken in the opinion rendered by Chief-Justice Carter that the Executive can go no further than inquire whether a crime has been substantially charged. Extracts from the opinion are given below:

These jurisdictions stand upon equal plane. That being the status of the power appealing, and of the power appealed to, what becomes the duty of the Executive in requisition and in response to requisitions? That duty is verily clearly and simply manifested in the Constitution of the United States, and in the law giving effect to it. Where a crime has been committed, treason, felony, or other crime, and the party has been duly accused under the law of the jurisdiction, it becomes the privilege, and is made the duty of the Executive against whose laws the offense is perpetrated, where the party has fled from justice, to demand of the authority of the coordinate jurisdiction, in which he has taken refuge, his person to answer for the offense.

The Constitution further provides that where a party is charged with crime, and has fled before the process of justice from the jurisdiction in which the crime was committed, and taken refuge in another jurisdiction, the jurisdiction where refuge is sought shall render him up.

It is said, on one side, that this is a discretionary duty, and the meaning of that is, according to the Executive will so should he act. Now, that is so if the proposition means the exercise of a discretion within authority—within right as well as within power; for I am aware I have the physical power to discharge this man or to hold him, and I am aware the public would be remedied by the act, temporarily, not ultimately, I hope, in the exercise of such a judgment or determination as that. But the power to do a thing when enlightened by constitutional and legal duty signifies the power to do it within the limitations of that duty, and no higher power, no capricious, no arbitrary power, the exercise of no mere physical power. It is a discretion revolving within the enlightenment of law, a discretion which considers the constitutional and legal proprieties of the subject that is being acted upon; that is, power under the Constitution and the law, as it is before the Executive charged with the duty of rendition or with the duty of requisition. How is the Executive to know whether a party is charged with a crime? He can not learn it by looking at the great seal of the State. He is to be informed by the indictment or the affidavit which is to be part and parcel of the record and transmitted under due authentication to the jurisdiction of which the party is demanded. The question is, when advised of the crime, how far you may go into details in pronouncing whether a crime is charged or not. Does it predicate in the Executive the right to inspect the technical requisites of the pleadings or to inquire into matters of defense under it? I think not; and at this point you do come to the grave proposition in the discharge of Executive duty of entering into a coordinate jurisdiction in one sense, a forum in the details of administrative justice. The Constitution never contemplated this. The Constitution never contemplated the transfer of the trial from the venue laid in the indictment.

The case was that of one Perry, who was accused of the forgery of a school order in the county of Lenoir. Of the proceedings in the lower court the Governor says, in his message, that "the trial assumed the aspect of a political inquisition against the State of North Carolina. Instead of trying the case upon the papers before him, the Judge proceeded to try the State upon the testimony of the defendant, his wife, and mother, as to whether the man

could get a fair trial if he should deliver him up to the State's agent."

Two propositions for the amendment of the Constitution, which were passed by the Assembly of 1879, were submitted to the people at the general election. One of these removes the constitutional obligation to provide for indigent mutes, blind, and insane, at the expense of the State, and makes it optional with the Legislature whether the State shall care for these classes or not. The other amendment forbids the Legislature to make any appropriation or authorize the collection of any tax to pay any debt or bond authorized by the Convention of 1868, or issued by the Legislatures of 1868-'69 and 1869-'70, except the bonds issued for funding the interest on the old State debt, unless in accordance with a proposition for such payment, which shall have been ratified by a vote of the people at a special election. The design of this measure is to forbid the State through its officers to make any provision for the payment of the special tax bonds and other bonds, which are held to be unconstitutional, unless it shall be ordered by the people, and to render fruitless the suits which have been brought against the State for bonds and coupons of this class, aggregating, as above stated, altogether \$18,000,000.

The Democratic State Convention met at Raleigh, June 17th. An exciting canvass had preceded the Convention, owing to the rival efforts of the friends of Governor Jarvis and those of Judge Daniel G. Fowle to secure the gubernatorial nomination. The former candidate receiving the largest number of votes on the first ballot, he was nominated, without a second formal ballot, by acclamation. The State ticket was composed as follows: For Governor, Thomas J. Jarvis; Lieutenant-Governor, James L. Robinson; Secretary of State, William L. Saunders; Treasurer, J. M. Worth; Attorney-General, Thomas S. Kenan; Auditor, W. P. Roberts; Superintendent of Public Instruction, John C. Scarborough. The Convention adopted the following resolution:

That the Democratic party of North Carolina are in favor of an honest and economical administration of the Government, national and State, under the Constitution and laws of the United States and of the State of North Carolina, and rely for their success upon the exercise of a free ballot, untrammelled by military interference.

The Republican Convention assembled at Raleigh in July. The nominations were as follows: For Governor, R. P. Buxton; Lieutenant-Governor, Rufus Barringer; Secretary of State, R. M. Norment; Treasurer, A. D. Jenkins; Auditor, R. H. Cannon; Attorney-General, Augustus M. Moore; Superintendent of Public Instruction, A. R. Black. Portions of the platform are given below:

That they have seen, with great apprehension and alarm, the rapid consolidation and engrossment of our railroad systems by and under the control and ownership of foreign monopolists.

That they view with anxiety the condition of the

Western North Carolina Railroad, which, through the hot haste and ill-considered contracts of the Democratic State administration, is surrounded by legal troubles which afford no relief from taxation, and threaten to delay for a long time, if not altogether defeat, the completion of that work, so necessary for the welfare and development of the State, and especially the western counties.

That the Republican party has always been the friend of education.

That they recognize the mechanic and laborer as the bone and sinew of the land, and pledge themselves to protect their rights and promote their political, educational, and material interests.

That the recent constitutional amendments were passed by a convention which was not composed of a majority of elected delegates, and the control of which was stolen from the Republican majority by an infamous and admitted fraud on the voters of Robeson County.

That the present system of county government in North Carolina is utterly subversive of the rights of the citizens; is the grossest political robbery ever practiced in this or any civilized country; is the most damnable fraud ever devised or sanctioned by any political party, and calls for the unqualified condemnation of all who have the name of freemen without regard to party affiliation. We claim the right of the people to elect every officer in the State from the Chief Executive down to the humblest official, and demand that this right shall not be denied nor abridged; that

an honest count shall follow a free ballot, and the majority shall determine who shall enact and administer its laws.

They denounce the Democratic party as an oligarchy, controlled by railroad corporations and aristocratic influences, and, if not arrested in its course, it will overthrow the most cherished rights of the people.

That they denounce the laws known as the landlord and tenant acts, as devised for the benefit of a few and to oppress the humble and defenseless citizen.

That they denounce the present road laws of the State as oppressive to the laborer, and demand their amendment so that the building and repairing them shall be borne more equally by all classes of the people.

All the Democratic candidates for State offices were elected by large majorities. The Presidential election returns were 124,204 votes for the Hancock electors, 115,616 for the Garfield electors, and 1,136 for the Weaver electors. There were cast 117,388 votes in favor of the amendment prohibiting the payment of the special tax bonds to 5,458 against, and in favor of the amendment relieving the State from the obligation to support the defective paupers 87,163 to 70,459 against, both amendments being adopted by a majority of the qualified voters of the State.

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OBITUARIES, AMERICAN. ADAIR, WILLIAM P., assistant chief of the Cherokee nation, died in Washington, October 28d, aged fifty-two. He was at the capital representing the interests of that tribe. During the war he commanded a brigade of Indians in the army of the Confederacy.

ADAMS, REV. WILLIAM, D. D., LL. D., was born in Colchester, Connecticut, in 1807, and died at Orange Mountain, New Jersey, August 31st. He was the son of John Adams, the teacher and philanthropist, who superintended his education and prepared him for Yale College. He graduated in 1827, and under the influence of his friend and tutor, Woolsey, he went to Andover Theological Seminary to study for the ministry of the Presbyterian Church. In 1834 he took charge of the Central Presbyterian Church in Broome Street. This small congregation increased in numbers and in wealth, and in 1853-'54 they erected and occupied the building called the Madison Square Presbyterian Church. During thirty-nine years he remained the beloved pastor of this congregation. He refused calls to Europe, and professorships, peculiarly tempting to one of his literary tastes, so strong was the tie that bound him to his people. But in 1873 an endowment of three hundred thousand dollars was proffered to the New York Union Theological Seminary, on condition that he would accept its presidency, to which he had been thrice elected. Dr. Adams had been a founder of this institution, and he was induced to change to this sphere of usefulness. In 1852 Dr. Adams act-

ed as Moderator of the New-School General Assembly. In 1870-'71 he was active in promoting the reuniting of the Old and New School Churches. He was an industrious writer of sermons, lectures, and magazine articles. He published "The Two Gardens—Eden and Gethsemane"; "Isaac Taylor's Spirit of Hebrew Poetry," with a biographical sketch; "Thanksgiving, Memories of the Day and Helps to the Habit." Dr. Adams was the first who correctly translated the Greek and Latin inscriptions in the Catacombs of Rome, and he delivered in New York a striking lecture on those monuments of the primitive Church.

AKERMAN, AMOS TAPPAN, ex-Attorney-General of the United States, was born in New Hampshire in 1823. He graduated from Dartmouth College in 1842. For four years he taught school at Murfreesboro, Tennessee, and Richmond, Virginia. He then went to Peoria, Illinois, but removed to Georgia and supported himself by teaching until his admission to the bar. He acquired a competence by the practice of the law. He was not a secessionist, but after the passage of the act he "went with his State." He served the Confederacy in the quartermaster's department. After the resignation of Judge Hoar, in June, 1870, General Grant offered the attorney-generalship to Mr. Akerman. He joined the Republican party just after the war, and an article on reconstruction, published by him in the "New Era," made such an impression on General Grant that when on a visit to Washington he was invited to the White House. He held the post

of State Attorney under Governor Bullock. General Grant appointed him United States District Attorney for Georgia. When he tendered him a position in his Cabinet it was a surprise both North and South. He held it, however, without incurring much odium, resigned it in December, 1871, and was succeeded by ex-Senator George H. Williams, of Oregon. In 1873 Mr. Akerman received the votes of the Republican members of the Georgia Legislature for United States Senator. He died at Cartersville, Georgia, December 21st.

ALBERT, JOHN S., Chief-Engineer United States Navy, was born in 1835, and died in Philadelphia July 3d. He entered the navy in 1855, from New York. He was appointed Chief-Engineer in 1861, and served meritoriously throughout the war.

AUDENRIED, JOSEPH CRAIN, Colonel United States Army, was born at Pottsville, Pennsylvania, November 6, 1839. He entered West Point Academy in 1857, and graduated in 1861. Brevetted second-lieutenant Fourth Cavalry, he assisted in organizing and drilling the troops then assembled in Washington. He took part in the first campaign as aide-de-camp to General Daniel Tyler. He served with the Second Artillery to March, 1862. During the Peninsular campaign he was acting assistant adjutant-general to General Emory's cavalry command. In July, 1862, he became aide-de-camp to General Sumner, commanding Second Army Corps, and acted in this capacity until the death of General Sumner in March, 1863. He was wounded at Antietam and brevetted captain. He reported as aide-de-camp to General U. S. Grant in June, 1863, and witnessed the surrender of Vicksburg on July 4th. He joined the staff of General Sherman at Memphis on October 1, 1863. He shared every battle and campaign of this General after that period, embracing the Chattanooga and Knoxville campaigns, that to Meridian, the Atlanta campaign, the march to the sea, and that of the Carolinas. He accompanied General Sherman during his several tours through the Great West, among the Indians, and through Europe. He continued to discharge the duties of aide-de-camp to the General of the Army until his death, which occurred in Washington, on June 3d.

BALL, Dr. IRWIN W., was born in Livingston Parish, Louisiana, in 1828. He studied medicine and practiced his profession in Pointe Coupée before the war. He owned a plantation in West Feliciana, on which he carried out scientific methods of planting. He was deeply interested in silk-culture; he was successful in raising mulberry-trees and in growing silkworms. He believed that Louisiana was adapted to this branch of industry. To carry a bill through the Legislature organizing a silk company, he accepted a nomination as member. While superintending its passage through the Legislature he died in New Orleans, January 29th.

BARRETT, Commodore, was born in New Orleans, in 1828. He entered the navy at the age of thirteen, and was on the Macedonian under Commodore Nicholson. After some years' service in the West Indies, the Mediterranean, and the Brazilian waters, he was ordered to the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis in February, 1846, and graduated thence in the succeeding August. He was assigned to duty with the Gulf Squadron. During the siege of Vera Cruz he was on the blockading-ship John Adams. He relieved Passed-Midshipman Nelson in command of the Ambulance Corps operating with the naval battery in 1847, and participated in the battle of Alvarado. He commanded the bark Coosa, and brought her to New Orleans. She was the best prize taken during the Mexican War. In 1848 he was sent to the African coast in command of the Jamestown. In 1854 he was appointed flag-lieutenant to Commodore Breese. After his return to the United States in 1858, he was again ordered to the African coast, and subsequently to the East Indies. In 1861 he was appointed instructor of gunnery, and he organized the school-ship Savannah. In 1862 he was tried by court-martial for disloyalty, but was fully acquitted, and complimented on his patriotic and professional services. He commanded the Massasoit in 1863. In 1864, while in command of the ironclad Catskill, off Charleston, South Carolina, the advance of the picket of monitors, he captured the Deer, the only prize taken by a monitor, and the last taken off Charleston. He was in the first expedition that ascended the Yang-tse-Kiang as far as Hankow. He commanded the Government ship at the close of the International Exhibition. His was the first naval ship to test and pass the jetties at the South Pass of the Mississippi. He died in March, at the age of fifty-two.

BEDFORD, Dr. HENRY MOORE, died at Richfield Springs, on August 20th. He was the eldest son of Dr. Gunning Bedford, who was the nephew and namesake of one of the framers and signers of the Constitution of the United States. Like his eminent father, Dr. Henry Bedford was a zealous student of medical science. He was chief of staff to him when he was Professor of Obstetrics in the New York University Medical College. The obstetrical clinic was first established by them in spite of determined opposition. From first to last over thirty thousand cases passed through the hands of father and son, and afforded an incomparable field of study to the profession.

BENNET, Captain ORLANDO, son of the inventor Phineas Bennet, died on Long Island, on July 10th, aged sixty-two. He was remarkably successful in the recovery of indestructible goods from wrecks. He raised two steamers sunk in sixty feet of water in the North River, and recovered a cargo of quicksilver from a wreck covered by many feet of sand. He was employed by the Government to clear the harbors of Charleston and Savannah from moni-

tors, torpedoes, and other obstructions, and thus opened the sea-way to supply Sherman's army after its "march to the sea."

BIGLER, WILLIAM, ex-Governor of Pennsylvania, and Senator from that State, was born at Shermansburg, Cumberland County, Pennsylvania, in 1814. His elder brother, John Bigler, became Minister to Mexico and Governor of California. The family was of Dutch origin, and German was the tongue of his childhood. William Bigler had few advantages for education, brought up in what was then the backwoods, and forced to labor on a farm for his share in the support of an orphaned family. In 1829 he began to aid his brother John as a printer in the office of the "Center Democrat," published at Bellefonte. In 1833, anxious to push his own fortunes, he removed to Clearfield, and, with a capital of twenty dollars and some second-hand material, all borrowed, he began the printing, publishing, and editing of what he often described as a "ten-by-twelve Jackson paper." His heart failed him when he arrived, friendless and alone, in a village where he was an entire stranger. But he was received with a kindness that he never forgot. He managed his affairs with so much ability that the "Clearfield Democrat" became a prosperous and notable paper. He sold it in 1836, married, and entered the lumber business. But his editorial career had so extended his reputation that he was already regarded as a political leader, and he was soon called into the public service. In 1841 he was elected to the State Senate by a majority of over three thousand. He received every vote, save one, in Clearfield County, an unprecedented result. He was Speaker of the Senate in 1843-'44. In the latter year he was reelected to the Senate. In 1849 he was appointed one of the Revenue Commissioners. In 1851 he was nominated for Governor, and elected. In this same year his brother John was made Governor of California. He received the gubernatorial nomination a second time, in 1854, but he was defeated by the Native American party. In 1855 he was sent to the United States Senate for a term of six years. He was a member of the Charleston Convention in 1860, and strongly opposed the nomination of Judge Douglas. He was temporary chairman of the Democratic Convention of 1864, and voted for General McClellan. He was a member of the Convention of 1868 held in New York. In 1873 he was delegate-at-large of the Constitutional Convention at Erie. In 1874 he was a member of the Board of Finance of the Centennial Exhibition, and his management was in great part the cause of its success. Of all the public and private labors of Governor Bigler, that which best shows his patriotism and statesmanship is the position he took in 1860. After the election of Mr. Lincoln, when secession was imminent, Mr. Bigler, then a member of the United States Senate, strove with all the powers of his head and heart to prevent that catastrophe. He

maintained that the Southern States were bound to exhaust peaceable means for the redress of grievances before resorting to extreme measures. Appointed on the Committee of Thirteen to whom the Crittenden Compromise was referred, he strenuously urged its adoption. He drew up a bill, and advocated it before the Senate, for submitting this compromise proposition to a vote of the people of the several States. In the heat of sectional strife the bill was lost, but it is now admitted that it was the one measure that might have preserved the country from the horrors of civil war. After sixty-six years of life spent in usefulness and honor, Governor Bigler died at his home in Clearfield, Pennsylvania, on the 9th of August.

BLAIR, BARNARD, born in Salem, New York, in 1801; died there, May 1st. In 1841 he was elected to Congress, and served until March, 1843. He held several political offices in his own township.

BOARDMAN, REV. HENRY AUGUSTUS, D. D., died in Philadelphia, on June 15th, aged seventy-two. He was during forty-three years the pastor of the Tenth Presbyterian Church in that city. He was born at Troy, New York, in 1808, graduated at Yale College, and studied at the Princeton Theological Seminary. He was an active member of various societies of the Presbyterian organization. He was also a manager of the Deaf and Dumb Institution. His writings were voluminous. In 1839 he published "The Scripture Doctrine of Original Sin," followed in 1855 by "The Great Question," and in 1857 by "The Society of Friends and the Two Sacraments." Among his other publications were "Correspondence with Bishop Doane on the Oxford Tracts," "The Christian Ministry not a Priesthood," "The Apostolical Succession," and "The Doctrine of Election."

BOLL, Professor JACOB, a native of Switzerland, and a distinguished pupil of Agassiz, died in Wilbarger County, Texas, September 29th. He had been engaged for six years previously in a scientific exploration of Texas. There being no State geologist, Professor Copes, of Philadelphia, had induced him to go thither and examine the mineral resources of the State, with a view to introducing capital for their development. He was much esteemed in Texas, and his reputation as a geologist and naturalist is extensive.

BOND, RICHARD C., was born in Louisiana, in 1833. He was educated at the University of Saint Louis, and adopted the legal profession. He was Clerk of the District Court of Ascension, and represented that parish in the Legislature. During the war, Colonel Bond was an officer of the First Louisiana Regulars, Heavy Artillery. For some time he was commandant of Fort St. Philip. He was in Vicksburg during the siege. Afterward he was chief of artillery of General Mouton's army in the trans-Mississippi Department. On September 14, 1874, he commanded a company of citizen-sol-

diers in the White League. He died in the Northwest, in October, at the age of forty-six.

BORIE, Hon. ADOLPH E., ex-Secretary of the Navy of the United States, was born in Philadelphia in 1809. He was a descendant, on the mother's side, of a family of refugees from St. Domingo, of whom a large number settled in Philadelphia. In 1826 Mr. Borie graduated from the Pennsylvania University, and went to Paris to complete his education. After spending several years abroad he returned to America and entered upon mercantile pursuits. In the outset of the civil war the first Union League of the country was formed in Philadelphia, and Mr. Borie was one of its founders and its vice-president. He gave large sums toward the enlistment and care of the soldiers during the war, but otherwise he had taken no part in politics. In 1869 he became a member of the Cabinet appointed by General Grant, as Secretary of the Navy. He held the office during a few months, and instituted many reforms. He died in Philadelphia, February 5th, at the age of seventy-one.

BRAYTON, Judge GEORGE A., at one time Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court of Rhode Island, died at East Greenwich, Rhode Island, April 19th.

BRENT, HENRY J., descended from a Roman Catholic family, early settlers of Maryland, and grand-nephew of Archbishop Carroll, was born in Washington, D. C., in 1811. He contributed to Porter's "Spirit of the Times," over the well-known signature of "Stirrup." He was the associate of Lewis Gaylord Clark in founding and editing the "Knickerbocker." He died in New York City, August 3d.

BRINKERHOFF, Judge JACOB, born in New York, in 1810, removed early to Plymouth, Ohio. He was twice elected to Congress by the Democrats, and served from 1843 to 1847. He was Judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio from 1856 to 1871. He was the author of the original draft of the Wilmot Proviso. He died at Mansfield, Ohio, July 19th.

BROPHEY, GEORGE, was born near the city of Kilkenny, Ireland, in August, 1775, contemporaneously with Daniel O'Connell, and died at Davenport, Iowa, October 16, 1880, in the one hundred and fifth year of his age. He was the son of an ardent Irish patriot who, after the battle of Vinegar Hill, in the great rebellion of 1798, was captured and executed by the British. Young Brophey was, from his earliest age, intended for the priesthood. After graduating at Carlow College, he went to Paris to pursue his theological studies, and was ordained priest in 1798. He was proficient in the French, Spanish, Italian, and English languages. Danton, Robespierre, and Marat were his personal acquaintances, and were by him considered human fiends, without their parallels in history. He saw and conversed with Napoleon I many times, and in 1815, when the dethroned Emperor was about to leave France for his St. Helena prison, Father Brophey was among the

vast concourse who listened to the last address delivered by the "Man of Destiny" on the soil of France. In 1833, when the remains of the Emperor were brought back to his beloved land for interment, Father Brophey assisted at the most august obsequies ever celebrated by this people, devoted to magnificent pageants. A week after this imposing event, Father Brophey witnessed the attempt made upon the life of King Louis Philippe by Fieschi. From the boulevard where he stood, the priest beheld the passage of the immense procession headed by the King, and saw the terrible discharge of the infernal machine prepared and concealed in a certain building by which the monarch's way led. The murderous attack killed not the King, but one of his Ministers who rode beside him. Father Brophey, with Archbishop Dupont, were the last spiritual attendants of Lafayette, the former watching night after night by the death-bed of the statesman until his soul was released. In 1843 Father Brophey left France and came to America. He settled in New York as pastor of St. Paul's Church. Nine churches were built through his efforts, and he was honorably identified with the development of that great metropolis. Under his spiritual guidance the renowned and well-beloved Archbishop Bailey was converted from Protestantism to Catholicity, and at his instance repaired to Rome to be received into the Holy Church. Father Brophey was a ripe scholar, and a man of wide and prominent acquaintance. Presidents Tyler, Polk, Fillmore, Buchanan, Pierce, and Lincoln, were his personal friends. He settled in Iowa in 1865. With a view to establishing an Irish college, he purchased a large tract of land near Boone, but the project was never executed. At a later day he repaired to Mercy Hospital to spend the residue of his days, and there, tenderly cared for by the Sisters, passed to his rest—not ravaged by disease, but worn out with age and faithful service in his Master's cause.

BUDD, Dr. CHARLES HENRY, a native of New Jersey, died in Philadelphia, October 22d. He was a surgeon during the war between the States, after which he became Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in Franklin and Marshall College at Lancaster, Pennsylvania. He was subsequently selected to fill the chair of Natural History at Girard College, which professorship he held at the time of his death.

BUTLER, Major THOMAS LANGFORD, eldest son of General Percival Butler, was born in 1789, at Lexington, Kentucky. In 1796 he moved to Carrollton, then Port William, Kentucky. In 1809 he entered the army as lieutenant, and was stationed at Fort Massac. Having resigned in 1811, he was appointed in 1812 by General Harrison, Quartermaster for the Territories of Indiana and Illinois, with headquarters at Vincennes. In 1813 he was promoted captain, and served through the Northwestern campaign under Harrison. In 1814, as aide-de-camp to

General Jackson, he was at the siege of Pensacola, and in 1815 at the battle of New Orleans, and was brevetted major for gallantry. After the close of the war he left the army and received from President Madison the appointment of Surveyor and Inspector of the Port of New Orleans. He resigned this post in a short time and returned to his home in Kentucky. From 1819 to 1825 he was Sheriff of Gallatin County. In 1826 he represented that county in the Legislature. The old and new court question was the prominent issue of that day. He was a member of the Old Court party, according to whose principles the State reached a satisfactory decision. In 1847 he again represented Carroll and Gallatin in the Legislature. He died in Louisville, Kentucky, on the 21st of October.

CAMPBELL, JOHN A., died in Washington, on July 14th. He was at one time Governor of Wyoming. Afterward, he was Third Assistant Secretary of State. He fought through the war of the rebellion, and received the grade of lieutenant-colonel. He was brevetted colonel and brigadier-general on the recommendations of General G. H. Thomas and of General Schofield, on whose staff he held the position of adjutant-general. After the war he moved to Ohio, and was one of the editors of the Cleveland "Leader." He received a commission in the army and accompanied General Schofield to Washington, when that General was appointed Secretary of War. General Campbell was on duty there at the time of his death.

CANADA, CLEM, died in Loudon County, Virginia, November 3d, at the great age of one hundred and twenty-one. He was a negro slave of the family of Lee, of Loudon. By the will of his master he was manumitted sixty years ago. He removed to Pennsylvania, but, rather than live out of Virginia, he preferred to remain the slave of the Lees. He enjoyed and deserved their confidence. According to a record preserved in that family, he was born in January, 1759, when George II was still reigning over Great Britain and America.

CHAMBERS, Dr. MONTGOMERY, died in Philadelphia, October 10th, aged eighty-five. He wrote many valuable medical treatises, and practiced his profession during more than sixty years.

CHANDLER, JOSEPH R., born in 1792; died in Philadelphia. From 1849 to 1855 he was a member of Congress from Pennsylvania, and long the editor of the "United States Gazette."

CLINCH, CHARLES POWELL, was born in New York, in 1797. His father was a ship-chandler, who acquired wealth. His sister married A. T. Stewart. In the early part of his life Mr. Clinch belonged to the same literary circle as Drake, Halleck, and Paulding. He wrote for the press; and one of his dramas, "The First of May," was produced at the Broadway Theatre. In 1835 Mr. Clinch was elected to the State Assembly. In that year occurred the

great fire, which melted away his property, which had been invested in insurance stocks. In 1838 he obtained an appointment in the Custom-House. He showed such aptitude for his work that he was promoted to be deputy, and then assistant collector, which position he held through all changes until 1876, when old age led him to resign after forty years of service. He died on December 16th, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

CORWINE, AMOS BRECKINRIDGE, was born in 1815, at Maysville, Kentucky. His early years were spent on his father's plantation in Mississippi. He published the Yazoo "Banner" from 1840 to 1864. He served during the Mexican War, being a lieutenant in the Mississippi regiment commanded by Jefferson Davis. He was severely wounded at Buena Vista. After that war, in partnership with his brother Samuel, he edited the Cincinnati "Daily Chronicle." During the Administrations of Tyler and Fillmore he was United States Consul at Panama. In 1856 he was sent by President Pierce to investigate the Panama massacres. His report was the basis of the treaty and adjustment of damages between the United States and Granada. He was reappointed consul, and remained in Panama until 1861, when he was removed by President Lincoln. The command of an Ohio regiment was offered to him, but he declined it. In 1862 he settled in New Rochelle, where he died, on June 22d.

COX, Dr. SAMUEL H., theologian, was born at Rahway, New Jersey, in 1792. He served as a volunteer during the War of 1812; after the war he studied theology, and was ordained by the New Jersey Presbytery. He received his degree of D. D. from Williams College and that of A. M. from Princeton. He was for a long time pastor of the Lighthouse Church, New York. In 1833 he visited Europe, and made a remarkable speech before the English and Foreign Bible Society. He was an abolitionist, and frequently preached on that subject. He was one of the founders of the University of New York. He was pastor of the first Presbyterian Church in Brooklyn. He was also professor at the Auburn, and later in the Union Theological Seminary. He died at Bronxville, October 2d.

CRITTENDEN, General GEORGE B., Confederate States Army, was born in Kentucky, in 1811, and graduated at West Point with the class of 1832. He did duty in the Black Hawk War, was stationed at Augusta, Georgia, and in Alabama, and resigned the following year. Having volunteered in the Texan cause, he was captured, and with difficulty released through the intervention of Daniel Webster. He practiced law until the Mexican War, when he was reappointed to the army. He again resigned from the army in June, 1861, and joined the Confederate cause. He was commissioned major-general and sent to Kentucky, where he was defeated by General Thomas at Mill Spring. This important battle, resulting in the death of

General Zollicoffer, occasioned such sharp censure that he resigned his command, but served in some capacity throughout the war. He died at Danville, Kentucky, November 27th.

DAFT, Miss OLIVIA, born in Liberty Street, New York, in 1778; died in Newark, New Jersey, on June 10th, at the age of one hundred and two.

DAGGETT, Rev. Dr. OLIVER ELLSWORTH, born at New Haven, Connecticut, in 1810; died in Hartford, September 1st. He graduated from Yale College in 1828. He was Professor of Divinity at Yale for several years. The "Connecticut Hymn-Book," issued in 1845, was in part compiled by Dr. Daggett.

DENISON, Rev. Dr. SAMUEL D., died at White Plains, New York, September 3d, at the age of seventy. He was the descendant of Major-General Daniel Denison, commander-in-chief of Massachusetts Colony during King Philip's War. In 1842 he became Secretary of the Episcopal Mission in New York. He was ordained in 1845. His long life was devoted to missionary work. He received his degree of D. D. from Hobart College in 1867. At the time of his death he was Honorary Secretary for Foreign Missions of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

DERBY, LAVANCHIE FITCH, died October 12, 1880, in Brooklyn, New York. She was a native of Cooperstown, and became the wife of James C. Derby, the well-known publisher. Mrs. Derby was conspicuous in society for the generous and graceful hospitality which she dispensed to a large circle of literary people, whom her husband attracted to their home in Auburn, New York, and Brooklyn. Some of the late years of her life were passed in the South, on a plantation bought by her husband to gratify her, near Aiken, South Carolina, where she left a vivid impression of herself upon the minds of her Southern friends. Her remains are interred in Fort Hill Cemetery, at Auburn.

DOGGETT, DANIEL S., Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was born in Virginia, in 1810. His father was a prominent member of the bar, and the son began the study of that profession, but changed to the ministry. He was made Chaplain of Randolph Macon College, a Methodist institution. After preaching throughout the Southern States, in 1873 he was made a bishop. He was about to preside over the California Conference, when he was seized with the illness which resulted in his death, at Richmond, Virginia, on the 27th of October.

EMANUEL, Dr. MAULEY, born in England; graduated from St. George's Hospital, London, and was a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons. He emigrated to Pennsylvania, and was for many years President of the Delaware County Medical Society. He was also justice of the peace, and at one time United States examining-surgeon for pensioners. The last ten years of his life he spent in Philadelphia,

where he died, in July, at the age of eighty-six.

ESTORGE, Dr. JOSEPH LEONARD, was born in Opelousas, Louisiana, in 1830, and died there, August 21st. He studied at the Royal College of Cahors, France, where he was a classmate of Gambetta. Having graduated in medicine, he was pursuing scientific studies in Paris when the war between the States recalled him to America. He was appointed a surgeon in the Confederate army in the trans-Mississippi Department. He was captured at Fort de Russey. After the war, he practiced his profession in St. Landry, and endeared himself to the people by his skill and devotion during the epidemic of 1878.

FARR, EVARTS W., was born at Littleton, New Hampshire, in 1840. He was educated at Dartmouth College. During the war between the States he entered the army as a private, and was promoted to the rank of major. In 1867 he was admitted to the bar. In 1876 he was a member of the Executive Council of New Hampshire. He was elected as Representative of the Third District of New Hampshire to the Forty-sixth and Forty-seventh Congresses of the United States. He died in Littleton, on November 30th.

FARRELL, Rev. THOMAS, born in Ireland, in 1823; came to America in his youth; was educated at Mount St. Mary's, and ordained by Archbishop Hughes. He was a Greek and Latin scholar of high attainments. During the war his great pastoral influence was all employed in behalf of the Government, as he was a staunch Union man. He died July 19th.

FISH, BENJAMIN, was born near Trenton, New Jersey, in 1785. In 1812, during the war with England, he was employed in transporting commissary and ordnance stores for the Government. When the first railroads were being constructed in the United States, he undertook to connect New York and Philadelphia by rail. His management was conservative. His rule was to wait one hour for a train, and then send out a locomotive to look for it. When asked by a conductor how long he should wait, his answer was, "Wait, sir, till you learn something." Mr. Fish was largely connected with various railroad and canal enterprises. He represented Nottingham in the State Legislature in 1833. He died on June 22d, in Trenton, New Jersey, aged ninety-five.

FORD, EDWARD LLOYD, publisher, died in New Jersey, December 16th, at the age of thirty-six. He was in the army during the late war, and came out as captain on the staff of General Birney. In 1867 the publishing firm of J. B. Ford & Co., of which he was a partner, was begun. Many notable books were published by this house and its successor. Captain Ford had a strong mechanical bent, and introduced many improvements. It was at his suggestion that the present mode of uniting a folding and pasting arrangement with the ordinary printing-press was first adopted. He in-

vented a machine for folding, which was connected with a Hoe rotary, and several other appliances, which have been patented. The "Christian Union," a weekly paper, then edited by Mr. Beecher, reached a circulation of 136,000 copies while his firm was its publisher.

FULLER, JEROME, died September 2d, 1880, at Brockport, in the seventy-fourth year of his age. Formerly a leading Whig of western New York, he represented Monroe County successively in the Assembly, 1843; in the Senate, 1848-'49; and in the Constitutional Convention of 1867. After Mr. Fuller left the Senate, President Fillmore appointed him (1851) Federal Judge of the Territory of Minnesota. When Minnesota was admitted as a State, Judge Fuller returned home, and in 1867 was elected County Judge of Monroe County during a succession of terms.

GITTINGS, Major ERSKINE, of the Third United States Artillery, was born in Maryland, in 1839. He graduated from the Military Academy, West Point, in May, 1861. After drilling troops for some time in Washington, he was promoted first-lieutenant, and served on the staff of General Runyon at Alexandria, Virginia, in the Port Royal Expedition, and the Department of the South. In the attack on Secessionville, South Carolina, October, 1862, he was wounded, and was promoted, for gallant and distinguished services, to brevet captain. He was at the fall of Vicksburg. He was again brevetted major for meritorious services at the siege of Knoxville, December, 1863. He was ordered to West Point after the close of the war, as Assistant Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy. He was appointed captain, February 5, 1867, and ordered to Fort Hamilton, where he died, September 20th.

HOLMES, THEOPHILUS HUNTER, Lieutenant-General in the Confederate Army, was born in North Carolina, in 1804. Appointed a cadet at West Point in 1825, he graduated in 1829, and, as brevet second-lieutenant, was assigned to the Seventh Infantry Regiment. He declined a second-lieutenancy of dragoons in 1833. In 1835 he was made first-lieutenant, and in 1838 he became a captain. For gallant and meritorious conduct at Monterey he was brevetted major. After the Mexican War, he was stationed in Missouri, New Mexico, and Texas. In 1860 he was ordered to Fort Columbus, New York, on recruiting service. He went on leave of absence to North Carolina, where he owned large estates. In 1861 he resigned his commission, and entered the Confederate army. He commanded at Aquia Creek, and engaged in the various campaigns of the Army of Northern Virginia, until he was appointed by President Davis to the command of the trans-Mississippi Department. He died at Fayetteville, North Carolina, on June 20th.

IRVING, Rev. THEODORE, LL. D., was born in New York, in 1809. In 1826 he joined his celebrated uncle, Washington Irving, in Europe,

and spent three years in Madrid, London, and Paris. In 1836 he was appointed Professor of Belles-lettres in Geneva College, New York. After twelve years he was transferred to a professorship in the Free Academy, now the College of the City of New York. In 1856 he was ordained a priest in the Episcopal Church, and was rector of Christ Church, Long Island, and of two parishes on Staten Island. He was also assistant rector of the Church of the Holy Trinity. Mr. Irving was the author of the "Conquest of Florida by Hernando de Soto" (1835); "The Fountain of Living Waters" (1854); "Tiny Fountains" (1869), and "More than Conqueror" (1873). He died December 20th, in New York.

JOHNSON, BUSHROD R., Confederate general, was born in Ohio, in 1817, graduated from West Point and served in the regular army until the close of the Mexican War, when he resigned and became Superintendent of the Western Military Institute, of Kentucky. He also acted as Professor of Engineering, Mechanics, and Natural Philosophy. This Institute was removed for sanitary reasons to Nashville. When Tennessee seceded he joined the Confederate side. At Fort Donelson he was captured with his command. He took part in many of the battles, and in 1863 attained the rank of major-general. After the surrender he resumed his professorship at Nashville. He died at his home in Illinois, on September 11th.

KINNEY, WILLIAM BURNET, was born at Morristown, New Jersey, in 1800. His grandfather, Sir Thomas Kinney, came on a scientific tour to America, and ended by settling in Morris County. His father, Colonel Abraham Kinney, was a gallant Revolutionary officer and quartermaster-general during the war of 1812. His mother was Miss Hannah Burnet, a descendant of the famous Bishop of Salisbury. William B. Kinney was educated at Princeton, and after having studied law, medicine, and theology, he finally chose the profession of literature and settled down to journalism. He founded the Newark "Daily Advertiser," which afterward passed into the hands of his son Thomas. In 1841 Mr. William B. Kinney contracted a second marriage with the authoress, Mrs. Elizabeth C. Stedman, mother of the poet, Edmund C. Stedman. In 1850 President Taylor sent Mr. Kinney to the court of Victor Emanuel, of Sardinia, as United States Minister. After three years' residence at Turin he removed to Florence for the purpose of collecting material for a history of Tuscany. This work, which he had long meditated, is still incomplete. In 1865 Mr. Kinney returned to his native country, and has lived in comparative retirement. He died in Morristown, October 21st.

LOGAN, Judge STEPHEN J., born in 1799; died at Springfield, Illinois, July 17th. He had been a resident of that State since 1833. He was the law partner of Abraham Lincoln, be-

fore his election as Judge, which office was twice conferred upon him. He was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention of 1847, and was a member of the State Legislature for four terms.

McCLOSKEY, Dr. JOHN, D. D., President of Mount St. Mary's College, Emmetsburg, Maryland, was born in Ireland, in 1817. Brought to America at an early age, he entered Mount St. Mary's in 1830, and pursued his theological as well as his classical studies there. He was ordained by Bishop Hughes, of New York, in 1840. He returned to his college, and in 1844 was made its vice-president. He was elected president in 1871. He resigned in favor of Dr. Watterson in 1877. Dr. McCloskey resumed the presidency in 1879. He died at his post of usefulness and honor December 24th.

MACWHORTER, Professor ALEXANDER, born in New York, in 1822, was the grandson of Dr. MacWhorter, chaplain of General Knox's brigade of artillery, of Revolutionary fame. Professor MacWhorter was a graduate of Yale College in 1842. He filled the chair of English Literature and Metaphysics at the Troy University. He was a profound Hebrew scholar, and published, in 1857, "Yahveh Christ, or the Memorial Name," in which he tried to prove that the word Jehovah should be Yahveh, "He who shall be," meaning Christ. His argument is ingenious. He wrote largely for reviews; his last article, "The Edemic Period of Man," is learned. He died in July, at New Haven.

MERRIAM, GEORGE, was born in 1803, in Worcester, Massachusetts, died June 22, 1880, in Springfield, where he was a member of the well-known Webster's Dictionary publishing firm of G. & C. Merriam. At the age of fifteen years he went into a printing-office, where he acquitted himself with such credit that when he became of age he was taken into partnership. In 1831 he removed to Springfield and established with his brother the firm that has since become famous, and in 1847 bought the plates and copyright of Webster's Dictionary, which was, at that time, a drug on the market. This work they carefully reedited, having secured a series of scholarly revisions of it.

NEALE, Professor SAMUEL A., one of the most prominent colored men in the country, died at Frederick, Maryland, on August 16th, at the age of fifty-five. He was one of the Faculty of Avery College, Allegheny City, Pennsylvania. He took an active part in the political campaign of 1876, and was a member of the Republican State Central Committee of Pennsylvania.

NICHOLS, Rev. SAMUEL, D. D., was born November, 1787. He graduated from Yale College in 1811, and studied for the ministry of the Protestant Episcopal Church. He was probably the oldest presbyter of that Church in America at the time of his death, which occurred July 17th at Bridgeport, Connecticut. He was the friend of Chief-Justice Jay, and

officiated at his funeral. Williams College conferred his degree of Doctor of Divinity.

NOYES, Amos C., was born in Massachusetts, in 1818. He removed to Pennsylvania in 1848. In 1869 he was a member of the Legislature of that State. In 1877 he received the Democratic nomination for Governor, and was subsequently elected State Treasurer. He died September 4th, in Westport, Pennsylvania.

O'CALLAGHAN, Dr. EDMUND BAILEY, M. D., LL. D., was born in Mallow, County Cork, Ireland, in 1799. After completing his collegiate course, he spent two years in Paris. In 1823 he emigrated to Quebec. He was admitted to the practice of medicine in 1827. In 1834 he was editor of "The Vindicator." In 1836 he was elected a member of the Assembly of Lower Canada. After the insurrection, he removed to New York. He was a laborious student of the history of Canada and of the Colonial Annals of New York. He published treatises and essays on that subject, translating French and Dutch documents, and preserving many curious political and family anecdotes. His "History of the New Netherlands, or New York under the Dutch," appeared in 1846, and has passed through several editions. In the office of the Secretary of State at Albany he collated and edited for the State the records embodied in the fourteen volumes of the "Documentary History of the State of New York," and eleven volumes containing "Documents relating to the Colonial History of New York." This work required the devotion of twenty-two years. Afterward, in 1870, he removed to New York City. His long labors in behalf of American history ended only with his life. He died in New York, May 27th.

O'KEEFE, Rev. EUGENE, was born in Cork, Ireland, but came to America in his boyhood, and was educated at the College of St. Francis Xavier, and afterward at the Sulpician College, Montreal. After his ordination he began his labors in the house of the Bishop of Toronto, where he remained until 1864, when he took charge of a parish in New Jersey. He was a profound linguist and classical scholar. He is most widely known by his translations from the Italian and Greek languages. He died in New York, September 22d.

OMOHUNDRO, J. B., better known as "Texas Jack," was one of the most noted scouts of the Far West. In the Sioux campaign of 1876, under General Crook's command, he was employed by the Government. After the defeat of the Sioux he rode three hundred and twenty-five miles in six days through a hostile country, bringing the news twenty-four hours earlier than the military authorities. He died May 28th, at Leadville, Colorado, and was buried with military honors.

OPDYKE, GEORGE, ex-Mayor of New York, was born in Hunterdon County, New Jersey, in 1805. Though descended from Gysbert Opdyke, one of the early Knickerbocker settlers, the father of George Opdyke was a plain

farmer who could give his son no advantages for education except what he could gain from a winter night-school after farm-work was done. Yet he so improved his limited opportunities that at sixteen he himself took up the profession of a schoolmaster. At eighteen he went West to seek his fortune. He first stopped at Cleveland, Ohio, then a mere frontier town. From there he moved to New Orleans. In 1832 he returned, engaging in business in New York City while he continued to reside in New Jersey. He represented this State in the Buffalo Convention in 1848 as a Free-soil Democrat. In 1858 he was elected to the Legislature. He showed himself so zealous in protecting the valuable franchises of New York City from spoliation that, while he alienated some members of his own party, he received the nomination for Mayor in 1859. Defeated in that election, he was renominated and installed in 1860. His administration extended over the eventful years of 1863 and 1864, and was marked by firmness and vigor. The draft riots were repressed, and many important acts were passed. In 1851 Mr. Opdyke published a work on political economy. While a member of the Board of Currency he showed his mastery of the subject of finance, and carried through some measures to prevent the recurrence of commercial panics. He died in New York, on the 12th of June, in the seventy-fifth year of his age.

PEIRCE, Professor BENJAMIN, the mathematician, was born at Salem, Massachusetts, in 1809. He graduated at Harvard in 1829. He was for some time Tutor of Mathematics in his college. In 1833 he became Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, and in 1842 he was made Professor of Astronomy and Mathematics. In 1849 the Government appointed him Consulting Astronomer in the preparation of the "American Nautical Almanac." He was a member of the Scientific Council charged with the organization of the Dudley Observatory at Albany. From 1867 to 1874 he was Superintendent of the Coast Survey, in place of Professor Bache. He was the author of the mathematical text-books used in Harvard. He supervised the "Cambridge Miscellany of Mathematics, Physics, and Astronomy." He was the writer of many widely known papers on "Potential Physics," "Celestial Mechanics," "The Discovery of Neptune," and other kindred topics. He died October 6th, at the age of seventy-one.

PELLICIER, Right Rev. A. D., Bishop of San Antonio, Texas, was born in Florida, in 1824; educated at Spring Hill College, Mobile, and ordained in that city in 1850 by Bishop Portier. He was consecrated Bishop of San Antonio on December 8, 1874. He died there, April 14th.

PHELPS, Rev. ELISHA, D. D., was born at Belchertown, Massachusetts, in 1790, and died at Weehawken, New Jersey, December 29th. He was ordained a minister of the Presbyterian Church in 1815. After a pastorate at

Brookfield, Massachusetts, and another at Geneva, New York, in 1835 he was elected Secretary of the American Education Society in Philadelphia. In 1850 he retired from active service. He was one of the earliest advocates of the temperance cause. He was father of Professor Phelps, of Andover, and grandfather of the authoress Elizabeth Stuart Phelps.

PILLOT, ANDREW P., was born in France in 1796. He served under Napoleon in his last two campaigns. He afterward removed to America and engaged in commerce, first in Charleston, and later as a banker in New York. His firm, Pillot & La Barlié, first established the cotton-trade between New York, Liverpool, and Havre. His large fortune was swept away by the sudden fall in prices at the close of the war. He died at Orange, New Jersey, on July 10th, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

READ, Mrs. SOPHIA HOWARD, died in Baltimore, on November 21st, at the age of eighty. She was the last surviving child of Colonel John Eager Howard, the hero of the Cowpens, who, after passing with distinction through the Revolutionary War, was four times elected Governor of Maryland, and finally represented his State in the United States Senate. His ancestral estates occupied a portion of the land on which Baltimore stands. Out of it he donated the land for the Washington Monument. He was appointed a brigadier-general in the regular army organized by General Washington. Sophia Howard was born in 1800, at her father's Belvidere estate. Born and reared in luxury, she wished to marry a penniless young lawyer, George Channing Read, of South Carolina. Her father's consent being denied, they made a runaway match. The brilliant belle of a few weeks past began housekeeping on the narrowest scale, in her husband's back office. The father soon relented, and she inherited from him a large fortune. Her eldest daughter married an Englishman, a near relative of Cardinal Weld. Her second daughter was married first to Albert Carroll, great-grandson of Charles Carroll of Carrollton. Shortly after his marriage, Mr. Carroll, who joined the Confederates, was killed in battle in 1862. His widow remarried Mr. James Fenner Lee, a member of the Maryland Legislature. Mrs. Read was the friend of Mrs. Betsey Bonaparte, and up to a short period before her death was one of the most conspicuous figures in Baltimore society, and an historic link between the Revolutionary period and her own day.

SATTERLEE, RICHARD S., Brevet Brigadier-General, was born at Fairfield, Herkimer County, New York, December, 1798. He was the son of Major William Satterlee, who received his death-wound at the battle of Brandywine, shortly before the birth of his son Richard. He was commissioned in the army in 1822, and saw hard service against the Indians on the frontier. In 1837 he was at Tampa Bay, and was medical director on the staff of Gen-

eral Zachary Taylor. During the Cherokee campaign he was with General Scott. He was stationed on the frontier until the breaking out of the Mexican War, when he was made chief surgeon under General Worth. He was shipwrecked off Cape Horn on the transport San Francisco, while on the way to California. During the civil war he was Medical Purveyor of the army. He was retired by President Johnson. He died in New York, on November 10th.

SEARS, BARNAS, died July 6, 1880, at Saratoga, New York, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. Dr. Sears had long been prominent in educational affairs, was the author of several books on educational subjects, and for many years President of Brown University, at Providence. When George Peabody gave the fund for the promotion of education in the South, Dr. Sears was made manager, with an advisory Board of Trustees. He went to live in Staunton, Virginia, which was his residence at the time of his death.

SEDDEN, JAMES ALEXANDER, a descendant of William Alexander, Earl of Stirling, was born in Virginia, in 1815. He entered public life at an early age, and represented the Richmond district in the Twenty-ninth and Thirty-third Congresses, having defeated John Minor Botts, the Whig candidate. He was one of the Peace Commissioners in 1861. He was elected to the First Confederate Congress. In 1862 he was appointed Confederate Secretary of War. After the war he engaged in mercantile pursuits. He died in Goochland County, Virginia, August 19th.

SEGUIN, Dr. EDWARD, was born in France, in 1812, but removed to America in 1848, and established himself first in Ohio, and afterward in New York. His specialty was the treatment of idiocy, insanity, and nervous diseases. He was the first person who established in 1838 a school for the training of idiots. This has been the model of nearly a hundred institutions having this object. He has published many works treating the subject of idiocy and cognate matters. Since 1866 he has been engaged in researches on thermography, or the science of animal heat, in which department he made many notable discoveries. He was President of the American Association of Medical Officers having charge of Institutions for Idiots. His latest essay, "On the Training of the Idiotic Hand," was read at the last meeting of the American Medical Association. He died in New York, October 28th.

SIMONS, M. LAIRD, a journalist and literary man, died in Philadelphia, November 17th. He was born in that city, in 1843, and was a graduate of its Central High School. He was editor of "Stodart's Review." He condensed D'Aubigné's "History of the Reformation." He was the continuator of Duyckinck's "Cyclopedia of American Literature." He had just prepared a "History of the World" in many volumes, which was the last labor of his life.

He also published a series of books entitled "Half Hours with the Best Preachers."

SPOFFORD, HENRY M., was born in Massachusetts. His father was a clergyman, living then at Chilmark, on Cape Cod. He removed to Amherst to educate his sons. Henry M. Spofford graduated at the head of his class at Amherst College in 1840. He spent three years there as a tutor, and then removed to Louisiana, where he was principal of an academy in Bienville Parish. During this period he was studying law. After his admission to the bar in 1846, he settled in Shreveport, and became the partner of Judge Olcott, brother-in-law of Rufus Choate. His rise was rapid. He was elected Judge of the district in which Shreveport is situated in 1852. In 1854 he became Associate-Justice of the Supreme Court of Louisiana. In 1858 he resigned this position, and began practicing law in New Orleans. After the war he was taken as a partner by Hon. John A. Campbell, who had held the position of Associate-Justice of the United States Supreme Court until 1861, when he resigned it. Having amassed a fortune, Judge Spofford retired from the practice of the law, and lived chiefly on an estate in Tennessee. In 1877 he was nominated by the Democratic caucus for United States Senator, and was unanimously elected by the Louisiana Legislature to fill the term beginning March, 1877. The "Packard" Legislature, shortly before its disbanding, elected William Pitt Kellogg for the same term, and he took his seat. Judge Spofford made two contests against Mr. Kellogg, but was not admitted up to the time of his death, which occurred at the Red Sulphur Springs, West Virginia, August 20th.

STEVENS, Colonel AMBROSE, died in Lexington, Kentucky, December 10th, aged seventy-three. He commanded a regiment during the civil war. For the last four years of his life he was the editor of the "Live-Stock Journal." He was considered in England and America the highest authority on pedigrees and the raising of live-stock. He was a native of New York State.

THORNE, JOHN S., M. D., was born in New York in 1806, and graduated from Union College, Schenectady. He studied medicine, and settled in Brooklyn. During the prevalence of cholera, in 1832, he distinguished himself by his courage and successful practice. He was a founder of the Brooklyn City Hospital, and one of the Board of Regents of the Long Island College Hospital. For twenty-five years he was a member of the Brooklyn Board of Education, of which he was elected President. Dr. Thorne was also an associate of the King's County Medical Society, the Long Island Historical Society, and a trustee of the Packer Institute. He died, September 1st, in Brooklyn.

TILESTON, WILLIAM M., died in New York, April 22d, from injuries received at Madison Square Garden. He saw much travel in his youth, especially in China and Japan. In 1874

he became one of the editors and proprietors of the "Forest and Stream." His contributions were not confined to this one periodical; he wrote many stories and bits of travel which were published in Scribner's and other magazines.

WATSON, JAMES CRAIG, LL. D., was born of American parents in Elgin County, Ontario, in 1838. He graduated at the University of Michigan, in 1857. He became Instructor of Mathematics there, and assistant at the observatory. He was appointed Professor of Astronomy in 1859, Professor of Mathematics and Physics in 1860, and director of the observatory in 1863. In 1870 he was awarded the gold medal of the French Academy of Sciences for his discovery of eighteen asteroids. He went with the American expedition to Peking to watch the transit of Venus. While there he added a new asteroid to his list of discoveries. He gave it the name of Ne-wha, a Chinese goddess, who is said to have righted the heavens once when they had fallen into chaos. He observed the great solar eclipse of 1878 from Wyoming. His name is also connected with the discovery of a planet between Mercury and the sun. A fine observatory was built at Madison, Wisconsin, especially for his use. He is the author of "A Popular Treatise on Comets" (1860), and "Theoretical Astronomy" (1868). He died at Madison, Wisconsin, on November 23d, at the age of forty-two.

WINCHESTER, OLIVER F., ex-Lieutenant-Governor of Connecticut, was born in Boston, in 1810. He amassed great wealth, which he invested in a manufactory of rifles. He was President of the Winchester Repeating-Arms Company. In 1866 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of Connecticut. He made many benefactions to Yale College, and was founder of the Winchester Conservatory at Yale. He died December 10th, at New Haven.

WOLFE, JOEL, a direct descendant of General Wolfe, was born in Richmond, Virginia. He died in New York, on November 25th. He studied medicine, but abandoned it for a mercantile life. In 1846 he retired with a competent fortune. He was the originator of many charitable enterprises, and devoted his time and means to philanthropic objects during the last thirty-five years of his life.

WOOD, JOHN, ex-Governor of Illinois, died at Quincy, Illinois, on June 4th. He was born on December 20, 1798, in Cayuga County, New York. He went to Illinois in 1819. He was the founder of the city of Quincy, having been its first and only settler in the year 1822. He was successively City Councilman, repeatedly reelected Mayor, State Senator, and Governor.

WOOLWORTH, SAMUEL BUELL, LL. D., died in Brooklyn, New York, on June 30th. For more than half a century his life was devoted to the cause of education. In 1852 his marked ability caused his appointment as Principal of the State Normal School at Albany. He was elected, in 1856, Secretary and Treasurer of the Board of

Regents. This office he resigned in January, and by unanimous vote was appointed Honorary Secretary of the Board on the acceptance of his resignation.

OBITUARIES, FOREIGN. ANSTED, DAVID THOMAS, an English physicist, born in London, in 1814; died May 20, 1880. He was appointed in 1840 Professor of King's College, London, in 1845 Lecturer on Geology, in the East India Military Seminary at Addiscombe, and in the same year Professor of Geology at the College of Civil Engineers, Putney. He is the author of a large number of works and essays chiefly on geology. Among his latest writings are "Physiography" (1877), and "Water, Physical, Descriptive, and Practical" (1878). In 1874 he was engaged in directing the works of the Laurian Lead-smelting Company in Greece.

APUZZO, FRANCESCO, cardinal, priest, and Archbishop of Capua, was born in Naples, April 7, 1807; died July 27, 1880. At the Vatican Council, he made a moderate opposition to the declaration of the dogma of papal infallibility, but accepted the doctrine after its promulgation. He was made a cardinal in 1877. In the same year he was appointed Archbishop of Naples upon the death of Cardinal Kiarlo Sforza, and took possession of the see without asking the royal exequatur, thus precipitating a conflict between the Government of Italy and the Papal Court. He was not recognized by the Government, and even nominally imprisoned. In November, 1878, however, when the assassination of the King was attempted by Passenante, he hastened to congratulate the King upon his escape, and also conveyed the congratulations of the Pope. The Government then sent the Cardinal his exequatur, and the latter submitted to the Italian ecclesiastical law.

ASSING, LUDMILLA, a German authoress, born at Hamburg, February 22, 1821; died March 25, 1880. She was a niece of the celebrated Varnhagen von Ense, in whose house at Berlin she received, after the death of her parents, an excellent education, and became intimately acquainted with Alexander von Humboldt, Prince von Pückler-Muskau, and other celebrated men. She created a great sensation in the political world by the posthumous publication of the diaries of her uncle. An action brought against her at Berlin for traducing the King and Queen resulted in her being sentenced to eight months' imprisonment, and some time later she was again sentenced to two years' imprisonment. As she had taken up her permanent residence in Italy, she never actually underwent these punishments. In Italy she became intimately acquainted with Mazzini and other leaders of the Republican party, and published a number of works in the Italian language. She translated Mazzini's works into German, and wrote a number of works and essays on prominent men and the condition of affairs in Italy. Some of her latest works are: "Ausgenählte Schriften von Varnhagen von

Ense" (14 vols., 1871-'74); "Briefwechsel und Tagebücher der Fürsten von Pückler-Muskau" (4 vols., 1873-'74); "Fürst Hermann von Pückler-Muskau" (1873-'74). Of Varnhagen's posthumous works she also published: "Fr. von Gentz. Tagebücher" (4 vols., 1873-'74); "Briefe zwischen Varnhagen und Rahel" (6 vols., 1874-'75). A marriage which she contracted in December, 1874, with Cino Grimelli, a colonel in the Italian army, proved unhappy and ended in divorce.

AUZOUX, THÉODORE LOUIS JÉRÔME, a French anatomist, was born at Saint-Aubin d'Ecroville, in the department of Eure, April 7, 1797; died at Paris, on March 6, 1880. He graduated in Paris as a physician in 1822, and soon became known in the medical world by his system of *anatomie élastique*, a method of taking casts of the dead subjects in a paste which when dry becomes as hard as wood and impervious to moisture, exhibiting with perfect distinctness every vein and fiber. He established at Saint-Aubin a manufactory of such molds and produced types of each of the great families of natural history, from the elephant down to the mollusk, each divided into several hundred pieces. His establishment was celebrated for the judicious management of the workmen employed, and the artistic education it afforded to large numbers of the people of the district. He was the author of "Leçons élémentaires d'anatomie et de physiologie" (1839, third edition, 1858), and of various other professional essays.

BARRY, EDWARD MIDDLETON, an English architect, born in 1830; died January 29, 1880. He was the third son of the late Sir Charles Barry, whom he succeeded in 1860 as architect of the Houses of Parliament, which were completed by him. He was also the architect of Covent Garden Theatre and numerous other buildings. In 1867 his design for the new National Gallery was deemed the best by the judges. He was a Fellow and at one time Vice-President of the Royal Institute of British Architects, and an honorary member of several foreign societies. In 1873 he was elected Professor of Architecture in the Royal Academy, and Treasurer in 1874.

BELL, THOMAS, an English naturalist, born at Poole, Dorsetshire, England, October 11, 1792; died March , 1880. He was Professor of Zoölogy at King's College, London, for more than forty years from 1832, President of the Ray Society from its foundation until 1859, and President of the Linnæan Society from 1853 to 1861. He was a member of many European and American scientific societies, the author of numerous works and monographs on natural history, and a contributor to the transactions of some societies. For many years before his death he resided in Gilbert White's former dwelling at Selborne.

BRODIE, SIR BENJAMIN COLLINS, baronet, the eldest surviving son of the late eminent surgeon of the same name, born February 5, 1817;

died November 26, 1880. He succeeded to the baronetcy at the death of his father in 1862, being the second baronet. He was appointed Professor of Chemistry in the University of Oxford, and was for several years President of the Chemical Society.

BUCKLAND, FRANCIS TREVELYAN, an English naturalist, son of the geologist William Buckland, D.D., Dean of Westminster, born December 17, 1826; died in London, December 19, 1880. Having graduated in 1848 from Christchurch, Oxford, he was from 1854 to 1863 assistant surgeon in the army. He retired in order to devote himself wholly to natural history. In 1867 he was appointed Inspector of Salmon-Fisheries for England and Wales, and in 1870 special commissioner to inquire into the effects of recent legislation on the salmon-fisheries of Scotland. He had previously established at his own expense the "Museum of Economic Fish-Culture" in the Royal Horticultural Garden, in which are illustrated the modes of propagating fresh and salt water fish and oysters. In 1877 he was one of a commission to inquire into the crab and lobster fisheries of England and Scotland, which resulted in an act of Parliament for the protection of those mollusks. He also served in 1877 on a commission of inquiry into the herring-fisheries, and in 1878 he was engaged upon a committee relative to the sea-fisheries around England and Wales. No one has done more than Mr. Buckland for popularizing the subject of fishery cultivation throughout the civilized world, and his advice was sought not only by his own Government, but by those of Russia, Germany, France, the United States, and many other countries. In 1866, with the late Mr. Pfennell, he projected and started "Land and Water," and he contributed to this periodical up to the very day before his death. His four series of "Curiosities of Natural History" were first published in 1857, and several additions have since appeared. A "Familiar History of British Fishes" appeared in 1873, the "Logbook of a Fisherman and Zoölogist" in 1876, and a magnificent edition of Gilbert White's classical "Natural History of Selborne" (first published in 1789), largely annotated, was published in 1879. Mr. Buckland was a very decided opponent of the views of Darwin, and frequently expressed his dissent from them.

BUSCHMANN, JOHANN KARL EDUARD, a German philologist, born in Magdeburg, February 14, 1805; died April 21, 1880. At the age of twenty-two years he went to Mexico, where he studied the Aztec and other native languages. On his return he was recommended by Boff to Alexander and Wilhelm von Humboldt, both of whom he assisted in the preparation of their standard works. He was the author of Wilhelm von Humboldt's larger work on the Kaoli language of Java, containing a comparative grammar of the South-Sea languages. Of Alexander von Humboldt's "Kosmos" he published in 1862 the fifth volume, with a general

index of the entire work. He did not publish anything of importance during the last eighteen years of his life.

CHARLES, MICHEL, a French mathematician, born at Epernon, November 15, 1793; died at Paris, December 19, 1880. He was a pupil of the Polytechnic School, and in 1841 was appointed Professor of Astronomy and Mechanics in the same institution. Subsequently a professorship of Higher Mathematics was specially established for him by the Faculty of Sciences. He was regarded as one of the best analysts and geometricians of his age, and his principal works were translated into German and other languages. He was the victim of a very remarkable literary fraud,* having purchased from M. Irene Lucas a very large number of forged autograph letters of distinguished persons.

CRAWFORD and BALCARRES, ALEXANDER WILLIAM CRAWFORD LINDSAY, Earl of, eldest son of James Crawford, the twenty-fourth Earl of Crawford and ninth Earl of Balcarres, was born October 16, 1812; died December 16, 1880. He succeeded to the earldom in 1869, up to which time he had borne the title of Lord Lindsay. He wrote works on the Church of England, on his travels in the East, and on Etruscan inscriptions, and in 1874 sent at his own expense an expedition to Mauritius to observe the transit of Venus.

DIGBY, KENELM HENRY, an English author, was born in 1800; died, March 22, 1880. He was the youngest son of the Very Rev. W. Digby, Dean of Clonfert, who belonged to the Irish branch of Lord Digby's family. Graduating at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1823, he some time afterward joined the Roman Catholic Church. He wrote a number of theological and archaeological works, the last of which appeared in 1876 under the title of "The Epilogue to Previous Works in Prose and Verse." A son of Mr. Digby, Mr. Kenelm Thomas Digby, represented Queen's County in the House of Commons from 1868 to 1880, but was defeated at the election in 1880.

FLAUBERT, GUSTAVE, a French novelist, born in Rouen, in 1821; died at Croisset, near Rouen, May 8, 1880. He has sometimes been called the father of the realistic or naturalistic school, of which M. Zola is now the most celebrated representative. His first novel, "Madame de Bovary" (2 volumes, Paris, 1857), led to legal proceedings against him for immorality. The historical novel, *Salammbô*, which treats of life in ancient Carthage (1862), is considered his most important work. The next novel, "L'Education Sentimentale" (1869), did not meet with a favorable reception, but a fairy-play, written in the same year, "Le Château des Cœurs," met with a great success. His last great work, "Tentation de Saint-Antoine" (1874), was praised by many French critics as one of the master-works of French literature, but it found

only a small number of readers. Only a few weeks before his death he completed "Bouvard et Pécuchet" (1880), which has been styled a kind of cyclopædia of human folly.

FORTUNE, ROBERT, a Scottish botanist, born in Berwickshire, in 1813; died April 13, 1880. He became a horticulturist in the Botanical Gardens of Edinburgh, and, after acquiring a competent knowledge of botany by his own efforts, he was sent in 1842 as Commissioner of the Horticultural Society of London, to northern China; and on his return published a work, which was highly valued. In 1848 he was employed by the East India Tea Company to make investigations respecting the acclimatization of the tea-plant in India, and in 1857 by the United States Patent-Office to collect in China the seeds of the tea-shrub. He was a frequent contributor on botanical, geographical, and scientific subjects, to the "Athenæum" and other English periodicals.

FOURNIER, ÉDOUARD, a French author, born in Orleans, June 15, 1819; died in Paris, May 10, 1880. He early devoted himself to journalism and to writing for the theatre. His first dramatic work was published in 1851; his last, "Gutenberg," in 1865. Among journalists he was especially known as the dramatic critic of the "Patrie." With great perseverance he also pursued historical studies, among the fruits of which were a "History of Inventions," a "History of Hotels," a "History of the Art of Printing and of Libraries," and a "History of Bookbinding in France during the Past Centuries."

GALIMART, NICOLAS AUGUSTE, a French painter, born in Paris, March 25, 1813; died in Paris, January 19, 1880. A pupil of Ingres, he chose by preference sober and Scriptural themes, and for many years his name was never absent from the catalogue of the *Salon*. He also wrote on subjects connected with the fine arts.

GRAMONT, ANTOINE AGÉNOR ALFRED, Duke de, a French statesman, born in Paris, August 14, 1819; died January 16, 1880. After receiving an education at the Polytechnic School, he was sent in 1840 as Minister Plenipotentiary to Cassel. Subsequently he held similar posts at Stuttgart, Turin, Rome, and Vienna. From the latter city he was recalled in 1870, to be Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Ollivier Cabinet. He showed in this position a spirit of hostility to Prussia, and appeared to be anxious to bring on the war, which soon broke out, and ended so fatally for France. Though very popular at the time of his appointment, he soon fell from power when the French army suffered the first terrible disasters. Since the war the Duke had been almost forgotten. Under the pseudonym of "Andréas Memor," he published in the latter years of his life a series of articles in the "Revue de France," which attracted great attention.

GRANIER DE CASSAGNAC, ADOLPHE BERNARD, a French journalist and politician, born at

* For a full account of this fraud, see "American Cyclopædia," article CHARLES.

Bergelle-Averon, in the department of Gers, in 1806; died at the castle of Couloumé, in the same department, January 31, 1880. He came in 1832 to Paris, where he obtained, through Victor Hugo, employment on the "*Revue de Paris*," and later on the "*Journal des Débats*." Subsequently Girardin employed him on the "*Presse*," in which journal he defended negro slavery. His views on slavery endeared him to the planters of Martinique and Guadeloupe, and the last-named colony elected him as its delegate. As a supporter of M. Guizot, he made himself noted for the violence of his attacks upon the opposition journals. In 1848 he joined the Republicans; but two years later he started a journal, the "*Pouvoir*," in advocacy of "a strong man at the head of the Government." Since 1880 he has been one of the chiefs of the Bonapartist party, which he represented as deputy for the department of Gers in the Legislative Assemblies, both of the empire and, since 1876, of the republic. His attitude as a deputy was as violent and belligerent as in the press, and gave rise to many sensations. Of late he had taken but little part in journalism, being more than replaced by his son, Paul de Cassagnac. He was the author of numerous works, the last of which was entitled "*Souvenirs du Second Empire*" (1880), a reprint of a series of articles originally contributed to his son's paper.

HAHN-HAHN, IDA, Countess, a German authoress, born at Tressow, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, June 22, 1805; died at Mayence, January 12, 1880. She was married at the age of twenty-one to her cousin, Count Friedrich Wilhelm Adolf von Hahn-Hahn, but was divorced in 1829. In 1850 she joined the Roman Catholic Church, and in 1852 she entered the house of the Good Shepherd at Angers. Soon after, she took up her residence in a convent of the same order which was founded by her at Mayence. She had written a number of novels before she became a Roman Catholic, and she continued her literary activity as Superior of the convent, writing, besides several other works, twelve Catholic novels, the last of which, entitled "*Wahl und Führung*," was published in 1879.

HARTZENBUSCH, JUAN EUGENIO, a Spanish author, born in Madrid, September 6, 1806; died at Madrid, in August, 1880. His father was a German joiner, who had settled and married in Spain. He was educated by the Jesuits for the priesthood, but abandoned the Church for a literary career. The Revolution of 1823 having ruined the small fortune of his father, he learned a joiner's trade, and for several years supplemented his daily labors at the bench by his nightly pursuit of literature. His first efforts were translations or adaptations of French comedies. Subsequently he prepared some of Calderon's works for the modern stage, wrote lyric poems, learned short-hand writing, and became in 1835 stenographer for the official "*Gaceta de Madrid*." His first great dramatic

success was in 1835 with "*The Lovers of Zeruel*," which was followed by a number of other plays. He was elected to the Academy of Madrid in 1847, and became Director of the Royal Library in 1862. Of late years he had written little, but freely imparted his vast erudition to younger men.

HAGEN, ERNST AUGUST, a German art historian, novelist, and poet, born at Königsberg, April 12, 1797; died February 15, 1880. His first poem, "*Alfried and Lisena*" (Königsberg, 1820), which he published while a student at the university, was highly recommended by Goethe. He was a prolific author of works on the history of art.

JACOBS, JACQUES ALBERT MICHEL, otherwise known as Jacob Jacobs, a Belgian painter, born at Antwerp, in 1812; died in Antwerp, December 9, 1879. For many years he was professor at the Antwerp Academy, and painted chiefly landscapes and marines. He first exhibited when he was but twenty years of age, at Antwerp, Brussels, and Ghent, and quickly gained very favorable recognition. He received medals at Belgian exhibitions in 1836 and 1842, and one of gold in 1844; was made officer of the order of Leopold in 1864 and a member of the Academy of Antwerp in 1851. His funeral was of a semi-public character, being attended by the municipality of Antwerp, as well as the members of the Academy and a large gathering of citizens.

JONES, THOMAS RYMER, an English anatomist, born in 1810; died in London, in December, 1880. On the first establishment of King's College, London, he was appointed to the chair of Comparative Anatomy in that institution, and in 1840 he became Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution. The work by which he achieved the greatest reputation is "*The General Outline of the Animal Kingdom*," which was published in 1841, and is still regarded as a standard authority.

LANDSEER, THOMAS, an English engraver, born in 1794; died January 20, 1880. He was the eldest and last surviving of a celebrated trio of brothers, Charles Landseer having died in 1879, and Sir Edwin Landseer about six years ago. Thomas occupied for many years a distinguished place in the world of art, and especially excelled in mezzotint engravings. He executed among many other favorite subjects the "*Horse Fair*" of Rosa Bonheur, and he continued to practice his art with but scanty signs of failing power, down to 1879.

LEMAIRE, PHILIPPE, a French sculptor, born at Valenciennes, in 1798; died in August, 1880. He was a pupil of Cartellier, and obtained the grand prix de Rome in 1821. In 1836 he was charged with the task of decorating the Madeleine, and the gates of the Academy of Fine Arts were thereby opened to him. In 1862 he entered political life, in which he made a not inconsiderable figure, and from which he retired in 1869.

LESSING, KARL FRIEDRICH, a German painter,

born at Breslau, February 15, 1808; died June 6, 1880. His reputation as a great painter was fully established by his first picture, "Churchyard with Gravestones and Ruins" (1825). For a year or two he devoted himself to landscape; then he established himself at Düsseldorf, and came to be looked upon as the prominent pupil of the Düsseldorf school, of which Schadow was the master. Though for a time he sympathized with the sentimental romanticism of that school, he subsequently severed himself from the Catholic tendencies of Schadow, Veit, and other masters. This became especially apparent in a cyclis of pictures representing the history of Huss ("Huss before the Council of Constance," "The Seizure of Pope Paschal II," "The Martyrdom of Huss"), which gave him a world-wide celebration. In 1853 he painted the "Burning of the Papal Bull against Luther," which was purchased in New York. In 1858 he was appointed by the Grand Duke of Baden director of the gallery of paintings at Carlsruhe, which position he retained until his death. Since 1866 he was engaged on a large picture representing the disputation between Luther and Eck, but painted also a number of landscapes and portraits.

LIGNE, EUGÈNE, AMIRAL, PRINCE DE, a Belgian statesman, born January 23, 1804; died in June, 1880. In 1830 he was proposed as a suitable candidate for the new throne of Belgium, but he preferred to keep aloof from the national struggle. He subsequently accepted, however, the office of Belgian ambassador at several foreign courts. In 1851 he was elected President of the Belgian Senate, and in 1863 a Minister of State, positions which he continued to hold until his death.

MECHI, JOHN JOSEPH, a British agriculturist, born in London May 22, 1802; died in London December 26, 1880. His father was a native of Italy, but became a naturalized British subject, and was employed in the household of George III. The agricultural reform which he introduced on his farm at Tiptree Heath, Essex, and which he described in several works, attracted great attention. He was Sheriff of London, 1855-'56, Alderman, 1857-'65, a magistrate of Middlesex, a juror in the International Exhibition, of London and Paris, and a member of the Council of the Society of Arts. Shortly before his death his bankruptcy was announced.

MULDER, GERARDUS JOHANNES, a Dutch chemist, born December 27, 1802; died in April, 1880. He was from 1840 to 1868 Professor of Chemistry at Utrecht, and attracted great attention by asserting the existence in animals of a substance which he called "Proteine," and which according to his theory animals derive ready formed from plants. His theory involved him in a violent controversy with Liebig. He was for more than forty years adviser of the Colonial Ministry of the Netherlands, which position he retained seven years longer than his chair at the university,

until he became entirely blind. His last work, dictated after he had become blind, was a "Testimony in Behalf of Higher Instruction" (2 vols., 1876).

MUSSET, PAUL EDMÉ DE, a French author, born at Paris, November 7, 1804; died May 19, 1880. He was the eldest brother of the celebrated Alfred de Musset, and wrote a number of novels and two plays. He was a regular contributor to the "National," and the "Revue des Deux Mondes." His best-known work is "Femmes de la Régence" (1841).

NITZSCH, KARL WILHELM, a German historian, born December 22, 1818; died June 20, 1880. He was in succession Professor of History at the Universities of Kiel, Königsberg, and, since 1872, at Berlin. He was the author of a number of special works on topics of Grecian and Roman history.

OFFENBACH, JACQUES, a French composer, born at Cologne, June 21, 1819; died at Paris October 5, 1880. His parents were German Jews, but when sixteen years old he was entered at the Paris Conservatory, which was then under the direction of Cherubini, and after that his entire life was spent in Paris. In 1870, at the time of the Franco-German War, efforts were made to prejudice the Parisians against him as a Prussian, but he stoutly denied the charge of disloyalty, and published a declaration that, in spite of his birthplace, he was heart and soul a Frenchman. As a student at the Paris Conservatory he acquired a degree of proficiency in playing the violoncello, sufficient to warrant his seeking and securing a place in the orchestra of the Théâtre Français, of which he ultimately became the leader. His music to La Fontaine's "Fables" made him very popular, and his publisher encouraged him by liberal payments to direct his talent for composing bright and taking melodies, even if trivial in an artistic sense, to the embellishment of light comedies and vaudevilles. In 1855 he accepted the management of the Bouffes Parisiens, and in 1873 he became director of the Gaité Théâtre. Offenbach's career as manager and composer was eminently successful both in regard to the popular and the financial success which he achieved. Many of his compositions, as "Belle Hélène" (1864), "Barbe-bleue" (1866), "La Grande Duchesse" (1867), "La Périochole" and "Geneviève de Brabant" (1868), "Les Brigands" and "La Princesse de Trébizonde" (1869), "La Jolie Parfumeuse" (1873), and "Madame L'Archiduc" (1874), obtained a world-wide celebrity. Offenbach confined himself almost entirely to the limits of the *bouffe* stage; several efforts to compose a more serious style of music failed. In 1876 he came to the United States, and conducted the series of concerts with which Gilmore's garden in this city was opened. He published an amusing account of this journey under the title "Offenbach en Amérique." He returned to Paris late in the season very much broken in health, and re-

mained an invalid until the time of his death; still he continued at intervals to compose his merry music. His last published work was "La Fille du Tambour Major." At the time of his death the Opéra Comique was preparing to produce his new and most ambitious work, "Les Contes d'Hoffmann." Besides this, he left behind him a three-act opera, "La Belle Lurette."

ORENSE, JOSÉ MARIA D'ALBAIDA, Marquis, a Spanish statesman, born in 1802; died November, 1880. He took throughout his life an active part in all the republican movements in Spain. He headed the republican insurrection in Madrid in 1848. In 1868, after the overthrow of Isabella, he was the chief agitator for the establishment of a federal republic, and became chairman of the Liberal Committee, which demanded the abolition of slavery in the colonies. On the abdication of Amadeo in 1873, there was a general call for Orense to assume the Presidency of the Republic; but he declined, and absented himself from Madrid, though he subsequently accepted the Presidency of the Cortes for a brief period. Under Alfonso XII he took little part in public affairs.

PÉREIRE, ISAAC, a French financier, was born November 25, 1806; died July 12, 1880. He was, with his brother Émile, an ardent votary of St. Simonism, and he was the last survivor of the great representatives of that school. He originated the idea of publishing a daily report of the Bourse, which appeared at first in the "Journal des Débats." He had previously contributed financial articles to the "Globe" and the "Temps." With his brother Émile he was largely interested in the construction of French and Austrian railroads, and of a number of other public works. They were the founders and chief managers of the Crédit Mobilier. Ten years ago he became blind, but he never ceased to take the greatest interest in the financial schemes of his day, and the movements of the Bourse. He had bought the daily paper "La Liberté," and was himself its editor-in-chief. His contributions for charitable purposes were very large. Shortly before his death he offered 100,000 francs for the best essay on the distinction of pauperism. He was from 1863 to 1869 member of the Corps Législatif. He published in 1864 a brochure, entitled "Le Rôle de la Banque de France et l'Organisation du Crédit en France."

PETERS, CHRISTIAN AUGUST FRIEDRICH, a German astronomer, born September 7, 1806; died May 8, 1880. He was employed in the Observatory of Hamburg, and afterward of Pulkova, near St. Petersburg, and in 1839 became a director of the latter. He was appointed in 1849 Professor of Astronomy at Königsberg, in 1854 director of the Observatory of Altona, in 1872 director of the new Observatory of Kiel, and in 1873 professor of the university of the same city. He reported on his discoveries and observations in Schumacher's "Astronomische Nachrichten," in the mémoires

and bulletins of the Academy of St. Petersburg, and in the "Zeitschrift für Populäre Mittheilungen aus dem Gebiete der Astronomie," of which he himself was the editor.

PLANCHÉ, JAMES ROBINSON, an English author, born in London, February 27, 1796; died May 30, 1880. He produced more than two hundred plays for the theatre, of which "Charles XII" was considered one of the best. He also wrote a number of works on antiquarian subjects.

POUJOLAT, JEAN JOSEPH FRANÇOIS, a French author, born at La Fare, Bouches-du-Rhône, February 26, 1808; died at Paris, January 7, 1880. The first part of his life was mainly devoted to travel, the second to politics, and the third to essay-writing. He formed, when a very young man, the idea of illustrating the history of the Crusades, and for that purpose made extensive journeys in the East, the results of which he published conjointly with Michaud. He wrote a history of the French Revolution, biographies of St. Augustine (whose complete works he translated), Bossuet, Cardinal Maury, and many others. In the Constituent Assembly, to which he was elected in 1848, as well as in the Legislative Assembly, he constantly voted with the Right, the principles of which he defended in the brochure "La Droite et sa Mission."

RICASOLI, BETTINO, Baron, an Italian statesman, born at Florence, March 9, 1809; died at Rome, October 24, 1880. He was descended from an ancient noble family, and, after receiving an excellent education, devoted himself with great success to the cultivation of his extensive lands in the Maremma of Grosseto. He began to take an active part in Italian politics in 1847, when, conjointly with other Liberals, he demanded the introduction of constitutional institutions and of a liberal press law. In the same year he became *gonfaloniere* (mayor) of Florence. In 1848 he was elected member of the Tuscan Parliament, but in October of the same year he resigned, because he was opposed to the radical policy of Guerazzi and Montanelli, which was then in the ascendancy. After the battle of Novara, Ricasoli was in favor of recalling the Grand Duke; but when the latter invoked the invasion of Austria, and refused to restore the Constitution of 1848, he retired to private life, and did not reappear in politics until 1856. In 1859 he took a leading part in the overthrow of the Tuscan dynasty, and the union of the country with Sardinia. He was regarded as the principal coadjutor of Cavour in building the edifice of united Italy; and on the death of the latter, in 1861, became himself Prime Minister. In March, 1863, he was succeeded by Rattazzi, but he was recalled to the headship of the Ministry in 1866. He tried to regulate the relations between Italy and the Catholic Church by complete separation between church and state; but, being unable to secure a compact majority in Parliament, he resigned in April,

1867. He was out of sympathy with the Ultra-Liberal party, now in power, but continued to represent Florence in the Italian Parliament until his death.

RUGE, ARNOLD, a German author and philosopher, born at Bergen, on the island of Rügen, September 13, 1803; died December 31, 1880. At an early age he became a leader of German radicalism in politics, and of a new radical school of Hegelianism in philosophy. He was in succession editor of the "*Hallische Jahrbücher*," "*Deutsche Jahrbücher*," and "*Deutsch-französische Jahrbücher*." In the first German Parliament of Frankfurt he was the leader of the extreme Left. Being compelled, in consequence of his revolutionary activity, to leave Germany, and subsequently France, he formed in London, conjointly with Ledru-Rollin, Mazzini, Darac, and Bratiano, the "European Democratic Committee," from which he, however, soon withdrew. Since 1850 he resided in Brighton, as "visiting tutor" of several schools. The movements in 1866 and 1870 toward a union of the German states met with his warmest sympathy, and the German Government therefore gave him, in 1878, an annuity of three thousand marks.

STRATFORD DE REDCLIFFE, Viscount, better known as Sir Stratford Canning, born January 6, 1788; died in August, 1880. He was the son of Mr. Stratford Canning, a merchant of London, and received his education at Eton and at the University of Cambridge. In 1807, while still an undergraduate, he obtained an appointment as junior writer in the Foreign Office through the interest of his cousin, George Canning, who was then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the Duke of Portland's Administration. For the light duty of copying the dockets of dispatches sent to and received from foreign courts into a register for the national archives, he received a salary of about \$1,500 a year. In 1808 he was appointed secretary to the special mission of Mr. (afterward Sir Robert) Adair to Constantinople, when the latter was sent to negotiate terms of peace between England and the Porte. In April, 1809, he was named secretary of the embassy at Constantinople, and on July 12, 1810—being then but twenty-two years of age—he became Minister Plenipotentiary. In 1812 he resigned the mission at Constantinople, to go back to college to complete his education, taking the degree of M. A. in 1813. He was ordered to attend the Congress of Vienna in 1814-'15, and at the same time accepted the duties of Minister to Berne. In 1820, Lord Castlereagh sent him as Minister to the United States to settle the question of the Northwest boundary. In this mission he was not successful, for the British Government declined to ratify the engagements he had made. In 1824, George Canning, who had once more become the director of the foreign policy of England, sent him on a special mission to Russia respecting Greece, and for the regulation of a bounda-

ry line between British and Russian America. Some slight abruptness of manner on his part offended the Grand Duke Nicholas, who subsequently became Emperor, and never forgot the slight he had received. A few years later, when Emperor, he refused to receive Stratford Canning as ambassador to his court, and the latter, during his long stay at Constantinople, remained a violent opponent of the Russian policy. In 1825 he was appointed by George Canning ambassador at Constantinople, where he attained to a position of unrivaled authority and prestige. When he did not succeed in obtaining from Sultan Mahmoud the concessions in behalf of the Greeks which he demanded, he went to England on leave, to be present during the conferences of London. He returned to his post in 1827, but when, after the battle of Navarino, diplomatic relations with Turkey were broken off, he again came to England and received the Grand Cross of the Bath in acknowledgment of his services. In 1830 he resigned the embassy at Constantinople, retiring again on a pension, and was elected a member of the House of Commons. In the next year he accepted from Lord Palmerston a special embassy to Constantinople to settle a dispute relating to the Greek frontier. In 1831 he was sent on a special mission to Spain and Portugal. The next few years he passed in comparative retirement, though he sat in the reformed Parliament for King's Lynn. On the second advent of Sir Robert Peel to power in 1841, the new Foreign Secretary, Lord Aberdeen, sent him back to his old post in Constantinople, where he was to remain for seventeen years, and through four changes of Ministry—a circumstance which greatly added to his ascendancy over the Sultan's advisers. He was the steadfast friend of Reshid Pasha and the supporter of all his reforms, and uniformly exercised his influence to improve the condition of the Christian population of Turkey. He returned to England in the early part of 1858. He had previously (1852) been raised to the peerage, by the title of Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, and, after he took his seat in the House of Lords, he actively participated in the debates on questions of foreign policy. He was created Knight of the Garter, December 11, 1869. During the Russo-Turkish conflict from 1875 to 1878, he gave, in letters to the London "*Times*," several interesting contributions for a solution of the Eastern Question. A collection of poems, entitled "*Shadows of the Past*," reflecting upon the events of more than half a century, was published by him in 1865, and a summary of the evidences of Christianity, under the title of "*Why I am a Christian*," in 1873.

TAYLOR, TOM, an English author, born in Sunderland, in 1817; died July 12, 1880. He received his education at the Universities of Glasgow and Cambridge. He then went to London, where he was called to the bar, and was for two years Professor of English Lan-

guage and Literature at University College, London. In 1854 he became Secretary-in-Chief of the Board of Health. The functions of this body were eventually transferred to the Local Government Acts Office, which in its turn was merged in the Local Government Board. The office held by Mr. Taylor was thus abolished (1872), and, in recognition of the many services he had rendered in the way of sanitary improvement, a liberal pension was bestowed upon him. In the mean while he had gained a prominent place among men of letters as a dramatist, critic, biographer, and humorist. To the drama he devoted himself with particular ardor. From 1846 to 1875 he contributed in rapid succession more than one hundred pieces to the stage, the majority being adaptations of, or indirectly derived from, French plays or stories. His plays were generally distinguished by depth of interest, effective development of plot, and well-defined characters. Taking his *théâtre* in its entirety, the London "Times" pronounces him the first and most successful dramatist of his time. He wrote a "Life of Benjamin Robert Haydon" (3 vols., 1853), and completed the account begun by C. R. Leslie of the "Life and Times of Sir Joshua Reynolds." His early passion for acting continued unabated to the last, and in 1879, when "As You Like It" was played at Manchester in memory of Mr. Charles Calvert, he played *Adam* with unusual effect. From the time of his arrival in London he was associated with "Punch," and about seven years ago, at the death of Mr. Shirley Brooks, he became the editor of that periodical.

WAGNER, RUDOLF JOHANNES VON, a German chemist and technologist, born in Leipsic, February 13, 1823; died October 4, 1880. He became in 1851 Professor of Chemistry in Nuremberg; in 1856 extraordinary, and in 1858 ordinary Professor of Technology at the University of Würzburg, which position he retained until his death. In the same year he was appointed inspector of the technical schools in Bavaria. His authority as a technologist was generally recognized. He was a member of the juries at the International Exhibitions of London, Paris, and Amsterdam, and a member of German Imperial Commissions at the International Exhibitions of Vienna (1874) and Philadelphia (1876). For his work on the Exhibition of Vienna the King of Bavaria conferred upon him the Order of the Bavarian Crown, with which the personal nobility is connected. His chemical and technological works are very numerous. His "Handbuch der chemischen Technologie" (eleventh edition, 1879) has been translated into almost all living languages. He was the editor of the highly-valued "Jahresbericht über die Leistungen der chemischen Technologie" (vols. i-xxiv, 1856-1879). One of his last works was a "Report on the Chemical Products of the Centennial Exhibition of Philadelphia."

WIENIAWSKI, HENRY, a Polish violinist, born

July 10, 1835; died March 31, 1880. After receiving a musical education in Paris, he appeared in concerts at the early age of seventeen, and afterward achieved a reputation in both hemispheres as one of the greatest violinists of the age. In 1872 he came to the United States with Rubinstein.

OHIO. The debt of the State on November 15, 1880, was as follows:

Foreign debt, payable in New York:	
Loan payable July 1, 1868, not bearing interest.....	\$2,500 00
Loan payable after June 30, 1881, bearing 6 per cent. interest.....	4,072,640 80
Loan payable after December 31, 1886, bearing 6 per cent. interest.....	2,400,000 00
Total foreign debt.....	\$6,475,140 80
Domestic debt, payable at Columbus:	
Canal loan, not bearing interest.....	1,665 00
Total funded debt.....	\$6,476,805 80
Local indebtedness of the State:	
Debts of counties.....	\$2,858,856 99
Debts of cities.....	35,993,586 22
Debts of villages.....	964,593 56
Debts of townships.....	300,801 14
Debts of special school districts.....	1,188,997 77
Total local debts.....	\$41,297,745 68
Funded State debt.....	\$6,476,805 80
Irreducible State debt.....	4,323,005 60
	<hr/> 10,800,810 90

Aggregate public debts in the State. \$52,107,556 58

The following figures show the comparisons between the grand duplicate of taxes of 1879 and 1880:

Acres of land, 1879.....	25,376,264
In 1880.....	25,461,785
Increase.....	85,521
Value of lands, 1879.....	\$716,111,437
In 1880.....	705,821,074
Decrease.....	\$10,290,363
Value of real estate in cities, towns, and villages, 1879.....	
In 1880.....	\$377,657,467
	896,228,867
Increase.....	\$18,571,390
Personal property, 1879.....	\$442,979,885
In 1880.....	456,166,034
Increase.....	\$13,186,149
Total increase.....	\$31,757,589
Total decrease.....	10,290,363
Net increase.....	\$21,467,176

The total value of real property, as returned by the assessors and placed on the grand duplicate for 1880, was \$1,102,049,931. The decennial Board of Equalization subsequently reduced the amount to \$1,097,920,000.

The valuation of real property exempt from taxation in the State, as returned by the several county auditors to the Auditor of State for use of State Board of Equalization, is as follows: Total valuation exempted, \$77,068,743, classified as follows:

Colleges and academies:	
Number in State.....	227
Value of lands.....	\$866,651
Value of buildings.....	1,966,595
Total value.....	\$2,833,186
Public common school property:	
Number in State.....	11,763
Value of lands.....	\$2,153,950
Value of buildings.....	12,268,682
Total value.....	\$14,422,582

Churches:			
Number in State	7,488		
Value of lands		\$2,805,175	
Value of buildings		15,589,782	
Total value		\$18,394,957	
Public charitable institutions:			
Number in State	817		
Value of lands		\$1,820,624	
Value of buildings		9,862,970	
Total value		\$11,183,594	
All other buildings, etc., exempt from taxation:			
Number in State	957		
Value of lands		\$4,961,730	
Value of buildings		15,766,342	
Total value		\$20,728,072	
Valuation of cemeteries, public parks, etc.,			
\$6,006,402.			
The taxes levied for 1880 were as follows:			
State tax for 1880:			
Sinking fund		\$777,863 49	
General revenue fund		2,177,916 40	
State common school fund		1,557,460 84	
Total		\$4,513,240 73	
County general tax		\$2,476,795 48	
County poor-tax		715,259 43	
County bridge-tax		1,823,034 01	
County building-tax		606,548 47	
County debts		774,818 71	
Township general tax		850,077 80	
Township road-tax		898,457 88	
School-tax		5,958,310 80	
Special tax		1,198,941 81	
City tax		7,678,902 80	
Total		\$22,495,941 19	
State tax		4,513,240 73	
		\$27,009,181 92	
Delinquent tax		2,082,902 85	
		\$29,092,084 27	
Special dog-tax		253,875 00	
Grand total		\$29,345,959 27	

The report of the Board of Public Works for the year ending November 15, 1880, shows the canals to have done a successful business. The receipts from tolls and water rents were \$236,988.64, and the expenditures for repairs of an ordinary nature, and for work of an unusual character, were \$223,642.92, leaving a balance to the credit of canal fund of \$13,345.72. Balance brought forward from last year \$52,875.56, thus placing in the treasury, during the two and one half years under State management, \$66,221.28.

The report of the State Inspector of Mines shows that, since the mining law went into operation six years ago, new and approved systems of mining have been adopted in many cases. The ventilation and general security of the mines have improved, and, most important of all, the number of fatal and serious accidents have been greatly reduced. There are in the State over 600 mines reported.

The report of the Commissioner of Railroads and Telegraphs shows a large increase in the business of the railroads, a decided improvement in their condition, with a large increase of equipment, and a general degree of prosperity never before equalled.

The report of the Commissioner of Labor Statistics presents some facts of importance in the labor history of the State during the year.

The report notes the improved condition of mechanics and laborers engaged in the various industries of the State. Wages have increased, and, in the leading industries, the number of employees has been largely augmented. In the manufacture of pig-iron the number of employees has increased from 5,153, in 1878, to 9,796 in 1880, and in the rolling-mills the increase has been from 5,400, in 1878, to 10,746 in 1880. In the other industries the increase of employees has not been so marked, but the increase of employment to all connected with the industries is a matter for congratulation. Particular attention was paid by the Bureau to strikes during the year. There were in all 105 strikes, and of these 43 won, 34 lost, 23 compromised, and 5 remained undecided. On account of wages there were 73 strikes, as follows: At coal-mines, 22; Cincinnati, 14; Cleveland, 14; miscellaneous, 23. Of these 73 there were 27 won, 23 lost, 18 compromised, and 3 undecided. By occupation the strikes in the State were as follows: Coal-miners, 41; molders, 16; iron-workers, 7; coopers, 5; cigar-makers, 4; laborers, 4; printers, 3; boys, 3; machinists, 2; safe-makers, 2; freight and baggage handlers, 2; and one each of the following: Tanners, shoemakers, horse-shoers, hod-carriers, horse-collar makers, bricklayers, stonecutters, teamsters, iron-pipe makers, lamp-lighters, agricultural machine-makers, glass-workers, boiler-makers, paper-makers, tailors, and rope-makers. The report says that unsteady employment, with the accompaniment of its uncertain income, is a prime cause of labor strikes in Ohio. It is noticeable that strikes are more prevalent in those trades in which piece-work is the rule.

The following are some of the more important school statistics of the year, as reported by the State School Commissioner:

Amount of money received within the year:

Balance on hand September 1, 1879	\$3,549,422 51
State school-tax	1,558,207 32
Irreducible school fund	245,744 51
School-tax levied by local authorities	5,155,578 47
State school bonds by local authorities	340,804 75
From fines and licenses	225,589 41
Total receipts	\$11,075,646 97

Amount of expenditures for school purposes during the year:

Amount paid teachers in primary schools	\$4,530,183 46
Amount paid teachers in high-schools	442,358 18
Total amount paid teachers	4,972,541 64
Amount paid for managing and superintendency	141,681 30
Paid for sites and buildings	798,736 13
Interest on and redemption of bonds	537,455 99
Fuel and other contingent expenses	1,254,003 74

Total expenditures	\$7,704,448 05
Balance on hand September 1, 1880	3,371,198 12

Enumeration of children for school purposes in 1879:

White boys, school age	592,213
White girls, school age	496,582
Total whites, school age	1,018,795
Colored boys, school age	11,596
Colored girls, school age	12,019
Total colored, school age	24,525

Grand total, white and colored.....	1,043,320
Number between 16 and 21 years of age.....	273,250
Grand total high and primary school enrollment.....	747,133
Per cent. average daily attendance is of average monthly enrollment, townships.....	.77
Same as to separate districts.....	.83

Number and cost of school-houses erected within the year: Houses erected, 442; total cost, \$711,835.

The number of school-houses in the State is 12,143; value, \$21,851,718. The number of school-rooms is 16,247, and the number of teachers necessary to supply the schools is 16,627.

The statistics of the Ohio Penitentiary for the year show the number of convicts who can not read to be 111; number who can not write, 165; number who can not read or write, 955; number having common school education, 40; collegiate education, 3. Total number of convicts in the prison, October 31, 1880, 1,231; male, 1,214; female, 17; white, 1,057; colored, 180. Under twenty-one years of age, 267; between twenty-one and fifty years of age, 883; between fifty and sixty years of age, 63; over sixty years of age, 18. Terms: Under ten years, 1,043; over ten years, 113; for life, 75.

The annual cost per capita of each inmate in the different State institutions is figured out to be as follows:

INSTITUTIONS.	No. of patients.	Per capita.
Columbus Asylum.....	840	\$173 56
Cleveland Asylum.....	620	146 73
Athens Asylum.....	620	156 45
Dayton Asylum.....	620	185 48
Blind Asylum.....	173	289 08
Deaf and Dumb Asylum.....	433	172 55
Idiotic Asylum.....	466	165 41
Xenia Home.....	578	139 54
Boys' Reform School.....	512	150 40
Girls' Reform School.....	240	121 06

The State Board of Agriculture made, during the year, an endeavor to obtain more accurate returns of the crops of the State than had been obtainable through the township assessors, and at an earlier period. The result was satisfactory so far as regards wheat, the other crops being partly estimated. The returns showed 2,909,657 acres cut in 1880, yielding 52,673,083 bushels, or 18.1 bushels to the acre; 46,489 acres were reported winter-killed. The number of acres sowed for 1881 was 2,994,210. Nearly all the poor yields of wheat are found in the two tiers of counties nearest the Ohio River, which are largely mining regions, hilly, and more adapted to sheep than to wheat. In the twenty poorest counties the yield was a little over ten bushels to the acre, and in the remaining sixty-eight counties nearly twenty bushels to the acre. The other crops, partly estimated, were 115,321,472 bushels corn; 17,867,289 bushels oats; 1,396,098 bushels barley; 287,095 bushels rye; 1,129,425 gallons sorghum; 32,126,685 pounds tobacco; 17,722,626 bushels apples; 2,038,466 pounds maple sugar; 383,791 gallons maple-sirup. The amount of butter and cheese reported was

over 50,000,000 pounds of the former, and 26,000,000 pounds of the latter. The Board of Agriculture report pronounces these figures unreliable, being in some of the most important counties far below the facts. Of the agricultural products of the State, wheat ranks first in commercial importance; next corn; the wool and mutton crop was reported more in value than all the coal mined in the State, at net prices; during the year the number of hogs raised decreased twenty per cent., while the number of sheep materially increased; butter is of very uniform production throughout the State, and even at the insufficiently reported yield, ranked one fifth as much as wheat; cheese is mainly produced in about twenty northerly counties, though its production is gradually spreading over a wider area; hay was a large and valuable crop. Oats, barley, rye, and buckwheat are reported as not paying crops in Ohio, taking year by year.

The cultivated land of the State is reported at 8,770,402 acres; pasture-land, 5,852,185 acres. About one fourth the entire area of the State is woodland.

The Sixty-fourth General Assembly met January 5th, with a Republican majority in both Houses, the previous Legislature having been Democratic. In the Senate were twenty-two Republicans and fifteen Democrats, and in the House sixty-nine Republicans and forty-five Democrats. The organization of the House was effected by the election of Thomas A. Cowgill as Speaker. One of the members of the House, G. W. Williams, of Hamilton County, was colored, and, on entering a restaurant in Columbus just after the organization, he was refused to be served on account of his color. The matter was brought to the attention of the House, and a committee of investigation reported the proceeding to be an insult to the House in the person of one of its members. On the 12th of January Charles Foster was inaugurated Governor, succeeding, as a Republican, the Democratic Governor, Richard W. Bishop, Lieutenant-Governor Hickenlooper at the same time succeeding Lieutenant-Governor Fitch as presiding officer of the Senate. On the 14th James A. Garfield was elected United States Senator. He subsequently resigned his seat in Congress as Representative from the Nineteenth District, and Ezra B. Taylor was elected to fill the balance of the term, receiving 11,791 votes against 1,395 votes cast for all others.

The previous (Democratic) Legislature had redistricted the State for Congressional purposes, it being the first instance of change in the districts between the regular decennial apportionments. This had formed one of the issues in the State election of 1879, and, in accordance with the apparent verdict at the polls, the new Legislature passed, among its first laws, an act restoring the districts as they stood before the change made by the Sixty-third General Assembly. Another proceeding

by the previous Legislature was the passage of laws for the reorganization of the several State, venal, reformatory, and charitable institutions, so that the Democratic Governor could appoint new Trustees. It was expected that the new Legislature would undo this work, but there was a disagreement among the majority as to the best manner of accomplishing the purpose, and the bill was not passed until near the close of the session. In the form in which it finally became a law it gave the Governor discretionary power, providing that he "may" appoint trustees, by and with the consent of the Senate, instead of directing that he "shall" do so. Immediately after being notified of the passage of the bill Governor Foster commenced the work of reorganizing the institutions by sending in to the Senate batches of nominations. The names sent in were selected according to a defined plan, and the additional nominations made afterward were selected upon the same principle. The full term of service of the trustees is five years, and the term of one trustee expires every year. The first appointments being for unequal terms of years, Governor Foster chose Republicans for the two short terms and the longest term, and Democrats for the three- and four-years' terms. The object was to remove the inducement for any further reorganization for purely political reasons. The board of each institution is formed at the start of three Republicans and two Democrats, the Executive and Legislature being Republican. A change of power in the State would reverse those proportions, but no more, and it would be impracticable for either party to do more, for some time, than secure the bare majority on each board.

Several attempts were made during the session to free legislation on the liquor question, but most of them without practical result. A bill to regulate the sale of liquors by compelling retail dealers to give heavy bonds as security for any actionable damage under the personal injury liquor law failed for lack of a constitutional majority, as did a local option bill after a very severe struggle. There were repeated endeavors to pass an act regulating the publication and use of school-books in the State, but without success. A bill passed the Senate, but remained unacted on in the House during the session of 1880, preventing the selling of pools upon the result of horse-races, walking-matches, or any other trial of speed or endurance on the part of either horse or man. The punishment to be inflicted upon violators of the law is a fine of no more than five hundred dollars or less than five dollars, or imprisonment not more than six months or less than ten days, or both if the Court deems it necessary.

An endeavor was made to establish a precedent for the admission of women to school boards by so amending a bill for the election of school trustees in Cincinnati as to permit women to be chosen. The Senate passed the measure, but the House rejected it.

The Legislature adjourned April 17th, until January 4, 1881, after passing over two hundred laws of a general nature, and a number of local laws. Among the acts passed, in addition to those mentioned, were laws increasing the penalty for violation of liquor laws from fifty dollars to one hundred dollars for selling to minors or habitual drunkards; prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors within four miles of harvest-home festivals; making the penalty for grave-robbing imprisonment in the Penitentiary from one to five years; and a number of acts authorizing counties and towns to build railroads within their limits.

The Prohibition State Convention met in Columbus March 5th, and commenced proceedings by the adoption of the following platform of principles, reported from the committee:

1. That we reaffirm the principles and measures heretofore declared by the Prohibition Reform party, in our State and National Conventions.

2. That, asserting our rights as electors, we demand from the law-making power prompt and adequate protection of the people against the enormous wrongs inflicted upon them by the liquor crime, and this demand we call upon all good citizens to aid us in enforcing at the ballot-box.

3. That, as a step in that direction, we recommend the enactment of a law combining State with local option against the liquor-traffic on the plan proposed in the bill from the majority of its Committee on Bills, submitted by the Local Option State Convention of last January to the Legislature.

4. That this Convention hereby tenders to that worthy and distinguished daughter of Ohio, Mrs. R. B. Hayes, its thankful honors for the moral courage she has evinced and the high example she has placed before the world in her efforts to exclude from her table and from the public banquets and receptions at the White House all intoxicating beverages.

5. That, duly estimating the value and importance of all preventive agencies against the liquor crime, we cordially second the present movement among the friends of the cause for practically uniting temperance with education by the introduction of temperance textbooks in the public schools.

6. That we urge on all temperance citizens the duty of immediate and thorough local organization; and we recommend that they meet in their several places on the last Monday evening of this month, where such action is not before had, and where party lines are drawn, nominate full Prohibition Reform corporation and township tickets for the April election; and that they maintain at all elections hereafter total separation from all parties and politicians who are in complicity with the liquor crime.

The following additional resolutions were also adopted:

Whereas, In the hour of peril when the life of this Nation was threatened by secession and rebellion the citizen became the soldier and went forth to battle for his country's life; and

Whereas, To the soldier and the children of the soldier this nation owes a debt of gratitude; therefore

Resolved, That the fostering of the liquor-traffic by the General Government for a revenue, and the protection of it by State legislation, whereby the soldier and his family are deep sufferers, are not only acts of great ingratitude, but are wrongs unparalleled in any heathen nation.

Resolved, That the proposition, whether coming from a conference or a Legislature, to defer action on the liquor question until after the Presidential election in order to get the liquor vote, implies that that vote is deemed essential and useful in determining the issues

of that election, and on account of such just and necessary implication is therefore dishonest, hypothetical, and disloyal to American institutions.

The following ticket was nominated: For Secretary of State, William H. Doan, of Cuyahoga County; for Judge of the Supreme Court, William Mungen, of Hancock County; for Clerk of the Supreme Court, George Calderwood; for Member of the Board of Public Works, J. H. Lorimer, of Clarke County; for State School Commissioner, James A. Brush, of Stark County. Mr. Mungen declined the nomination, and William F. Ross was selected to fill the vacancy on the ticket.

The Republican Convention for the nomination of a State and Presidential electors ticket, and for choosing delegates to the Republican National Convention, met in Columbus April 28th. The delegates were first chosen, those for the State at large being ex-Governor William Dennison, Hon. James A. Garfield, Governor Charles Foster, and Warner M. Bateman. A State ticket was then nominated as follows: For Secretary of State, Charles Townsend, of Athens County; for Judge of the Supreme Court, George W. McIlvaine (renominated); for Clerk of the Supreme Court, Dwight Crowell, of Ashtabula County; for Member of the Board of Public Works, S. R. Hosmer, of Muskingum County; for State School Commissioner, D. F. De Wolf, of Lucas County; for Presidential electors at large, Charles H. Grosvenor, of Athens County; S. S. Warner, of Lorain County. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That we reaffirm the principles enunciated in the resolutions adopted by the last Republican National Convention.

Resolved, That we are in favor of the extension of the system of free public schools throughout the whole country, supported by general taxation, exempt from sectarian influences, and open to every child of proper age; and to that end we are in favor of all appropriate and constitutional legislation.

Resolved, That we are in favor of a full protection by the national Government of every citizen of the United States, native or naturalized, as well within as without our territorial limits, in the exercise of every right conferred upon him by its Constitution and laws, and against every infraction of such right, in whatever way or by whomsoever committed; and for the purpose of affording such protection the whole power of the Government should be used.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the national Government to protect the election of representatives in Congress from fraud and violence, and we condemn the attempts of the Democratic party to nullify or repeal existing laws on this subject as unpatriotic and calculated to encourage and foster fraud.

Resolved, That we are in favor of the maintenance of a sound currency based upon coin, or upon notes redeemable in coin, and the sacred observance of the public faith against all taint or suspicion of evasion or repudiation.

Resolved, That we congratulate the country upon the resumption of specie payments, now assured and permanent, as the fruits of Republican policy and the splendid achievement of Republican administration; and we likewise congratulate the country upon the general revival of business and industry, secured as they are by the soundest and most convenient currency and the wisest financial policy the country ever enjoyed.

Resolved, That the great ability, invaluable services,

long experience, pure and exalted character, and unwavering fidelity to Republican principles of our distinguished fellow-citizen, John Sherman, entitle him to the highest honors and confidence of the Republican party of Ohio and of the country. His matchless skill and capacity as a financier have mainly contributed to accomplish the invaluable and difficult work of resumption and refunding the public debt, and made him the trusted representative in public life of the business interests of all classes of the American people. He has been trained from the beginning of his public life in the advocacy of the rights of man, and no man has been more unfaltering in his demand that the whole power of the Government should be used to protect the colored people of the South from unlawful violence and unfriendly local legislation; and in view of his services to his country and his eminent ability as a statesman, we, the Republican party of Ohio, present him to the Republican party of the country as a fit candidate for President, and respectfully urge upon the Republican Convention at Chicago his nomination.

Resolved, That the delegates at large chosen by this Convention are hereby instructed to vote for and to use all honorable means to secure the nomination of John Sherman by the National Republican Convention at Chicago for President, and the district delegates are respectfully requested to vote for him.

Resolved, That we cordially endorse the Administration of President Hayes in maintaining the legislation, principles, and purposes of the Republican party, designed as they are to maintain the existence of the Government, to protect all citizens in the enjoyment of all rights given or guaranteed by the Constitution and laws, and to secure prosperity to the industries of the country.

Resolved, That we pledge the united and earnest efforts of the Republicans of Ohio for the election of the nominees of the National Republican Convention.

The Democratic State Convention to select delegates to the Democratic National Convention was held at Columbus May 6th. The Democratic Convention for the nomination of a State ticket met in Cleveland July 22d. The platform was adopted before the nominations were made, and was confined to the following two resolutions:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Ohio heartily endorse the candidates of the National Democratic Convention, and that we will zealously labor for the election of Hancock and English, and for the candidates for State offices this day nominated.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Ohio adopt as their own the National platform. (See UNITED STATES.)

The ticket nominated was as follows: For Secretary of State, William Lang, of Crawford County; for Judge of the Supreme Court, Martin D. Follett, of Washington County; for Clerk of the Supreme Court, Richard J. Fanning, of Franklin County; for Member of the Board of Public Works, William J. Jackson, of Miami County; for State School Commissioner, J. J. Burns, of Belmont County; for Presidential Electors at Large, R. P. Ranney, of Cuyahoga County; John F. Follett, of Hamilton County.

The Greenback Labor Convention was held at Columbus July 28th, and put in nomination the following ticket: For Secretary of State, Charles A. Lloyd, of Huron County; for Judge of the Supreme Court, D. W. C. Louden, of Brown County; for Clerk of the Supreme Court, Charles Bonsell, of Columbiana County; for Member of Board of Public Works, Amos Roberts, of Knox County; for State School

Commissioner, R. B. Smart, of Ross County; for Presidential Electors at Large, Harry Kellogg, of Lucas County; L. T. Foster, of Mahoning County.

The platform endorsed the Chicago resolutions, favored a woman suffrage amendment to the Constitution, called for reduction of the fees of public officials, denounced payment of employees by corporations in scrip or store goods, and demanded a law for its punishment as a crime. The last resolution said that land, light, air, and water are free gifts of Nature, and any law or custom of society that allows any person to monopolize more of these gifts than he has a right to, to the detriment of the rights of others, they condemn and will seek to abolish. A resolution was also adopted denouncing any coalition of Greenbackers with Democrats in other States.

The election was held October 12th, with the following result, the total vote on the State ticket being 718,186:

SECRETARY OF STATE.

C. Townsend, Republican.....	362,021
William Lang, Democrat.....	343,016
Charles A. Lloyd, Greenback.....	6,786
William H. Doan, Prohibitionist.....	2,515

JUDGE OF THE SUPREME COURT.

G. W. McIlvaine, Republican.....	364,045
M. D. Follett, Democrat.....	340,998
De Witt C. Loudon, Greenback.....	6,859
William F. Ross, Prohibitionist.....	2,353

CLERK OF THE SUPREME COURT.

D. Crowell, Republican.....	364,225
R. J. Fanning, Democrat.....	340,870
George Bonsall, Greenback.....	6,865
George Calderwood, Prohibitionist.....	2,575

MEMBER OF BOARD OF PUBLIC WORKS.

Stephen R. Hosmer, Republican.....	364,053
William J. Jackson, Democrat.....	341,001
Amos Roberts, Greenback.....	6,844
John H. Lorimer, Prohibitionist.....	2,577

STATE SCHOOL COMMISSIONER.

D. DeWolf, Republican.....	363,887
James J. Burns, Democrat.....	341,204
R. B. Smart, Greenback.....	6,800
James A. Brush, Prohibitionist.....	2,816

The result of the Congressional election was the choice of fifteen Republicans and five Democrats. The members chosen and the majority of each over the next highest candidate are as follows: I, Benjamin Butterworth, R., 1,298; II, Thomas L. Young, R., 1,004; III, Henry L. Morey, R., 968; IV, Emanuel Schultz, R., 328; V, Benjamin Le Fevre, D., 8,110; VI, James M. Ritchie, R., 685; VII, John P. Leedom, D., 1,712; VIII, J. Warren Keifer, R., 5,918; IX, James S. Robinson, R., 1,139; X, John R. Rice, R., 1,368; XI, Henry S. Neal, R., 2,138; XII, George L. Converse, D., 4,189; XIII, Gibson Atherton, D., 2,475; XIV, Geo. W. Geddes, D., 6,467; XV, Rufus R. Dawes, R., 502; XVI, Jonathan T. Updegraff, R., 2,848; XVII, William McKenley, Jr., R., 3,571; XVIII, Addison S. McClure, R., 5,096; XIX, Ezra B. Taylor, R., 12,678; XX, Amos Townsend, R., 5,327.

OLD CATHOLICS. No synod of the Old Catholic Church of Germany was held in 1880, as it had been resolved in 1879 that, thereafter, there should be only biennial sessions. In the years in which the Synod does not meet, it is

intended to hold a Church Congress, which, like the assemblies of the same name in the Church of England, and the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States, is an unofficial gathering of members for the discussion of important questions. The seventh Old Catholic Congress was held at Baden-Baden, the famous watering-place, from September 12 to 14, 1880. Like its predecessors, the Congresses held at Munich, Cologne, Constance, Freiburg, Breslau, and Mayence, it was well attended, but some of the most prominent representatives of the Old Catholic movement, the theological professors of the Universities of Bonn and Munich, still kept aloof from the meetings. A number of bishops of the Church of England, the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States, and the Old Catholic (Jansenist) Church of Holland, sent greetings, and assured the German Church of their abiding interest in its prosperity and progress. Bishop Reinkens, who was present, made a favorable report on the progress of the Church during the preceding year. The figures showed a slight advance all through the Church, a result which was received with great satisfaction, because in the years from 1876 to 1878 there had been a considerable falling off. The views entertained by the Church at present with regard to its relations to the Papacy found expression in the following resolutions: 1. An actual and effective contradiction between faith in the fundamental truths of Christianity founded upon the testamentary proof of history, and science founded upon the immediate facts of nature and mind, is not possible. Each protects, carries on, and supplements the other. 2. The independent character of national churches is just as much in accordance with the universal character of the Church as are the national peculiarities in the state, art, and science, with the general object of culture. 3. It is a mischievous error of many Protestants to regard the Church, which the adherents of the Vatican are bound to recognize as the only rightful one, as the shield of faith, a rallying-point for authority in civil and social affairs, and a protection against destructive socialistic tendencies, and therefore to adopt it as a conservative ally. 4. History, the task and duty of self-preservation, compels the German Empire to oppose the Vatican system. 5. Negotiations with the infallible Pope or his organs, upon all matters which concern the promulgation of laws and the authority of the state, are objectionable. Transactions of this kind lead to the dissolution of the national state. The relations of the Old Catholics of Prussia were, on the whole, less friendly than in former years, because the latter was all the time meditating upon the expediency of making its peace with Rome. The Minister of Public Worship, Herr von Puttkammer, defended, however, the continuance of the provision made in the Prussian budget for the Old Catholic bishop, as a part of the law of the land, and declared that the Gov-

ernment would carry out the ecclesiastical laws as long as they remained on the statute-books.

The Synod of the Christian Catholic Church of Switzerland met at Geneva on May 20th. From the annual report of Bishop Herzog, it appeared that the Church, in the course of the past year, had suffered a loss of twelve parishes and ten priests. The principal cause of these losses was the recurrence in the canton of Berne of the six years' period of the election of the parish priests by the people. On the occasion of the previous elections, the Roman Catholic party had refused to take any part in them, and thus the property of many parishes had passed into the hands of the Old Catholics, although they formed only the minority of the inhabitants. The Bishop states that other losses were in prospect for the coming year from the same reason. The losses of the Church were, however, confined to the cantons of Berne and Geneva. An annual accession to the ranks of the priesthood is now obtained, and expected for the future, from the Old Catholic Faculty of Theology at the University of Berne. In 1880 the Church numbered fifty-nine priests and forty-eight parishes. As the churches are not yet accustomed to self-support, the aid of the Anglican churches in England and the United States was solicited and obtained. Bishop Herzog strongly advocates the establishment of the closest intercommunion between the Anglican and the Old Catholic Churches. A new prayer-book, prepared by him for the use of the Swiss churches, after the model of the Anglican manual, was adopted by the Synod as the official manual of the Church, and it was ordered that the office of the mass contained therein should be used universally.

In Austria, the first legally acknowledged Synod of Old Catholics was held in Vienna, on June 29th. It had been summoned by Dr. K. Lindner, the President of the Synodal Council, and was attended by five priests and a number of lay delegates. The synodal and parochial regulation, which hitherto had been provisional, was definitely adopted. The Synod also decreed the introduction of divine services in the language of the people, the abrogation of compulsory celibacy and fasts, as also of surplice-fees, and the removal of the observance of holy days (with the exception of the high festivals) to the next Sunday.

In France, the congregation of M. Hyacinthe Loyson reported in June, 1880, a membership of about one thousand. It did not yet own a church-building, and was about one thousand dollars in debt. It has three priests. On August 27th, M. Loyson solemnized the marriage of a regular priest, Abbé Laine.

In Russia, the province of Volhynia has several communities of Bohemians who have attached themselves to the Old Catholic movement. They have three priests who are recognized and supported by the state. In a memorandum addressed to the Minister of the Interior,

the priests requested permission to hold a conference with some of the most influential of the Bohemian laymen, to formulate a statement of their fundamental doctrines and organic constitution. This conference was to serve as a permanent organization and constitute a synodal council.

OREGON. The Legislature opened its session September 13th, and closed October 23d. Solomon Hirsch was elected President of the Senate, and Z. F. Moody Speaker of the House. The more important general laws which were enacted are enumerated below.

An act to establish and protect the rights of married women repeals all laws imposing civil disabilities upon a wife which do not rest upon the husband; gives the wife the right to sue alone in the courts for the redress of personal wrongs; provides that both parents shall have equal rights and responsibilities regarding their children; and that the wife shall succeed after the husband's death to the same control of the estate and of the children as the father now does after the death of the mother. The judiciary laws were amended, and provision made for the times and places for holding supreme, circuit, and county courts, and for the regular session of a circuit court in each district, and the enforcement of its orders in all the districts. A singular bill was introduced and received strong support, but failed of enactment, the provisions of which would require every railroad to pass over its line the cars of another railroad connecting with it at the rates charged on the same.

An act requires county clerks, sheriffs, and district attorneys to make semi-annual returns to the Secretary of State of all fees and emoluments earned by them, and of the expenses of their offices. The object of this act is to obtain the information necessary for the regulation of the compensation of those officers. Another act provides for the pay of sheriffs and clerks for the different counties. The law regulating the salaries of county treasurers was also changed. Authority was given to let out the labor of convicts in the Penitentiary at thirty cents a day. The salary of the Superintendent of the Penitentiary was reduced, and the regulations relating to the purchase of supplies altered in the interest of economy. The construction of an insane-asylum building was provided for and a tax-levy for the purpose prescribed. It was also voted to establish a school for deaf-mutes. An act was passed providing for the refunding of the war debt, and for the appropriation of money and the levy of taxes for that purpose. The assessment and tax laws received some modifications. A special act, called the "Levee Bill," which was carried through the Legislature amid earnest protests, then vetoed by the Governor, and finally passed over the veto, aroused much excitement and suspicion. The bill grants to the Oregonian Railway Company the levee in the city of Portland and the right of way and ter-

minal and wharfage facilities within the limits of the city. The Governor declared that it was vesting corporate powers in the company, which could not be done by a special act under the Constitution. The contest was described by the supporters of the bill as an opposition on the part of the citizens of Portland to the interests of the rural population.

The only temperance legislation was an act to prevent the sale of malt or other intoxicating liquors within four miles of any premises upon which the General Government may be engaged in constructing canals or locks, or works of a similar nature.

A bill prohibiting the sale of liquors by the glass was lost by a tie-vote in the Senate. The amendment to the Constitution providing that regular sessions of the Legislature shall last sixty days, and special sessions thirty days, and fixing the per diem of members at four dollars, passed the Legislature a second time, as required, previous to being submitted to the people. A proposed constitutional amendment granting full rights of suffrage to women passed both branches of the Legislature, and was approved by the Governor. The proposition, which must be concurred in by the next Legislature before presentation to the people, is as follows:

The elective franchise in this State shall not hereafter be prohibited to any citizen on account of sex.

Notwithstanding the Executive approval of the act, it is thought that the action of the Legislature was invalid, and that the amendment must be deferred, on account of an article in the Constitution providing that, "while an amendment or amendments which shall have been agreed upon by one legislative assembly shall be awaiting the action of a legislative assembly or the electors, no additional amendment or amendments shall be proposed." The article is loosely expressed, and may have been intended to prevent the alteration of the amendments under consideration; but the above clause seems subject only to a construction which precludes action on this amendment while another proposition is before the people.

The following summary shows the transactions and condition of the Treasury for the years 1879 and 1880—

RECEIPTS.

From four-mill tax in 1878.....	\$184,961 80
From same in 1879.....	186,691 24
Penitentiary, care of private insane, sale of stamps, sale of State property, trial fees, and miscellaneous.....	28,821 55
Total.....	398,974 09
From the three-mill tax, levied to meet the special indebtedness of the State in 1878.....	138,720 99
In 1879.....	139,268 45
Total.....	\$277,989 44

EXPENDITURES.

Current expenses and interest on the bonded debt.....	\$332,758 88
Deficiencies on account of inadequacy of appropriations.....	28,002 97
Interest due on Modoc-war bonds.....	6,200 07
Total.....	\$366,961 42
Balance September 30, 1880.....	32,012 67

There should be added to the receipts the amount received from the former Treasurer, and the amount collected on account of delinquent taxes prior to 1878, and to the expenses the various appropriations for purposes other than current expenses. The latter exceeded the former by \$21,970.20, reducing the balance in favor of the State to \$10,042.47. The three-mill tax was levied to pay off the debt arising from the excess of disbursements over receipts for several years prior to 1876, in consequence of a decision made by the Supreme Court in that year, to the effect that the revenue of each year is applicable only to the expenses of the same year. The principal of that accumulated indebtedness amounted at the close of 1878 to \$192,975. The interest on the warrants issued on account of this debt amounts to about \$115,000. The proceeds of the special tax for the two do not therefore entirely extinguish the debt, but leave about \$30,000 unliquidated; but the September levy of 1880 is sufficient to pay off this balance and leave about \$100,000 over. The four-mill tax is understood by the Governor to be applicable only to the current expenses of the State, according to a section in the Constitution prescribing that "every law imposing a tax shall state distinctly the object of the same, to which only it shall be applied." This requirement has not heretofore been observed. A large portion of the revenues for 1879 and 1880 has been appropriated for other objects besides the expenses of the State government proper.

The bonded indebtedness of the State includes the Soldiers' Bounty bonds, Soldiers' Relief bonds, Modoc-war bonds, and the bonded debt arising out of the Indian difficulties of 1878. The soldiers' bounty bonds and the soldiers' relief bonds were issued in 1864, and were to run twenty years. A tax of one mill was provided in each act for the redemption of the bonds issued under it. Respective funds were thereby raised, more than sufficient to pay them off. At the close of the fiscal year 1878, according to the Treasurer's report, there was in the soldiers' bounty fund, \$30,496.67, and in the soldiers' relief fund, \$27,496.50; while the liability upon the former fund was but \$26,400, and upon the latter only \$761. The money in the former fund was applied to the current expenses of the State by the Legislature in 1878. The Governor remarks that such an appropriation could only be a temporary loan under the Constitution. The Modoc-war debt was contracted in 1874. It amounted to \$132,858, and was payable January 1, 1880, with seven per cent. interest. The interest was paid regularly, but no provision had been made for paying off the principal upon maturing. It has been thought that the United States ought to pay this debt, but no measures have been taken by Congress for that object. The indebtedness arising from the Indian disturbances of 1878 has been funded at seven per cent., and amounts to about \$44,000, payable

in 1890. For these expenses also the State claims indemnity from the General Government. There is a bonded debt due the Willamette Falls Canal and Lock Company out of the proceeds of the sales of United States lands, five per cent. of which go to this fund, and from the sale of 500,000 acres donated by the Federal Government for internal improvements. This debt amounted to \$200,000, and the interest at the close of 1878 to \$160,000, since which time \$8,500 of the interest has been paid. The State holds notes for \$40,000 for lands sold; and 260,000 acres yet remain to be sold. Besides the bonded indebtedness there were at the close of 1880 \$133,604 of outstanding warrants. They are payable out of specific funds, mainly from the swamp-land fund. These and the lock bonds are not a general indebtedness of the State, but the latter merely administers upon certain property and funds for their payment.

The value of taxable property as assessed in 1879 was \$46,422,817. The valuation is probably less than half the actual value of all property in the State. The amount of indebtedness returned in 1879 to offset assessments aggregated the surprising sum of \$19,690,878, over \$7,000,000 more than the total assessment of notes, accounts, and shares of stock. The Governor recommends that the law allowing the deduction of debts from assessments be repealed or changed, so as to prevent fraud. He counsels also the taxation of the capital of foreign corporations employed in business in the State, and the imposition of a license-tax for conducting business through agents and solicitors from without the State. He thinks also that the law allowing interest upon State or county warrants, presented and not paid, ought to be changed.

A special tax has been levied for the establishment of an insane asylum. Heretofore the insane and the imbecile have been cared for under a special contract. They have increased to over 290 in number, and the expense to over \$75,000 a year. The Governor thinks that the expense of sending insane persons to the asylum should be borne by the counties, and that the feeble-minded should not be received at all, but should be cared for by the local authorities. The schools for the blind and the deaf and dumb, which were conducted by the Board of Education, were discontinued in 1879, because the trouble and the cost were greater than the benefits afforded. The latter school was reopened in that year under a special arrangement. The Legislature has provided for the reorganization of these institutions under the supervision of a separate commission.

At the request of the Governor the General Land-Office has sent an agent, R. V. Ankeny, to Oregon to select, in coöperation with an agent of the State, the lands which have been granted to the State by the swamp-land act, the State authorities having forwarded to Washington a claim for 106,826 acres of such

lands, which they had caused to be surveyed. Other grants to the State were as follows: For the use of the State University, seventy-two sections; for public buildings, ten sections; the salt springs, twelve in number, with six sections of land adjoining; 90,000 acres for a college for instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts; and 500,000 acres for internal improvement purposes. The State University grant has been almost all selected, and of the lands 17,000 acres remain unsold. It has yielded a fund amounting at present to about \$40,000, with accrued interest, making it about \$60,000, invested in numerous private loans. The fund has been seriously impaired by the default of interest, and it is recommended that it be re-invested in State bonds; or, if this is impracticable, that the back interest be made by law to bear interest. The grant for the purpose of constructing public buildings has all been located and sold. The salt-spring grant has lapsed, by reason of a proviso that the lands should be selected within a year after the admission of the State. The Agricultural College grant has been selected, and 23,000 acres sold, the proceeds amounting to \$50,000. The internal improvement grant has been spoken of above. The La Grande Land-Office, which has had charge of them heretofore, the Governor recommends should be abolished.

A claim of the Willamette Valley and Cascade Mountain Military Wagon-Road Company for land, alleged to have been earned by the construction of a military road, was investigated by a special land agent. The documentary evidence presented in support of the claim, although apparently conclusive and bearing the seal of the State's officers, was discovered to have been fabricated and the claim fraudulent. The road was alleged to have been built from Albany, through the mountains, to the eastern boundary of the State. The company did some work at the western end, and then obtained the enactment of a law granting lands to the State of Oregon for the construction of such a road. The road was made for 150 miles of the distance; and then, fearing the lapse of the grant, the company simply made a wagon-track to the Idaho line, 350 miles long, without bridging or grading, and then claimed patents on 440,000 acres, having already patented 100,000 acres upon the basis of fictitious representations.

In the annual report of the Portland Board of Trade it is stated that, while formerly nine tenths of the immigrants to the Pacific coast over the Pacific Railroads settled in California, now nearly one half of such immigrants make their way to Oregon and Washington Territory, together with other settlers from California itself. Notwithstanding the short wheat-crop in the Willamette Valley in 1879, money was more plentiful. Interest rates are lowering, and capital seeking borrowers. About \$3,000,000 was invested in new buildings in Portland in 1880. The exports of wheat for the year

ending August 1, 1880, amounted to 177,790 tons, of which over two thirds came from western Oregon. The exports of wheat to Great Britain were of the value of \$4,164,212; the exports of flour to the same country amounted to \$622,465. There was also exported to other ports, including San Francisco, wheat of the value of \$811,550, and San Francisco took flour to the amount of \$553,613, while \$258,310 worth remained in warehouse; making the total receipts for the year's crop \$6,609,150, exclusive of home consumption. The shipments to San Francisco were destined also for Great Britain.

The wheat-crop of 1880 was estimated to be at least 200,000 tons over and above the home

requirements. Of this, over three quarters was still held for lower freight-rates at the close of the year, while ocean-carrying facilities were offered for only about one quarter of this quantity. The salmon exports during the year ending August 1st were 451,363 cases, the greater portion of which brought the lowest prices ever realized. The spring and summer catch of 1880 was unprecedented, and 530,000 cases were packed. In 1875 the quantity put up was 231,500 cases; in 1877, 400,000 cases; in 1879, 435,000 cases. The prices in 1880 were better than in the preceding year. The value of the salmon exports for the last four years, computed for the crop year, ending July 31st, were as follows:

SALMON EXPORTS.	1879-'80.	1878-'79.	1877-'78.	1876-'77.
Via San Francisco.....	\$1,570,610	\$1,246,672	\$1,750,350	\$989,956
To England, direct.....	1,199,205	616,397	787,836	1,376,056
Total.....	\$2,769,815	\$1,863,069	\$2,438,186	\$2,357,012

The value of the direct wheat exports to Great Britain was \$3,785,060 in 1878-'79, \$3,552,000 in 1877-'78, and \$4,872,027 in 1876-'77. The exports of wheat, flour, and other products to China, the Sandwich Islands, British America, Alaska, and elsewhere, except to Europe and San Francisco, amounted to \$443,376 in 1879-'80 against \$423,432 in 1878-'79, \$386,600 in 1877-'78, and \$637,636 in 1876-'77. The beef and mutton exports, which amounted to \$365,733 in 1876-'77, have ceased. There is an annual trade in coal from Coos Bay and in lumber with San Francisco, amounting in 1879-'80 to \$233,763. The overland trade, principally in cattle sent to the East, and wool from southeastern Oregon shipped through California, was estimated for 1879-'80 to be \$534,000, nearly double the estimate for the preceding year. The wool production of the State has developed with remarkable rapidity. The shipments *via* San Francisco, which amounted in 1876-'77 to \$998,305 and in 1877-'78 to \$756,000, were in 1878-'79 \$1,567,202 and in 1879-'80 \$2,155,147. The bullion product of the State is estimated at \$900,000 a year, twenty-five per cent. less than a couple of years ago. The Director of the Mint reports deposits of gold from Oregon for the fiscal year 1879-'80 of \$583,365, the total amount deposited having been \$15,414,509 up to the end of that year. The total shipments to San Francisco of all commodities were \$6,861,993 in 1879-'80, against \$6,057,685 in 1878-'79, \$5,329,192 in 1877-'78, and \$6,124,491 in 1876-'77. The aggregate values of Oregon exports for the same years were as follows: In 1879-'80, \$15,045,521; in 1878-'79, \$12,282,047; in 1877-'78, \$11,571,361; in 1876-'77, \$14,644,973. The wool-clip of Oregon and Washington Territory in 1879 was over 8,000,000 pounds, and it realized \$2,363,276. The local mills consumed about 747,000 pounds. It is said that recent clips do not sustain the high reputation which Oregon wool has en-

joyed. This may be owing to deficient forage during a part of the year, and the consequent stunting of the wool and inequality of the staple. The wool-clip of 1880 was estimated at not less than 10,000,000 pounds. Oregon beef stands very high in all the markets, and the business of cattle-raising is extending fast in eastern Oregon. The extension of the Northern Pacific Railroad must give a great impetus to stock-raising in eastern Oregon and Washington.

The railroad projected by the Oregon Railway and Navigation Company, which was founded by Henry Villard, of New York, who brought out the Oregon Steam Navigation Company, is to run from Portland to Umatilla, on the Columbia River, about two hundred and fifty miles distant, and there divide into two main branches. One will run northeastward through the counties of Walla Walla, Columbia, and Whitman, to within a few miles of the Idaho boundary-line, whence an extension thirty miles in length will connect it with the Northern Pacific Railroad at the great falls of the Spokan River. The other branch is to follow a southerly direction over the Blue Mountains through La Gránd, Union, Baker, and Boise City, and eventually connect with the Central Pacific, and with the Utah Northern and Central Railroad at Ogden. The immediate and more important object of this enterprise is to provide an outlet for the products of the eastern portions of Oregon and Washington Territory, in connection with the steamboats navigating the Willamette, Columbia, and Snake Rivers. This country contains about four million acres of wheat-lands of the first quality. Besides the steamers and barges, the transfer included the locks at Oregon City, and forty-four miles of railroad. The Northern Pacific Railroad has a prospect of being speedily completed, and thus furnishing the settlers of the extreme Northwest with the direct connection

with the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic seaboard to which they have long looked forward with impatient expectancy. The Oregon Central, the Western Oregon, and the Oregon and California Railroads, which have been of great service in developing the western parts of the State, though unprofitable to their original owners, have been consolidated under one management. The Oregonian Railway Company, limited, is constructing a series of narrow-gauge roads through some of the richest sections of the Willamette Valley.

A new channel was made through the bar of the Columbia River by scraping. It was opened to the depth of eighteen feet in August, and in a couple of months the scouring action of the tides deepened it about three feet more. The need of a deep channel from Portland to the sea is strongly felt. The cost and delay of lighterage, and the impossibility of large ships ascending the Columbia, occasion a constant dearth of tonnage and excessive charter rates. There are four bars, consisting of sand or clay, to be dredged away. The Board of Engineers appointed by authority of Congress to select a harbor of refuge, have decided upon Port Orford, in southern Oregon. This project, like the locks at the Cascades of the Columbia, for which improvement the chief of engineers presented an estimate of \$500,000 for the work to be done in 1881, is considered unprofitable; whereas there are pressing demands made on the Government for needed improvements in the navigation of the rivers.

The Republican State Convention assembled at Portland, April 21st. The Convention declared Blaine its choice for Presidential candidate, and nominated M. C. George for Congress. The platform contained the following resolutions:

That we are in favor of regulating and equalizing the salaries of county and State officers so that they shall receive such compensations as are usually paid to private persons under like circumstances of service and responsibility.

That we favor a thorough revision and equalization of our system of taxation, to the end that every species of property within its limits, whether owned or possessed by citizens of this or of foreign states, shall bear its equal proportion of the burdens of the Government which protects it.

That the recent action of the Democratic party in State Convention assembled, in denouncing the Supreme Court of the United States of America, and imputing the most unworthy and unpatriotic motives to that high and honorable Court, is unworthy of law-abiding, intelligent, and patriotic American citizens, and directly tends to the loosening of the foundation of our Government, the subversion of all law, and the overthrow of the sanctity of a system of judicature, venerable with age and perfected by wisdom.

That the attempt by the leaders of the Democratic party to defraud the people of the State out of an electoral vote, was an outrage unparalleled in the political history of the State, which, together with the Maine infamy and the attempt to unseat members in the halls of Congress for base partisan advantage, deserves the condemnation of all fair-minded men.

That we condemn the outrageous conduct of our Democratic State administrations from 1870 to 1878, their extravagance, their corruption, and their peculations.

That while we are in favor of a revenue for the support of the General Government by duties upon imports, sound policy requires such adjustment of import duties as to encourage the development of the industrial interests of the whole country, and we commend that policy of national exchange which secures to the workingman liberal wages, to agriculture remunerative prices, to mechanics and manufacturers an adequate reward for their skill, labor, and enterprise, and to the nation commercial prosperity and independence.

That we are in favor of judicious appropriations by the General Government for the improvement of our rivers and seaports, as well as for the construction of such lines of railway communication as will develop the resources of the country and connect our State with other parts of the Union, under such restrictions as will amply protect the rights of the people from unjust discrimination and extortionate charges; and that in the grants of lands to railroads we favor the sale of the same by the Government to the people at the lowest price for public lands, giving the proceeds only to the corporations.

That we demand of our representation in Congress their best endeavors to secure just and judicious appropriations and favorable legislation by the General Government for the free navigation of the Columbia and the rivers of the State, the improvement of the mouth of the Columbia and the harbors at Yaquina and Coos Bays, the location of a harbor of refuge at the point along our coast most available to the interests of commerce, the extension of the public surveys to meet the wants of our increasing population, and aid and assistance to railroads, and the opening up for settlement such of our Indian reservations as the interest of civilization demands and necessitates.

That we demand a modification of the treaty with China so as to restrict Chinese immigration to America.

The election returns showed 20,618 votes cast in the State for the Garfield electors, 19,950 votes for the Hancock electors, and 226 votes for the Weaver electors.

OSGOOD, Rev. SAMUEL, D. D., LL. D., was born at Charlestown, Massachusetts, August 30, 1812, of an old Puritan family, which has produced more than one eminent divine. He was a pupil of Dr. Willard Parker before entering Harvard College. He graduated in 1832, at the time when Ware and Channing were exercising their strong influence. He studied divinity at the Harvard School, and in 1835 entered the Unitarian ministry. In 1836 he moved to Louisville, Kentucky, and edited the "Western Messenger." In 1838 he returned to New England, and employed himself in pastoral duty there until 1849, when he was called to take charge of the Church of the Messiah, the leading Unitarian congregation of New York City. He filled this pastorate until 1869, when a change in his religious convictions required him to resign it. On his return from Europe in the following year, he was admitted to holy orders in the Protestant Episcopal Church. He sought no preferment in the church of his adoption. He was an erudite theologian and a fervent orator. He married Miss Murdock, daughter of the authoress of "Charlotte Temple." In early life Dr. Osgood was somewhat tinged by the novel social and religious ideas which permeated New England. He was versed in German philosophy. His first publications were translations of Olshau-

sen's "History of the Passion" (1839), and De Wette's "Human Life" (1842). In 1850 he became the editor of the "Christian Inquirer," and wrote largely for its columns, and for those of the "Christian Examiner," the "Bibliotheca Sacra," and the "North American Review." Some of these essays were republished as "Studies of Christian Biography" (1851). He was the author of "The Hearthstone" (1854), "God with Men" (1854), "Milestones in our Life Journey" (1855), "Student Life" (1860), "American Leaves" (1867), "Essay on the Ethics of Art" (1876), besides many orations and memorial discourses. He received his degree of doctor of divinity from Harvard in 1857, and that of LL. D. from Hobart College in 1860. He died in New York, April 14th.

OURAY, Chief, was born in Colorado about sixty years ago. The tribe of Utes to which he belonged, and which gave its name to Utah, was numerous, and subdivided into various bands. He was chief of the Uncompahgre Utes, whose specific title is probably a corruption of the Spanish term *un compadre*. Ouray's only son was captured by the Sioux, and is supposed to be still living among that hostile

tribe. He made many appeals to the Great Father at Washington in behalf of this boy. He was several times a visitor at the Federal capital to represent the grievances of his people. His dignity and eloquence were remarkable. He knew the Spanish language, and signed the letters he caused to be written to the President or to the Indian Department. His services were indispensable to the Government in conducting negotiations with the Utes, who kept in good faith all agreements made through him. He was known as the white man's friend among his tribe; but it is likewise true that he protected their interests so far as he could. They remained savage, but he accepted a certain degree of civilization. He built a comfortable house, owned and cultivated a farm, and used a carriage presented to him by the Governor of Colorado. He was a famous warrior in his youth, but in his old age he became a lover of peace. At the time of the Meeker murder his personal influence alone restrained the breaking out of hostilities. His last visit to Washington was to effect the sale of the Ute reservation in Colorado, which will now be difficult of accomplishment. He died, August 27th, at Los Pinos Agency, Colorado.

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PARNELL, CHARLES STEWART, the head of the Irish Land League, was born in 1846. He is the son of the late John Henry Parnell, of Avondale, County Wicklow, who was at one time High Sheriff for the County of Meath. His grandfather was the last Chancellor of the Exchequer of the Irish Parliament, and a bitter opponent of the Union. His mother was the daughter of an admiral of the United States Navy. Soon after finishing his education at Magdalene College, Cambridge, he was elected in 1875, at the early age of twenty-nine years, member of Parliament for Meath, and he represented this constituency until 1880. He was elected as a candidate of the party of Home Rulers, and soon became a prominent member of the party. In 1877 he was one of the seven members of the party who tried to extort concessions from the Government by systematically obstructing the business of the House (see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1877, article GREAT BRITAIN), and who were therefore called Obstructionists. By most of the leading men of the party he was, however, greatly disliked. He was never on any but bare speaking terms with Mr. Butt, and the relations between him and Mr. Shaw, the subsequent leader of the Home Rule party, were very similar. The breach between him and the party generally was considerably widened by an incident which took place in 1879. At a meeting of the Home Rule Committee he urged that, unless the Government granted a substantial University Bill to Ireland, the whole of the votes for the

Queen's College should be opposed. The proposal was rejected, and Mr. Parnell, who is a Protestant, is said, while smarting under defeat, to have used the words, "You are a cowardly lot of Papist rats!" A fierce controversy on the subject raged for some time in the Irish papers. It was asserted by some members of Parliament, and denied by others, that the words had been used. The report, at all events, gave rise to a great deal of bad blood, and alienated a great portion of the Home Rulers from Mr. Parnell and his projects. An attempt made by Mr. Parnell in 1879 to call a national convention, in which he intended to reconstruct the Home Rule party, failed through the opposition of the more conservative members of the party. On the other hand, he succeeded in October of the same year in organizing a "National Irish Land League," of which he was chosen president. (See IRELAND.) He was the principal and most popular speaker in the many meetings which preceded and followed the organization of the League, and his influence rapidly rose with the increasing power of the League. It was repeatedly said in 1880 that Ireland was no longer ruled by the Viceroy but by Parnell and the Land League. In January, 1880, he paid a visit to the United States to collect contributions for the poor in Ireland, and the House of Representatives in Washington allowed him the use of its hall for holding a meeting. At the new elections in 1880 he was simultaneously returned for Meath, Mayo, and Cork City, but elected to sit for the

last named. The influence which he had shown during these elections was so great that on May 17th he was chosen President of the Home Rule party in the place of Mr. Shaw. As the law advisers of the Irish Government conceived that Mr. Parnell and some other leaders of the Land League had brought themselves by the incendiary speeches within the grasp of the law, an information for seditious conspiracy was applied for by the Crown against Mr. Parnell, some other Home Rule members of Parliament, and several of the officials of the Land League. The state trial began on December 28, 1880, and it ended on January 25, 1881, in a non-agreement of the jury. On December 27th, Mr. Parnell had been reelected as the leader of the Irish Parliamentary party.

PENNSYLVANIA. The State Convention of the Republican party of Pennsylvania was held at Harrisburg on the 4th of February. It was called thus early for the apparent purpose of opening a vigorous campaign for the nomination of General Grant for the Presidency, his candidacy being favored by those prominent in the councils of the party in this State. The acknowledged leader of this faction was Senator J. D. Cameron, but there was also a strong element of the party which preferred Senator Blaine, of Maine, as the Presidential candidate. The contest in the Convention was opened by the following resolution offered by the Hon. John Cessna in the interest of the Grant movement and a united delegation:

Resolved, That a committee of nine members be appointed to report, subject to the approval of the Convention, a list of delegates and alternates to the National Convention and a list of Presidential electors, after consulting with the delegates from the different Congressional districts.

The following was immediately offered as an amendment in the Blaine interest:

Resolved, That a committee of one from each Congressional district be selected by the delegates from each Congressional district, whose duty it will be to report to the committee the names of four delegates-at-large to the National Convention and two electors-at-large; that it shall also be the duty of the Convention to report also a list of the district delegates to the National Convention, who are to be chosen by the delegates from the respective districts, including in their report the names of those persons who have already been chosen as delegates from their respective districts by the action of the people therein.

After some discussion the amendment was lost by a vote of 100 yeas and 150 nays, and the Cessna resolution was agreed to. The following was then offered:

Resolved, That the delegates elected to the Republican National Convention from this State are hereby instructed to support General U. S. Grant for the Presidential nomination, and to vote as a unit on that and all questions that may come before the Convention.

This produced considerable excitement, and the following was proposed on the other side:

Resolved, That, while we pledge ourselves to support the nomination of the Republican party, we see

no good reason for abandoning the position taken by the party in our own and other States in 1876 of opposition to a third Presidential term, and we hereby indorse and reaffirm the resolutions passed by our own State Convention, held in this city in 1876, upon this question.

After a warm debate the latter was withdrawn, and a motion made to substitute the name of James G. Blaine for that of General Grant in the former. This was defeated by a vote of 95 to 154, and separate votes were taken on the two clauses of the original resolution. That instructing the delegates to support General Grant was agreed to by a vote of 183 to 113, and the clause in favor of the unit rule was adopted by a *viva voce* vote. The following is the platform adopted:

Resolved, 1. That rejoicing, as we do, over the steady growth of the national prosperity, which began in 1876 with the change of the balance of trade in our favor, and over the successful resumption and maintenance of specie payments, we may reasonably claim the financial soundness and prosperity of the country as the natural result of the financial policy we, as a party, have sustained.

2. The resumption of specie payments having been accomplished, at the time appointed by law, and the finances of the country being in a thoroughly healthy condition, we regard it as unwise to engage in any new attempts at financial legislation. The country is prosperous under our financial system as it is, and we know of no good reason why that system should be now disturbed.

3. The persistent efforts of the free-traders to destroy our tariff, piecemeal, by legislation to repeal the duties on special articles, admonish us of the necessity of adhering more strongly than ever to the tariff policy of the past twenty years, which has built up our grand system of manufactures, fostered the revenues of the Government, and promoted our national prosperity. The business of the country will not bear this tinkering of the tariff; and if any revision of that tariff is to be made at all, it should be done through a commission of capable men, after a patient and thorough hearing of all parties to the interests involved.

4. We object most decidedly to all attempts to enact a new tariff through the agency of commercial treaties. A treaty framed, negotiated, discussed, and ratified in secret, is not a proper method of regulating the revenues of the Government.

5. In view of recent events in Congress and in the Southern States, and latterly in the State of Maine, we deem this a fitting opportunity to reaffirm our adherence to the following principles, viz.:

(1.) The union of the States—with equal rights—indestructible by any constitutional means.

(2.) Protection to the person, liberty, and property of the citizens of the United States, in each and every portion of our common country, wherever he may choose to move, demanding of him only obedience to the laws and proper respect for the rights of others.

(3.) Strict integrity in fulfilling all our obligations, State or national.

(4.) The perfect security of free thought, free speech, and a free press, and of equal rights and privileges to all men, everywhere, irrespective of nationality, color, or religion.

(5.) A pure and free ballot, thoroughly protected, so that every man entitled to cast a vote may do so, just once, at each election, without fear of molestation, moral or physical, on account of his political faith, nativity, or the hue of his skin.

(6.) Honesty in elections. The people having the virtue and the patriotism to govern themselves, our Government must depend for its stability upon honest elections. Until a man is considered infamous who

casts an illegal vote, our Government will not be safe, and whoever deprives a citizen of his right to vote, or of the legal effect of his vote, is a traitor to our Government.

(7.) An honest count of all votes legally cast, and an honest return of whoever is elected, free from all attempts to defraud the people of their choice through technicalities or by an arbitrary rejection of their votes.

6. We extend to the Republicans of Maine our congratulations over the peaceful and successful resistance to an effort to defraud the people of that State of the right to choose their own representatives, and to the attempt to steal the government of that State. Our Republican form of government will be a signal failure when any political party can succeed in defying the public will as shown by the people at the ballot-box.

7. We deeply regret the growing tendency to throw elections aside on mere technicalities and informalities. The right of the people to choose their public servants is too sacred to be subverted upon any pretext that the returns of election are deficient in some trivial matters of form.

8. We thank our Senators and Representatives at Washington, in the last Congress and in this, for their firm adhesion to Republican principles and policy, and for their opposition to Democratic schemes to renew the obsolete doctrine of State rights, and to cripple the Government by withholding needed appropriations in order to coerce legislation repealing all national laws that protect the purity of the ballot-box.

Resolved, That the chairman of the Republican State Committee is hereby instructed and required to carefully examine whether any person to-day placed on the electoral ticket be legally disqualified, from any cause, from serving as an elector; and, in case any such legal disability be found, the State Committee shall substitute another name from the same Congressional district.

The list of delegates and of candidates for electors was accepted as reported by the committee, and the membership of the State Central Committee was agreed to. The only State offices to be filled were those of Judge of the Supreme Court and Auditor-General. For the former, Henry Green, of Northampton County, was nominated; and for the latter, John A. Lennon, of Blair County.

The Democratic Convention was held at Harrisburg, on the 28th and 29th of April. There had been symptoms of division among the leaders of the party on the question of maintaining what is known as the "unit rule." Senator Wallace was at the head of those in favor of maintaining the rule, while Speaker Randall, of the national House of Representatives, led those who favored its abrogation. The latter was also understood to be in favor of the nomination of Samuel J. Tilden as the candidate for President, and the former to be opposed to it. On the meeting of the Convention there were contesting delegations from Philadelphia and from Alleghany County. A conference of the leaders took place, and it was agreed to refer all matters of differences to a special committee, to which all contests should also be referred without debate. The report of the committee threw out the Alleghany contest and admitted both delegations from Philadelphia, giving to each delegate half a vote. It also agreed upon an equal division of the delegates to the National Convention

and the members of the State Central Committee for the Philadelphia districts. This plan for compromise and harmony was accepted, and the Convention proceeded to appoint delegates to the National Convention, and to nominate candidates for electors. The Committee on Resolutions reported the following:

Resolved, That we, the Democratic party of Pennsylvania, in convention assembled, renew our vows of fidelity to the fundamental principles proclaimed and practiced by the illustrious men who settled our free institutions and founded the Democratic party to protect and preserve them.

Resolved, That the just powers of the Federal Union, the rights of States, and the liberties of the people, are vital parts of one harmonious system, and to save each part in its whole constitutional vigor is to save the life of the nation.

Resolved, That the Democratic party maintains, as it ever has maintained, that the military are and ought to be in all things subordinate to civil authorities. It denies, as it has denied, the right of the Federal Administration to keep on foot, at the general expense, a standing army to invade the States for political purposes, without regard to constitutional restrictions, to control the people at the polls, to protect and encourage fraudulent counts of votes, or to inaugurate candidates rejected by the majority.

Resolved, That the right to a free ballot is a right preservative of all rights, the only means of peacefully redressing grievances and reforming abuses. The presence at the polls of a regular military force, and of a host claiming power to arrest and imprison citizens without warrant or a hearing, destroys all freedom of elections, and ruptures the very foundation of self-government. We call upon all good citizens to aid us in preserving our institutions from destruction by these imperial methods of supervising the right of suffrage and coercing the popular will in keeping the way to the ballot-box open and free, as it was to our fathers, in removing the army to a safe distance from the people assembled to express their sovereign pleasure at the polls, and insuring obedience to their will when legally expressed by their votes.

Resolved, That Rutherford B. Hayes, having been placed in power against the well-known and legally expressed will of the people, is the representative of a conspiracy only, and his claim of right to surround the ballot-boxes with troops and deputy-marshals to intimidate and obstruct electors, and his unprecedented use of the veto to maintain this, is an insult and menace to the country.

Resolved, That the Democratic party, as of old, favors a constitutional currency of gold and silver, and of paper convertible into coin.

Resolved, That we are opposed to a system of subsidies by the General Government, under which during the period of Republican ascendancy, political rings and corporations profited at the people's expense, and to any appropriations of public moneys or public credit to any object but public service. The reforms and economies enforced by the Democratic party since its advent to power in Congress have saved to the people many millions of dollars, and we believe that a like result would follow its restoration to power in the State of Pennsylvania.

Resolved, That the Democratic party, being the natural friend of the workingman, and having throughout its history stood between him and oppression, renews its expression of sympathy with labor and its promise of protection to its rights.

Resolved, That we look with alarm and apprehension upon the pretensions of the great transportation companies to be above the fundamental laws of this Commonwealth, which governs all else within our borders, and, until they accept the Constitution of 1873 in good faith, they should remain objects of the utmost vigilance and jealousy of both the Legislature and the people.

Resolved, That the recent attempt, under the personal direction of ruling Republican leaders, to debauch the Legislature by wholesale bribery and corruption, and to take from the Commonwealth four million dollars, for which its liability had never been ascertained, is fresh and alarming evidence of the aggressiveness of the political ring, and should receive the signal condemnation of the people at the polls.

Resolved, That the great fraud of 1876-'77, by which, upon a false count of the electoral votes of three States, the candidate defeated at the polls was seated in the Presidential chair, and, for the first time in American history, the will of the people was set aside under a threat of military force, was the most deadly blow ever aimed at our system of representative government. To preserve our country from the horrors of a second civil war, the Democratic party submitted for the time, in the firm and patriotic faith that the people would peacefully redress the great wrong and signally rebuke the dark crime when they should come to vote in 1880. That issue precedes and dwarfs every other. It imposed a more sacred duty upon the people of the Union than ever addressed the consciences of a nation of freemen.

Resolved, That in conformity with the time-honored custom of the Pennsylvania Democracy, and to the end that our great Commonwealth shall not be deprived of her legitimate influence, her delegates to the National Convention are instructed to vote as a unit upon all questions, and they are further instructed to oppose the abrogation of the two-thirds rule.

The unit rule controversy was introduced by the last resolution, and the following was proposed as a substitute for the entire declaration: "That delegates to the National Convention be and they are hereby instructed to oppose the abrogation of the two-thirds rule." After a sharp debate, this was adopted by a vote of 125 to 122, which was a success for the Randall faction. The candidate selected for Judge of the Supreme Court was George A. Jenks, of Jefferson County; for Auditor-General, R. P. Dechart, of Philadelphia.

At the election in November the total vote for Presidential electors was 874,783, of which 444,704 were for the Republican, 407,428 for the Democratic, and 20,668 for the Greenback ticket. There were also 1,939 votes for the Prohibitory, and 44 for the "American" candidates. The Republican plurality over the Democratic vote was 37,276; majority over all, 14,625. The vote for Supreme Court Judge was 444,934 for Green, 406,904 for Jenks, 12,643 for Samuel Calvin, Greenback candidate, and 827 "scattering." The Legislature elected at the same time consists of 31 Republicans, 16 Democrats, and 2 Greenbackers in the Senate, and 123 Republicans, 77 Democrats, and 2 Greenbackers in the House.

The proper legislation has not yet been secured in Pennsylvania for the effectual execution of the provisions of the Constitution forbidding discriminations by railroad companies. Section 3, Article XVII, of the Constitution provides that "all individuals, associations, and corporations shall have equal right to have persons and property transported over railroads and canals, and no undue or unreasonable discrimination shall be made in charges for, or in facilities for, transportation of freight or passengers within the State, or coming from,

or going to, any other State. Persons and property transported over any railroad shall be delivered at any station at charges not exceeding the charges for transportation of persons and property of the same class in the same direction to any more distant station, but excursion and commutation tickets may be issued at special rates." Section 7, of the same article, provides that "no discrimination in charges or facilities for transportation shall be made between transportation companies and individuals, or in favor of either, by abatement, drawback, or otherwise, and no railroad or canal company, or any lessee, manager, or employee thereof, shall make any preferences in furnishing cars or motive power." Section 12, Article XVII, prescribes that "the General Assembly shall enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article." While these requirements and prohibitions exist in the organic law, the "appropriate legislation" for their enforcement has not been obtained.

A litigation, begun by the State for the purpose of enforcing the rights of shippers as against the transportation companies, under existing laws, has been terminated by compromise and without any final adjudication upon the principles involved. During the year 1878, upon the petition of a large number of citizens engaged in the production of oil, charging that they were subjected to injustice by reason of discriminations in freights, the result of illegal confederated action between certain railroads and oil-shippers, suits in equity were instituted in the name of the Commonwealth by the Attorney-General, in the Supreme Court of the States, against the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, the Atlantic and Great Western Railroad Company, Dunkirk, Allegheny and Pittsburg Railroad Company, and the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railway Company. Separate bills were filed against each corporation, charging unlawful conspiracy with all the others, and the appropriate relief prayed for. The object of the Commonwealth was to procure a judicial declaration of the common law duty of carriers, in the absence of a statute, to the effect that charges must be the same for all persons similarly situated, and for all freights of a like kind and quality for a given service. After the testimony had been taken as against the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, it was proposed to compel that corporation to put in its evidence in answer. But, as there were allegations of conspiracy in which all were alike engaged, the Attorney-General decided not to put that company on its defense until the case against the others was also completed. There was delay on the part of the petitioners in placing their testimony in the hands of the Attorney-General, which indicated a disposition not to press the cases against the other companies. In the mean time indictments had been found, at the instance and in the interests of the same petitioners, in Clarion County against a

number of defendants for a conspiracy in the matter of procuring freight discrimination, in connection with other alleged offenses. Some of the defendants were residents in the State, within the jurisdiction of the court, and caused appearances to be entered for themselves; others were non-residents. For these demand was made upon the Executive for requisitions. Before a decision was reached, and while the equity suits were resting upon the determination that the Commonwealth should close its testimony against all the defendants, before any one defendant should be ruled to open its case and go on with its evidence, negotiations were entered upon between the petitioners and the railroad companies to settle by agreement their controversy. In referring to the final result, the Governor, in his message to the Legislature of 1881, says:

Finding that the highest process of the Commonwealth was being used simply as leverage for and against the parties to these negotiations between contending litigants, and that, however entire and perfect had been the good faith in which the criminal proceedings in Clarion County might have been commenced, they were being regarded and treated as a mere make-weight in the stages of private diplomacy, I deemed it my duty, in the exercise of a sound discretion, to suspend action on the requisitions. It resulted that an amicable conclusion between the litigants was reached; all suits were discontinued at the request of the original petitioners, and the litigation terminated without cost to the Commonwealth. It is believed that all the railroads over which the courts of Pennsylvania have jurisdiction are now prosecuting their business with oil-producers according to the spirit of the Constitution.

A decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of the State, in June, affecting the question of the valuation of the capital stock of corporations for purposes of taxation. The law provides, in case a corporation does not pay a dividend of six per cent. or more, that the assessment shall be made on an appraised value of the stock, which shall not be "less, however, than the average price which said stock sold for during said year." The officers of the corporation submit an appraisal, but the Auditor-General and State Treasurer, if not satisfied with this, may make one of their own. The Pennsylvania Railroad having paid less than six per cent. in dividends during the year ending in November, 1879, its secretary and treasurer reported as the appraised value of its stock capital \$51,652,650, the par value being \$65,870,200. The appraisal was based on the average market price during the year. The State officers appraised it at \$66,804,094, taking as the basis of their valuation the selling prices in the public market from the 1st to the 15th of November. The difference in the amount of tax due on the two valuations was \$45,454.32, and suit was brought for its recovery. The Court of Common Pleas of Dauphin County gave judgment for the State, and this was sustained by the Supreme Court on appeal. In rendering the final decision, Justice Paxson said:

The contention on the part of the company is, that the stock should have been appraised at its average selling value during the year for which the tax is laid, and not at its value from the 1st to the 15th of November succeeding; in other words, that the stock must be appraised at the average price for which it sold during the year. The act of Assembly does not say so. It requires an appraisal to be made between the 1st and 15th days of November of the stock of non-dividend-paying corporations, or those paying less than six per cent. Said stock is to be appraised at its cash value—"not less, however, than the average price which said stock sold for during said year." If the Legislature intended to have the stock appraised at its average price during the year, it was very easy to have said so. We find nothing in the act from which such intent can be gathered with any reasonable certainty. On the contrary, the use of the words "not less, however, than the average price which said stock sold for during said year," necessarily implies the power to appraise the stock at more than the average price during the year. The construction of the act contended for by the company would expunge the words above quoted, or render them nugatory. It is our duty to give them effect, if consistent with other portions of the statute. They mean just this: that if the stock of the company is lower when the appraisal is made in November than it was during the previous year, it shall be appraised at not less than the average selling price for the year. On the other hand, if it is higher in November, it may be appraised at its increased value. If it be objected to this view that the advantage is all on the side of the State, we may safely concede it to be so. The object of the act was to raise revenue, and it appears to have been drawn with care, and in the interest of the State.

We are of opinion that the learned Judge of the Court below rules the law correctly, and his judgment is accordingly affirmed.

The subject of revising tax laws, which is a trouble to so many States, is of pressing importance in Pennsylvania. The Attorney-General, in his report to the Legislature of 1881, says:

That taxes are grossly unequal has been a standing complaint for a generation. As, for instance, the land of the State owned by individuals is exempt from taxation for State purposes, together with the product or profit thereof, whether coal, oil, iron, timber, or farm produce. If owned by an association of individuals, combining their capital to promote an enterprise too great for a single-handed endeavor, the money that buys the land—viz., the capital—must, 1. Pay a bonus tax for a charter. 2. A tax on capital stock, measured by the amount of dividend paid, if equal to six per cent., and, if less, then by the actual value of the stock at a given time in the year. 3. If coal-land, until lately, to a tax of three cents per ton on coal mined, though every ton represents a portion of the capital stock already twice taxed. 4. The land itself, with all the buildings, machinery, improvements, bought and paid for by the thrice-taxed capital, is again liable to the onerous and excessive demands of local authorities for county, school, poor, road, and special tax. The adjoining tract, equally valuable, equally productive, owned by an individual, escapes with the payment of the local tax only, or one of the four paid by an association of citizens engaged in the laudable and necessary enterprise of developing the resources of the State. The owner of personal property, in a majority of cases, escapes assessment entirely, or, if his personal property be assessed, it is at one fourth its actual value. The owner of money at interest, if he makes an honest return, or if returned by the assessor, pays on the entire value thereof. The owner of a mortgaged farm pays taxes thereon equally with his unincumbered neighbor, and, in addition, the tax on mortgages, or, if not so stipulated in the bond, then the

mortgagee pays for him and adds to the rate per cent.

These instances will suffice to indicate, in some degree, the inequality and injustice of these laws.

As to their administration, the assessors are required to make oath to return the real and personal property at its actual value in cash. They deliberately and openly return the property at one third or one fourth its cash value. Mortgages and money at interest are neither returned by the owner or assessor or by a sort of tacit general understanding, and all, except a small fraction, escape taxation altogether. Such evasions of the law are the rule and not the exception. Assessors who attempted to perform their plain, sworn duty, would be visited with stormy indignation. Because the laws are felt to be grossly inequitable, unequal, and unjust, the people agree together to disregard and disobey them. Great diversity of practice exists in the different counties as to enforcement of the tax laws, and wide difference of opinion as to their proper interpretation. Persistent effort on the part of the Auditor-General to secure uniformity has not been rewarded with success. With such a heterogeneous mass of ill-assorted, mismatched patches, there is cause for wonder that county officials are enabled to perform their duty at all.

The following is the first official report of the population of Pennsylvania by counties, according to the Federal census of 1880:

Adams.....	32,454	Lackawanna.....	89,268
Allegheny.....	355,759	Lancaster.....	139,448
Armstrong.....	47,638	Lawrence.....	38,811
Beaver.....	39,603	Lebanon.....	38,476
Bedford.....	34,932	Lehigh.....	65,969
Berks.....	122,599	Luzerne.....	138,066
Blair.....	52,751	Lycoming.....	57,482
Bradford.....	58,534	McKean.....	42,566
Bucks.....	68,654	Mercer.....	56,162
Butler.....	52,536	Mifflin.....	19,577
Cambria.....	46,824	Monroe.....	20,175
Cameron.....	5,159	Montgomery.....	96,494
Carbon.....	31,922	Montour.....	15,466
Centre.....	37,920	Northampton.....	70,816
Chester.....	38,478	Northumberland.....	53,123
Clarion.....	40,326	Perry.....	27,522
Clelland.....	43,423	Philadelphia.....	846,984
Clinton.....	26,278	Pike.....	9,661
Columbia.....	32,408	Potter.....	18,798
Crawford.....	68,604	Schuykill.....	123,977
Cumberland.....	45,978	Snyder.....	17,797
Dauphin.....	76,197	Somerset.....	33,146
Delaware.....	56,102	Sullivan.....	8,073
Elk.....	12,800	Susquehanna.....	40,351
Erie.....	74,681	Tioga.....	45,814
Fayette.....	58,938	Union.....	16,905
Forest.....	4,855	Venango.....	43,670
Franklin.....	49,853	Warren.....	27,981
Fulton.....	10,149	Washington.....	55,417
Greene.....	28,290	Wayne.....	38,512
Huntingdon.....	33,956	Westmoreland.....	78,018
Indiana.....	40,558	Wyoming.....	15,598
Jefferson.....	27,935	York.....	87,839
Juniata.....	18,227		
Total.....			4,282,738

The population of the cities having more than 10,000 inhabitants is as follows: Philadelphia, 846,984; Pittsburg, 156,381; Allegheny, 78,681; Scranton, 45,850; Reading, 43,280; Harrisburg, 30,762; Erie, 27,730; Lancaster, 25,769; Wilkesbarre, 23,339; Altoona, 19,716; Williamsport, 18,934; Allentown, 18,063; Chester, 14,996; York, 13,940; Pottsville, 13,255; Norristown, 13,064; Easton, 11,924; Shenandoah, 10,148.

The receipts of the State Treasury for the fiscal year ending with November 30th were \$6,720,334.17; expenditures, \$6,820,119.49. For the year ending November 30, 1881, the estimated revenues are—

The general fund.....	\$3,244,000 00
The sinking fund.....	2,160,000 00
	\$5,404,000 00

The estimated expenses for the same period are—

From the general fund.....	\$4,015,000 00
From the sinking fund.....	1,844,988 50
	\$5,899,988 50

This will leave a deficit in the general fund of.....	\$771,000 50
There was at the beginning of the year a deficit in appropriations unpaid of.....	1,043,000 50

Deficiency to be provided for in 1881..... \$1,514,000 50

During the year 1882 over \$10,000,000 of the State loans will become payable by the terms of the acts creating them as follows:

Six per cents.....	\$9,271,850
Five per cents.....	1,209,350
Four and a half per cents.....	87,000
	\$10,568,200

The whole number of graded schools in the State is 7,037; schools not graded, 11,618. The whole number of pupils on the rolls of the public schools for the year was 937,310, and the average attendance was 77 per cent. of the number. The expenditures for the year ending with June, not including those of normal or orphan schools, were \$7,482,577.75. The value of school property is \$25,467,097. The total indebtedness of school districts throughout the State at the close of the last year was \$2,648,495.84, while the unexpended balances in their treasuries amounted to \$1,425,213.16. There are ten of the normal schools, and there were 2,900 pupils in attendance during the year. The value of their property is estimated at \$1,366,395.17. In their establishment \$400,000 was contributed by private subscription, and up to 1878 the State had contributed \$645,000 for grounds, buildings, and apparatus. They have debts amounting to \$250,000. The State has for several years appropriated \$100,000 annually for these institutions, which sum has been equally divided among the ten. The orphan schools contained 2,580 pupils during the year, and cost \$351,431.59 for their support. Children admitted under existing laws must belong to one of three classes: 1. Those whose fathers were either killed or died of disease while in the army. Only one hundred of this class remain. 2. Those whose fathers have died since the close of the war of wounds or disease contracted while in the service. 3. Those whose fathers are living, but are so disabled by wounds or disease contracted while in the army that they are unable to support their families; and, in all cases, the children must be under sixteen years of age, and in destitute circumstances.

The superintendent, in his annual report, says: "In making the usual appropriations for the orphan schools the Legislature of 1878 provided that no more children should be admitted into them after the first day of June, 1882, and that they should be finally closed on the first day of June, 1885. Should this law stand, the system can be made to come to an end in a

way both creditable to it and to the State. The record it will leave will form the brightest page in our history. It will have supported, educated, and prepared for usefulness twelve thousand of the sons and daughters of dead and disabled soldiers, and will have expended in this noble work the magnificent sum of \$8,000,000. The whole world may be searched in vain for another such example of patriotic benevolence."

W. H. Kemble, Charles B. Salter, W. F. Rumberger, Jesse R. Crawford, and Emile J. Petroff, charged with corrupt solicitation of members of the Legislature to secure the passage of the act providing for payment by the State of losses occasioned by the railroad riots in Pittsburgh in 1877, were indicted and brought up for trial in the Court of Quarter Sessions of Dauphin County early in the year. The law under which they were to be tried was passed in 1874, and provided as follows:

1. That any person or persons who shall directly or indirectly, by offer or promise of money, office, appointment, employment, testimonial, or other thing of value, or who shall by threats or intimidation, endeavor to influence any member of the General Assembly, State, county, election, municipal, or other public officer, in the discharge, performance, or non-performance of any act, duty, or obligation pertaining to such office, shall be guilty of the offense of corrupt solicitation and liable to an indictment for a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be sentenced to pay a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, and to undergo imprisonment not exceeding two years, at the discretion of the Court.

2. That any occupation or practice of solicitation of members of either House of the General Assembly, or of public officers of the State or of any municipal division thereof, to influence their official action, shall be deemed a misdemeanor, and any person convicted thereof shall be punished as provided by the preceding section. *Provided*, That any open address upon, or explanation of, any measure or question before either House of the General Assembly, or any committee or member thereof, or before any municipal council or board or committee thereof, or before any public officer, shall not be held to be solicitation within the meaning of this section.

When the accused appeared before the Court for trial at Harrisburg, on the 8th of March, general surprise was occasioned by pleas of guilty on the part of Kemble, Salter, Rumberger, and Crawford. Kemble attempted to qualify his plea by a declaration that he did not "corruptly offer any money or thing of value unto any or either of the persons named in the indictment." This was not admitted as part of the plea, but by leave of the Court it was filed in a protest. Petroff was tried and convicted by a jury, and March 29th was appointed for passing sentence on all the accused persons. An appeal was made to the Board of Pardons, which consented to a special session on March 27th to consider the petitions. The petition of William H. Kemble, after recalling the circumstances attending the effort to pass the Riot Indemnity Bill, stated that the "petitioner had no personal interest in the measure, but desired its passage in common with many of the best citizens of the State. The excitement referred to culminated in a committee of investigation, before which he appeared and frankly stated his participation in the matter. On consultation with his counsel he ascertained for the first time that his statements and facts, as given in his examination before the committee, rendered him guilty of a technical violation of the act of 1874, and subjected him to the charge of corrupt solicitation. With no disposition to withhold the truth, he could only reaffirm his testimony before the committee, and, therefore, he pleaded guilty to such charge, but protested, at the time of filing said plea, that he had not promised or offered to either or any of the persons named in the bill of indictment any money or thing of value to influence him in his vote or official action in relation to said bill, and that said plea should not be construed as an admission on his part that he had corruptly offered or promised any money or thing of value to said person or persons mentioned in said indictments."

The Board of Pardons gave a hearing to counsel and listened to letters and statements, and a remonstrance was entered by the counsel of the Commonwealth. The result was a refusal to recommend a pardon of the offenders by an equal division of the board, Secretary of State Quay and Secretary of Internal Affairs Dunkel favoring the pardon, and Lieutenant-Governor Stone and Attorney-General Palmer opposing it. The board also refused to hold another session, after sentence should be passed, to consider the question again. When, on the 29th of March, the five convicted men were called in court to receive sentence, none of them appeared, and it was speedily noised abroad that they had fled. It proved that Kemble had left the State, but he subsequently returned of his own accord, and on the 26th of April sentence was passed on the five prisoners. Judge Pearson said, in pronouncing the sentence:

"You are each charged with corruptly soliciting members of the General Assembly, and endeavoring to induce them, under promise of money, to vote for the passage of a bill under consideration. Four of you have pleaded guilty, and one has been convicted, after an impartial trial. It is greatly to be regretted that for years the practice has been carried on in the Legislature. It was charged throughout the whole country that bribery in the Legislature was the great evil of the day. So crying was this that, when the Convention met to revise the Constitution of the State, it was decided to make the most stringent laws and enact heavy penalties to meet the case of a legislator withholding or giving his vote on any measure for a consideration." The Judge then referred to the law of 1860, which provided that the punishment should be five years and one thousand dollars fine, and then he said: "To this has been added the disqualification of the defendant from holding any office of honor, profit, or trust in the Commonwealth. Even the occupation of soliciting members' votes is prohibited by fine and imprisonment, and this meets that large class of men who hang about legislative halls who are known as 'borers.' However trivial you may have considered your offense is not looked upon by this Court in such a manner. The public treasury has been plundered, and others made great gains by this practice. What was particularly noticeable in this case is that two of

you were members of the Legislature. Individually, I feel a pity for your situation, but as Judge of the Court I must carry out the law. The beggar in rags who steals a loaf of bread, or the millionaire in broad-cloth, is treated the same. It can not be pleaded that the bill was highly meritorious, for if it had been it would have passed the Legislature. You are not like some who come here. You can not be excused on the ground of ignorance, because you are all intelligent men. You went into this thing with your eyes open, because you knew many members of the Legislature were corrupt. The sentence of the Court is that each of you pay a fine of one thousand dollars, the costs of prosecution, and that you serve a term of imprisonment of one year in the Eastern Penitentiary."

Considerable excitement was occasioned by the sentence, and new efforts were made to save the offenders from the punishment of the law. These resulted in a new intervention of the Board of Pardons and the adoption of the following recommendation:

To his Excellency HENRY M. HOYT, Governor of Pennsylvania:

The Board of Pardons recommend that so much of the sentence of the Court of Quarter Sessions of Dauphin County imposing imprisonment by separate and solitary confinement at hard labor in the Eastern Penitentiary on William H. Kemble, Jesse R. Crawford, William F. Rumberger, Emile J. Petroff, and Charles B. Salter, for the crime of corrupt solicitation of members of the Legislature, be remitted, and that the remainder thereof, imposing payment of fine and costs and disqualification to hold any office of trust or profit under the commonwealth, be executed, for the following reasons:

The act of 1874 defining the crime of corrupt solicitation provides for simple imprisonment. No power is lodged in the courts by the Constitution or laws to add to or impose conditions not contained in the statute. The sentence in these cases superadds to the statutory punishment the conditions that the imprisonment shall be by separate and solitary confinement at labor in the Penitentiary, and that the prisoners shall be fed and clothed as provided by law. In numerous analogous cases the Supreme Court of the State have decided such enlarged sentence unlawful, and by the common law imprisonment in the Penitentiary has always been regarded as infamous. In view of the foregoing facts and of the severity of the punishment remaining to be executed for an offense recently made punishable, and for which these are the first convictions, we make the foregoing recommendation.

HENRY W. PALMER,
Attorney-General.
M. S. QUAY,
Secretary of Commonwealth.
AARON K. DUNKEL,
Secretary of Internal Affairs.
CHARLES W. STONE,
Lieutenant-Governor.

This was promptly acted upon by the Governor, the pardons were signed, the fines paid, and the prisoners discharged early in the month of May.

The General Assembly, in 1879, by joint resolution, directed the Attorney-General to institute proceedings against the American University of Philadelphia for abuse of its franchises "in the unlawful sale of diplomas to persons who had not pursued the prescribed course of study, and who were unfitted, by reason of ignorance, to practice medicine." Writs of *quo warranto* were sued out against the American University of Philadelphia, and

the Eclectic Medical College of Pennsylvania, an institution of the same character and controlled by the same persons, and the result was the forfeiture of their charters, and the conviction and imprisonment of the manager and official head, known as "Dr." John Buchanan, for violating the laws relative to the sale of diplomas, and for other crimes. When evidence was first obtained against Buchanan of dealing in bogus diplomas, he endeavored to escape arrest by a ruse, pretending to jump overboard from a ferry-boat and drown himself. This was discovered to be a trick, and it was found that Buchanan had fled to Canada. He was arrested at St. Clair, Michigan, in September, and speedily brought to justice.

PERSIA, a country of Asia. Reigning sovereign, the Shah Nasred-Din. Born April 24, 1831; succeeded his father, Mohammed, in September, 1848. The heir-apparent to the throne, Muzaffer-ed-Din, was born in 1854, and has two sons.

The area of Persia is about 1,647,070 square kilometres, or 637,000 square miles. The population is given by the "Gotha Almanac," according to a correspondence from Teheran, as 7,000,000,* among whom there are about 80,000 Armenians (and Nestorians), 20,000 Israelites, and 8,500 Parsees. The population of the principal cities is as follows: Teheran, 200,000; Tabreez, 120,000; Ispahan, 60,000; Meshhed, 60,000; Resht, 60,000.

The first regular postal service was opened in January, 1877. The number of letters sent in that year was 366,000; the number of postal stations, 43. The number of telegraph-offices was 71; the aggregate length of the lines was 5,432 kilometres, of wires 9,113 kilometres; the number of dispatches sent in 1878, 500,000; the receipts, 350,000 francs.

The close connection existing between Persia and western Afghanistan, where the Persian language is almost exclusively spoken, naturally involved the Persian Government in the negotiation concerning a final solution of the Afghan question. The British Government offered to release Persia from the engagement to which it had long been held not to occupy Herat, in return for which Persia was expected to concede to English companies certain rights within its territory, and to consider England rather than Russia as its friend and ally. An announcement, which was made on the subject in the British Parliament, created a great deal of uneasiness in Russia. Before availing itself of the English offer, the Persian Government desired to obtain some guarantee on the part of England that it would be eventually assisted by that power in maintaining its position at Herat, and a suggestion was made by the Persians that a convention should be concluded between England and Persia similar to that

* "The Statesman's Manual" for 1881 gives Persia only 4,400,000 inhabitants, composed of about 1,000,000 inhabitants of cities, 1,700,000 belonging to wandering tribes, and 1,700,000 inhabitants of villages and country districts.

† See "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879, p. 7.

which had been concluded between England and Turkey for the protection of Asia Minor. The Shah had begun to prepare an expedition for the occupation of Afghan Seistan, and eventually of Herat, even before receiving the British proposals. The expedition was, however, abandoned about the first of March, on the ground of the expense, and because political difficulties, which the country was not prepared to face, would be likely to result if it were persevered in. In April the Persian Government decided not to accept the English offer. Several tribes of Kurds rose in insurrection early in September, and were immediately joined by bodies of men from Turkish Kurdistan. The reinforcements were sent by the Turkish Kurdish Sheik Abdullah, and were commanded by his sons; and the whole movement appears to have been inspired by that chief, and under his direction. The Sheik Abdullah was regarded by the Kurds as a kind of national saint or great prophet, and was held in exalted esteem by the Sunni Moslems of Turkey and Arabia, and even in Africa, as the third dignitary of the Faith, being next in rank to the Shereef of Mecca. He was really a man of much ability and tact. He had in the previous year resisted the collection of taxes in the Kurdish district by the Governor of Ooroomiah, and had compelled him to agree to a compromise in the matter. In the present year he had endeavored by negotiations to have those districts placed under his own control on condition of his guaranteeing their revenues to the Persian Government, but having failed, had decided to make war. A force of eight or ten thousand men under Sheik Abdel-Kadir entered Persian territory, swept through the districts of Sooldooz, Foshnoo, and Sonj Boolak without interruption, being furnished with provisions by the populations on the route, and marched toward Tabreez. A second division was collected near Ooroomiah, with the view of operating against that position, and a third division was assembled north of Ooroomiah, to proceed to Tabreez by the northern shores of Lake Ooroomiah. The Persian Government ordered the dispatch from different places of twelve battalions of infantry, two thousand cavalry, and twelve guns, under the command of Hishmet-ed-Dowleh, uncle of the Shah. The nearest of the points at which troops could be got was, however, ten days' march from the scene of the rebellion, and it was not easy to collect troops. The inhabitants of South Bulak, the governor of which place had fled on the approach of the insurrectionists, submitted to the Kurds. The town of Mirandoab and four large villages were pillaged by them, and their inhabitants massacred; and more than one hundred villages, it was said, were ravaged. The Sheik Abdullah issued a proclamation calling upon the Turkish and Persian Kurds to unite as an independent nation, with himself as their sovereign, and he made overtures to the Nestorian Chris-

tians to join with him in an effort to expel the Turkish and Persian rulers from the country. He also professed to entertain a high regard for the English, and sought to cultivate friendly relations with the American missionaries for the sake of their influence with the British Consuls, assuring them that he would rule impartially as between Moslems and Christians. The Christians, who lived near his stronghold, testified that his recent treatment of them had been good. Abdullah, it was said, also sent messengers to the brother of the Shah, who was supposed to be hostile to his Majesty, with an invitation to him to put himself at the head of the movement and establish a separate sovereignty. The prince immediately took the letter of invitation and the messengers to the Shah. The Persian Government appealed to Russia for help against the Kurds, and the Government of St. Petersburg, in response, instructed the Russian commanders on the frontier to furnish aid under certain limitations, but strictly forbade any violation of Turkish territory. A besieging army of Kurds assaulted Ooroomiah in October, but was repulsed by the garrison with heavy loss. It then raised the siege and retired, and the forces on the opposite side of the lake surrendered to the officer commanding the Persian troops. The principal body of Kurds twice attacked the Persians at Beenab, and was repulsed, after which it retreated. The British consul started from Ooroomiah for Tabreez through a district which had been occupied by the Kurds in force, and the insurrection was then pronounced at an end.

The famine which prevailed in Turkish Armenia during the spring and early summer extended also into Persia, and became severe in the Province of Azerbajan. Six hundred deaths from starvation were reported in the district of Ooroomiah from January to May, and twelve hundred Christians were compelled to leave the country. The British consul-general at Tabreez wrote in June that "the condition of the people was desperate, that deaths were occurring daily at a frightful rate," and gave a graphic picture of intense suffering among all the people of the poorer classes.

The cultivation of opium has been greatly developed in Persia within a few years. Formerly the Persian opium was much adulterated and held in low esteem in the Chinese market. It has more recently been prepared pure, and the price at which it is sold has been nearly doubled. Before 1875 the annual product of opium was only about two thousand cases of one hundred and forty pounds each. The product for 1878-'79 rose to 6,700 cases, and that for 1879-'80 was estimated at the same amount.

PERU (REPÚBLICA DEL PERÚ). Statements of the territorial division, area, population, etc., have been given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1873, 1875, 1878, and in the article BOLIVIA in the volume for 1879.

During the past year the country was governed by Colonel Nicolás de Piérola, with the title of Supreme Chief (*Jefe Supremo*). The Cabinet was composed of the following Ministers: Interior, Señor Orbegoso; Foreign Affairs, Señor Pedro José Calderon; Finance, Señor Manuel A. Barinaga; War, Señor Miguel Iglesias; Navy, Señor Manuel Villar; Justice and Public Instruction, Señor Federico Pánizo; Commerce, Public Worship, etc., Señor Mariano Echegaray. The staff Major-General of the Army and Navy was P. Silva; and the Commandant-General of the Navy, J. M. García. The Postmaster-General was Señor F. de P. Muñoz. The Archbishop of Lima is the Rt. Rev. Orueta y Castrillon. The Peruvian *chargé d'affaires* in the United States is Señor José Carlos Tracy (resident in New York); and the United States Minister Plenipotentiary to Peru, Mr. J. P. Christiancy.

For the respective strength of the army and navy, up to the commencement of last year, reference may be made to the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879. It may here be stated that by the end of 1880 the Peruvian fleet had been almost completely annihilated by the uniformly successful Chileans.

Of the present condition of the national finances nothing definite can be said, nor have any returns of an official character been made on which to base an approximate statement. Previous to the war, the revenue, for the most part derived from the sale of guano and nitrate, and to a certain extent from the customs department, fluctuated between 30,000,000 and 50,000,000 soles,* and the expenditure between 40,000,000 and 60,000,000. Vast outlays, regarded abroad as unwarranted, were made on railways, iron-clad vessels, etc., giving rise to large annual deficits; and, even without the additional expenses of war, hopeless bankruptcy for the republic was predicted as the inevitable issue.

Peru's onerous national debt comprises the home liabilities, estimated at 20,000,000 soles, exclusive of a floating debt of unknown amount, greatly increased by extensive issues † of paper money in 1879 and 1880 to carry on the war; and the foreign liabilities, amounting, in July, 1879, to £45,268,103.40, or 226,340,516 soles, at five soles to the pound sterling. ‡ There is now, however, a fair prospect of ultimate liquidation of this debt, the Chilean Government having generously consented to the shipment, for the benefit of the Peruvian bondholders, of guano from the deposits secured by conquest. The conditions to which the shipments are subject may be briefly stated as follows: 1. A royalty of £1.10 per ton of guano so exported to be paid to the Chilean Government, in drafts on London at ninety days'

sight, before the cargoes leave Valparaiso; 2. The intervention of the Chilean Government in the appointment of a responsible firm that will undertake to pay the royalty, defray the expenses of removal and shipment of the guano, and receive and sell the stuff in foreign markets. (See also the article CHILE in the present volume, and that of PERU in the volume for 1879.)

The foreign commerce of Peru was, previous to 1879, of an average value of 80,000,000 soles, the exports representing about 50,000,000. The total values of the exports to and imports from Great Britain for each year of the decade 1870-79 are exhibited in the following table:

YEARS.	Exports.	Imports.
	Soles.	Soles.
1870.....	24,405,375	8,505,865
1871.....	19,859,840	10,798,850
1872.....	21,058,615	14,351,190
1873.....	26,097,860	12,623,110
1874.....	22,506,065	7,966,905
1875.....	24,420,905	7,972,495
1876.....	28,153,350	4,956,520
1877.....	28,452,510	6,381,970
1878.....	26,161,825	6,849,155
1879.....	16,942,660	3,787,135

The principal commodities imported from Great Britain were cotton and woolen fabrics. Among the minor exports from Peru to that destination were raw sugar, which in 1879 was of the value of 6,903,110 soles; sheep's and alpaca wool, 1,643,840 soles; and copper, unwrought or partly wrought, 506,420 soles. But by far the most important staples of export to Great Britain were guano and cubic niter, the total values of each of which for each of the ten years 1870-79 were as follows, in pounds sterling:

YEARS.	GUANO.		NITER.	
	Tons.	Values.	Tons.	Values.
1870...	243,434	£3,243,998	1,068,972	£2820,353
1871...	142,865	1,711,176	1,293,905	1,013,415
1872...	74,401	875,582	1,365,195	1,045,383
1873...	138,895	1,732,554	2,176,239	1,604,040
1874...	94,346	1,207,679	1,894,018	1,134,008
1875...	86,342	1,068,570	2,979,876	1,793,110
1876...	156,564	1,966,063	3,064,707	1,761,450
1877...	111,835	1,375,023	1,247,909	841,074
1878...	127,813	1,469,405	1,667,521	1,238,625
1879...	44,325	480,927	879,103	602,872

At the end of 1877 there were in the republic twenty-two railway lines (open to traffic or in process of completion), of a total length of 2,030 miles, and representing a total cost of £35,994,920, or 179,974,600 soles. Eleven of these lines were the property of the Government; eight belonged to private companies or individuals, and these are partly government and partly private property. "Of the railways belonging to private individuals," writes the British Minister to Peru, in 1878, "only the double line from Callao to Lima and Chorillos (17 miles in length) is reported to be a commercial success; and 232 miles of difficult railway have been made, at a cost of £6,000,000,

* The sol is equivalent to about 90 cents of United States money.

† The total amount of these issues, up to October 31, 1880, was estimated at 35,000,000 soles.

‡ For further particulars relating to the debt, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1873 and 1879.

in order to have three or four freight-trains weekly."

On quitting Peru, December 18, 1879, President Prado left the executive power in the hands of the Vice-President, General La Puerta, than whom, it would appear, none more ill-suited could have been chosen for such a charge at that critical juncture. Popular discontent at once became visible, and, the sentiment spreading to the troops at Lima, a violent revolutionary movement ensued, in favor of Don Nicolás de Piérola, which ended in the establishment of the latter at the head of the Government, with the self-bestowed title of Supreme Chief. We here transcribe the proclamation issued by Piérola at Callao on the 22d of the same month:

TO THE PEOPLE AND THE ARMY: Silent and sorrowful before the exigent demands of the people and the army, I resigned myself to circumstances during the days which followed the shameful flight of Prado and the advent of the superannuated General La Puerta, hoping that the army would decide at last to overcome the scruples of a misunderstood loyalty which stayed a part of it from acting according to its convictions, which are those of the nation, and desirous of avoiding any collision between brothers and the loss of a part of our forces.

The headlong and impatient ambition of General La Cotera, after brutally stifling the unanimous voice of the people of Lima and Callao, provoked a conflict yesterday, employing the forces under his command to disarm the patriots of the army, whose only aim was the salvation of the country and the defeat of the foreign foe.

In Lima but a few moments sufficed to show how irresistible was the patriotic desire of the people and the army, and it would have sufficed for me to remain a few hours more in the capital to end all resistance.

Yielding, nevertheless, to the motives I have already expressed, I preferred to retire to this city, which has received me without any manner of resistance, to the end of making impossible all chance of strife between brethren and of favoring the tranquil adhesion of those remaining in Lima to the political *régime* proclaimed months ago by the whole nation.

Thus all conflict is made utterly inexcusable, and throws in its true light the responsibility for its evils upon its sole authors.

That portion of the army still under their orders in Lima will not, I am confident, permit this responsibility to become a fact, to the immeasurable injury of all. The hour of national reparation has come. In the series of disasters which have marked the history of our foreign war, Peru has no part. In shaking off, as she now does, the old rule, she raises the most eloquent protests against that deplorable history, and presents herself worthy of her name and her destinies before the other peoples of the earth.

For us there is, as there can only be, but one aspiration—a swift and full triumph over the foreign enemy. To achieve this work, we are now all brothers, without the memory even of our past divisions, and drawn one to another by the indissoluble tie of love for Peru.

Whatever may retard for an instant the complete national unity is an act of treason to our country. Unity is the one condition of the power and triumph of Peru. To that end has ever consecrated and now consecrates his most zealous efforts, your fellow-citizen and comrade in arms, N. DE PIÉROLA.

Thus the constitutional government was, in the short space of four days, overthrown, and replaced by a dictatorship, as indicated by the following decree:

NICOLÁS DE PIÉROLA, Supreme Head of the Republic: Considering—

I. That the inhabitants of Lima and Callao, by their respective acts, have spontaneously invested me with supreme authority in the state, with full and complete powers;

II. That the army and navy of the republic have adhered to this step, which has been long the general aspiration of the country, and that it is confirmed by the army in the south and by all the towns in telegraphic communication with the capital:

I decree:

SOLE ARTICLE. With the title of Supreme Head of the Republic I accept the position and powers with which I have been invested.

The Chief Clerk of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is intrusted with the publication and communication to the proper persons of this decree.

Given in the Government-House in Lima, this 23d day of the month of December, 1879.

NICOLÁS DE PIÉROLA.

By order of his Excellency:

The Chief Clerk of Foreign Affairs,
E. LARRABURE Y UNÁNUE.

Piérola, by some called the evil genius of Peru, and to whose influence may be traced much of the disaster that has befallen that republic, has been spoken of by United States Minister Christiancy as a man of great mental capacity, of boldness and decision, and one whose inclinations are generally believed to be kind and humane. "Yet he most thoroughly believes," adds Mr. Christiancy, "that in time of war, or any great national crisis, the law of self-preservation is superior to any written constitution. He is now to be tested, and so much is expected of him that it will be hard to meet all these expectations; and it is quite possible he may fail, and, in the course of a year, become as unpopular as Prado is to-day." Piérola displayed, during the first weeks of his dictatorship, no common energy in levying troops, forming new regiments, issuing decrees, and adopting vigorous measures of reform in many branches of public administration in which they were urgently needed. The war in the mean time was progressing on the coast. The slight check sustained by the Chilians in Tarapacá on November 26, 1879, far from discouraging them, seemed but to stimulate their ardor, and the Peruvian columns were almost immediately forced to retreat upon Arica. Before the end of March, 1880, the Chilian divisions commanded by General Baquedano invested the town of Moquegua, and on the 23d of the same month took possession of Torata. This last victory, at a cost of but eight killed and twenty-seven wounded, made the Chilians masters of the roads leading to Arequipa. On May 26th the important town of Tacna, which had long been the objective of Baquedano's efforts, was taken, after a fiercely-contested battle, in which the allied troops, commanded by Admiral Montero, Prado's successor, and the new President of Bolivia, General Campero, were completely routed and dispersed. In this encounter the allies, numbering in all 8,320 (5,120 Peruvians and 3,200 Bolivians), were divided into two wings, the left under Colonel Camacho and the right under Cam-

pero. The Chilians, instead of attacking in front, as had been expected, hurled their whole force on the left wing, which was repeatedly reinforced from the reserves under Montero's command. But no reserves could avail against the impetuous attack of an enemy of superior strength and flushed with former successes. Camacho was killed in this disastrous fight, and it was now seen that Arica must fall, as it did early in June, after a desperate struggle against the united efforts of the Chilian land and sea forces. Meanwhile the Chilian squadron, after destroying Mollendo, blockaded Callao and the other Peruvian ports southward, and prepared for the bombardment of Callao, and an expedition under the command of Bagedano to invest the Peruvian capital itself. Ever since the wreck of the Independencia and the subsequent capture of the Huáscar, under circumstances so honorable to the courage of both contestants, the fortunes of war seemed to have become steadily adverse to the Peruvian arms. By the good offices of the United States Government, endeavors had been made to bring the war to a termination, but the conditions of peace presented by the Chilian Plenipotentiary to those of Peru and Bolivia on October 22, 1881, were rejected by the latter. These conditions were as follows:

1. Cession to Chili of the Peruvian and Bolivian territories extending south of the Quebrada de Camarones and east of the line which, in the Cordillera of the Andes, separates Peru from Bolivia as far as the Quebrada de la Chacarilla, and to the west also of a line stretching from this point to the Argentine frontier, passing through the center of the lake Ascotan.

2. Payment to Chili by Peru and Bolivia, in coin, of the sum of \$20,000,000, of which amount \$4,000,000 to be paid forthwith.

3. Restitution of the property of which Chilian enterprises and individual citizens have been divested by Peru and Bolivia.

4. Restoration of the transport Rimac.

5. Abrogation of the secret treaty entered into between Peru and Bolivia in the year 1873, at the same time remaining without value or effect whatsoever the steps taken with the object of establishing a confederation between the two nations.

6. Retention by Chili of the territories of Moquegua, Taena, and Arica, occupied by the Chilian forces, until such time as the preceding conditions shall have been fulfilled.

7. Peru to be under obligation not to fortify the port of Arica when handed over to her, nor at any period, and to undertake that it will subsequently be a commercial port exclusively.

At the end of 1880, then, Peru had, with the exception of her capital and a few minor towns, lost everything but her courage, and the obstinate determination not to surrender or give up the struggle until utterly incapacitated to continue it. (See articles BOLIVIA and CHILI in this volume.)

PLUMER, WILLIAM SWAN, was born in Darlington, Pennsylvania, July 25, 1802; died October 22, 1880, in the seventy-ninth year of his age. He was a graduate of Washington College, Virginia, in 1825; studied theology at Princeton, New Jersey; was licensed to preach in 1826, and, a year later, organized the Presbyterian Church in Danville, Virginia. He afterward removed to Warrenton, North Carolina, where he also organized a church, and later he preached in Raleigh, Washington, and Newbern, North Carolina. In 1834 he became pastor in Richmond, and in 1847 in Baltimore. In 1837 he founded "The Watchman of the South," which he edited for eight years. In 1854 he became professor in the Western Theological Seminary at Allegheny City, Pennsylvania, and from there he went to the seminary at Columbia, where he remained until a short time before his death, which took place at the Union Protestant Infirmary, in Baltimore. Dr. Plumer was the author of voluminous works, some of which became standard among students of the evangelical denominations. His ancestors were among the first settlers of Newburyport, Massachusetts.

POLAR REGION. The well-known statistical periodical, "Die Bevölkerung der Erde," edited by Behm and Wagner, gives in vol. vi (Gotha, 1880) an estimate of the extent of all the polar regions, inclusive of all the recent discoveries. It gives the following tables:

I. NORTH POLAR TERRITORIES.

TERRITORIES.	Area in sq. kilometres.	Population.
1. Arctic America.....	1,801,080	unknown
2. Greenland.....	2,169,750	10,000
3. Iceland.....	104,785	72,000
Jan Mayen.....	418	not inhabited
Spitzbergen, with the Bear Island.....	79,963	"
Francis Joseph Land.....	29,850	"
Nova Zembla.....	91,813	"
New Siberian Islands.....	25,585	"
Wrangel Land.....	66,100	"
Total.....	3,859,400	82,000

Arctic America is subdivided as follows:

	Area in sq. kilometres.
1. <i>Southern Group:</i>	
(1) Baffin Land as far as Lancaster Sound, with Cocksburn Island, about.....	606,000
Resolution Island.....	2,580
Islands of the Hudson Strait.....	2,640
(2) North Somerset.....	24,680
Prince of Wales Island.....	235,800
Russell Island.....	825
(3) King William Land.....	15,150
Adjacent islets.....	1,100
(4) Wollaston, Victoria, and Prince Albert Land.....	198,000
Banks Land.....	63,200
Total Southern Group.....	954,900
2. <i>Northern Group (Parry Archipelago):</i>	
(1) Prince Patrick Island.....	18,550
Esmeralda Island.....	380
Eglinton Island.....	1,700
(2) Melville Island.....	42,500
Byam Martin.....	990
(3) Bathurst Island.....	19,100
Berkeley Group, north of the preceding.....	500
Lowther Island.....	148
(4) Cornwallis Island.....	5,506
Islands in Queens Canal, north of the preceding.....	770

	Area in sq. kilometres.
Brought forward.....	90,089
(5). North Cornwall.....	1,650
(6) Grinnell Land.....	5,650
Victoria Islands.....	440
(7). North Devon.....	53,400
North Kent.....	940
Philpot's Island.....	660
Coburg Island.....	530
Total Northern Group.....	153,359
3. Land west of Smith Sound:	
Between 78° and 83° north latitude (Lincoln Grant Land).....	192,700
Grand total.....	1,301,100

II. SOUTH POLAR TERRITORIES.

	Area in sq. kilometres.
1. South of America:	
South Georgia.....	4,075
South Orkney Islands.....	1,650
South Shetland Islands.....	2,200
Graham Land.....	100,000
Alexandra Land.....	33,000
Total South of America.....	237,925
2. South of Australia:	
Victoria Land.....	330,000
Wilkes Land.....	165,000
Kemp Island and Enderby Land.....	28,000
Total South of Australia.....	523,000
Total Polar Territories.....	660,935

PORTUGAL, a kingdom in Southwestern Europe. King, Luis I, born October 31, 1838; succeeded his brother, Pedro V, November 11, 1861; married October 6, 1862, to Pia, youngest daughter of King Victor Emanuel, of Italy. Issue of the union are two sons: Charles, Duke of Braganza, born September 28, 1863; and Alfons, Duke of Oporto, born July 31, 1865.

The area and population (according to the census of 1878) are given in the following table:

PROVINCES.	Area in sq. kilometres.	Population in 1878.
Continental Portugal (embracing the provinces of Minho, Tras os Montes, Beira, Estremadura, Alentejo, Algarve).....	89,625.29	4,948,551
The Azores.....	2,388.30	264,852
Madeira.....	815.00	132,221
Total.....	92,828.59	4,745,124

Portugal has extensive possessions in Africa and Asia, but the limits of some of the most important possessions being not defined, only estimates can be given of both area and populations. The "Gotha Almanac" for 1881 gives the following table:

POSSESSIONS.	Square kilometres.	Population.
Africa.....	1,805,556	2,454,030
Asia.....	19,666	822,217
Total.....	1,825,252	3,306,247

Portugal has only two cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants (according to the census of 1878): Lisbon with 233,389, and Oporto with 108,346.

The following were the gross sums of the budget estimates for the financial year 1880-'81,

in contos and milreis (1 conto=1,000 milreis; 1 milreis=\$1.08; 5,624:448 means 5,624 contos and 448 milreis):

REVENUE.	
1. Direct taxes.....	5,624:448
2. Register.....	2,749:600
3. Indirect taxes.....	14,222:066
4. National domain.....	2,801:808
5. Other receipts.....	1,153:368
6. Extraordinary loan of 1878.....	2,438:000
Total.....	28,989:340

EXPENDITURE.	
1. Public debt.....	11,852:807
2. Ministry of Finance.....	6,024:413
3. " of the Interior.....	2,193:910
4. " of Worship and Justice.....	629:423
5. " of War.....	4,836:127
6. " of Navy and Colonies.....	1,629:666
7. " of Foreign Affairs.....	277:941
8. " of Public Works.....	3,940:047
9. Extraordinary expenditures.....	2,815:212
Total.....	38,199:046

The public debt on June 30, 1879, amounted to 387,659:575 milreis, against 374,122:000 in 1878. There has been no budget for the last thirty years without a deficit. The Minister of Finance, in the budget speech of 1880, ascribed the unsatisfactory state of the finances to the following causes: That no effective control over the public purse can be exercised by the Cortes in the absence of any authoritative statement of the actual as compared with the estimated expenditure of each completed financial year; that for the last six years the balances, as represented in the budget, have been fictitious, the sums voted at the beginning of each session having always been exceeded, sometimes even without the authorization of a special law; that from 1874 to 1879, inclusive, over 9,000,000 milreis had been obtained from loans.

The actual strength of the army on July 15, 1880, was 1,817 officers and 28,088 men. The strength of the army on the war footing is 2,688 officers and 75,336 men. The army in the colonies consists of 447 officers and 7,526 men.

The navy in 1880 consisted of 27 steamers of an aggregate of 4,460 horse-power and 139 guns, and 14 sailing-vessels of 39 guns.

The trade of Portugal in 1877 was as follows (in contos):

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
England.....	13,748	12,456
France.....	5,160	2,065
Spain.....	2,890	1,612
Sweden and Norway.....	1,215	23
Germany.....	1,122	899
Belgium.....	812	87
Russia.....	509	8
Netherlands.....	249	125
Italy.....	245	160
United States.....	2,147	762
Brazil.....	2,665	5,286
Portuguese colonies.....	771	733
Other countries.....	445	291
Total, 1877.....	31,978	24,587
Total, 1876.....	34,548	22,674
Transit and reexport.....	2,967

The most important articles of export are wine (in 1877, 11,409 contos), animals and

animal food (3,159 contos), seeds and fruit (2,177), and minerals (2,074).

The movement of shipping in 1877 was as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Sailing-vessels.	Steamers.	Sailing-vessels.	Steamers.
Portuguese:				
Sea-going vessels....	688	89	806	96
Coast.....	4,797	612	4,633	621
Foreign.....	2,481	1,970	2,420	1,963
Total.....	7,966	2,671	7,859	2,630

The commercial navy in 1879 consisted of 554 vessels, of which 42 were steamers. The total length of railways in operation in September, 1880, was 1,248 kilometres, besides which 450 kilometres were in course of construction. The length of telegraph-lines in September, 1878, was 3,711 kilometres, of wires 8,042 kilometres; the number of stations (in 1880), 185; the number of dispatches (in 1878), 662,708. The number of post-offices in September, 1880, was 863, of which 47 were on the islands.

The Cortes were opened January 4th by the King, who in his speech from the throne stated that his relations with all foreign powers were friendly. His Majesty announced the intention of the Government to introduce a bill for decentralizing, in a large measure, the administration of the colonial possessions of the kingdom, and to bring in measures relating to the principle of ministerial responsibility, regulating the employment of children in factories, and insuring freedom of election and the due representation of minorities. The late loan, it was stated, had been completely subscribed by home and foreign capital. A convention with England concerning trade-marks was approved. A convention regulating literary property between Portugal and Spain was signed in September. Three royal decrees concerning political and economical reforms to be introduced in the Portuguese Indies were published in September. A decree was published in November citing the provisions of the law of the Marquis of Pombal prohibiting Jesuit communities and establishments in the kingdom, which was declared to be still in force, and ordering the civil governors and public functionaries throughout the nation to use all vigilance in order to prevent any infringements of it. A provisional contract was signed in November for a loan of £4,000,000 sterling (\$19,400,000).

The Archbishop of Goa, the Roman Catholic Primate of the East, died in Lisbon, November 28th.

News was received from Loanda in September that Senhor Lino, captain of the steamer Andrade, had steamed up the Congo River as far as Noki, two hours' sail from Bibi, where Mr. Stanley had established his headquarters. This was the first time that a Portuguese had ventured so far up the Congo.

The "Diario de Noticias" announced in November that the Portuguese Government intended to construct the projected railway between Delagoa Bay and the Transvaal on its own account.

Tercentenary festivities in memory of the poet Camoens and of Vasco de Gama were celebrated in Lisbon and throughout the kingdom in June. The remains of the poet and of the great navigator were deposited in the Church of the Jeronimites at Belem on the 7th with great pomp. The royal galleys carrying the remains were accompanied by a war-ship, steamers, and boats, in an imposing river procession, and the banks of the Tagus were lined with people. A solemn ceremony took place in the church, which was attended by the King, the Queen, the Ministers, and the nobility. Salutes were fired from the ships and the castle, the streets were brilliantly illuminated at night, and the day was marked by general rejoicings. The ceremonies were closed on the 10th with a procession of triumphal cars, in which the King and Queen and the other members of the royal family, the high dignitaries of state, the civic authorities, the foreign diplomatic body, the trade and friendly societies, the members of the various scientific institutions, and deputations from the army and navy took part.

PRESBYTERIANS. I. PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church by synods, as they were reported to the General Assembly in May, 1880:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Churches.	Communicants.
Albany.....	160	132	19,282
Atlantic.....	65	189	9,876
Baltimore.....	137	141	16,819
Central New York.....	171	164	21,273
China.....	33	27	1,714
Cincinnati.....	160	157	20,472
Cleveland.....	138	162	20,704
Colorado.....	68	64	2,582
Columbia.....	34	48	2,535
Columbus.....	122	158	17,277
Erie.....	182	250	81,340
Geneva.....	138	102	14,407
Harrisburg.....	156	175	22,046
Illinois, Central.....	189	177	15,757
Illinois, North.....	166	149	17,853
Illinois, South.....	99	157	9,749
Indiana.....	42	22	754
Indiana, North.....	83	146	12,003
Indiana, South.....	102	158	16,319
Iowa, North.....	116	151	8,846
Iowa, South.....	130	198	11,598
Kansas.....	181	281	11,582
Kentucky.....	62	82	5,853
Long Island.....	98	68	16,193
Michigan.....	156	165	16,061
Minnesota.....	112	133	6,968
Missouri.....	130	216	10,976
Nebraska.....	72	120	4,940
New Jersey.....	370	273	46,581
New York.....	323	168	88,015
Pacific.....	122	123	6,969
Philadelphia.....	371	297	51,995
Pittsburg.....	172	194	26,224
Tennessee.....	38	56	8,589
Texas.....	27	39	1,108
Toledo.....	84	111	10,305
Western New York.....	178	159	21,620
Wisconsin.....	107	132	8,161
Total.....	5,044	5,489	578,671

The following is a summary of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America during the year 1880:

Synods.....	88
Presbyteries.....	177
Candidates.....	600
Licentiates.....	294
Ministers.....	5,044
Licensures.....	152
Ordinations.....	158
Installations.....	877
Pastoral dissolutions.....	251
Ministers received.....	46
Ministers dismissed.....	23
Ministers deceased.....	76
Churches.....	5,488
Churches organized.....	159
Churches dissolved.....	43
Churches received.....	3
Churches dismissed.....	1
Added on examination.....	26,538
Added on certificate.....	22,143
Total communicants.....	575,671
Adults baptized.....	9,232
Infants baptized.....	18,960
Members of Sunday-schools.....	631,952

CONTRIBUTIONS.

Home missions.....	\$429,769
Foreign missions.....	420,427
Education.....	109,066
Publication.....	27,683
Church erection.....	151,815
Relief fund.....	57,750
Freedmen.....	48,497
Sustentation.....	20,849
General Assembly.....	42,044
Congregational.....	6,093,150
Miscellaneous.....	954,953
Total.....	\$8,861,028

The receipts of the *Board of Foreign Missions* had been \$585,844, and its expenditures \$579,746. The board had paid the debt of \$62,532 with which it had begun the year, and now returned a balance of \$6,098. The women had contributed \$176,000, or thirty per cent. of the whole receipts of the board. The following is a summary of the statistics of the missions:

Indian Tribes (Senecas, Chippewas, Omahas, Dakotas, Creeks, Seminoles, Nez-Percés), 11 American, 14 native ministers, 30 lay agents, 1,048 communicants, 506 scholars; *Mexico* (4 stations and several out-stations), 7 American, 17 native ministers, 17 lay agents, 3,907 communicants, 586 scholars; *South America* (United States of Colombia, Brazil, Chili, 14 stations and several out-stations), 11 American, 5 native ministers, 31 lay agents, 1,089 communicants, 511 scholars; *Africa* (12 stations, 7 out-stations), 7 American, 5 native ministers, 38 lay agents, 601 communicants, 244 scholars; *India* (19 stations and 17 out-stations), 30 American, 15 native ministers, 204 lay agents, 971 communicants, 7,798 scholars; *Siam* and *Laos* (4 stations and 3 out-stations), 7 American, 2 native ministers, 27 lay agents, 206 communicants, 346 scholars; *China* (10 stations and several out-stations), 22 American, 51 native ministers, 101 lay agents, 1,784 communicants, 1,096 scholars; *Chinese in California* (2 stations), 2 American, 1 native, ministers, 8 lay agents, 131 communicants, 190 scholars; *Japan* (3 stations), 6 American, 12 native ministers, 14 lay agents, 739 communicants, 345

scholars; *Persia* (4 stations, 81 out-stations), 8 American, 87 native ministers, 116 lay agents, 1,321 communicants, 1,909 scholars; *Syria* (5 stations, 43 out-stations), 14 American, 21 native ministers, 144 lay agents, 810 communicants, 4,260 scholars: total, 125 American, 230 native ministers, 736 lay agents, 12,607 communicants, 17,791 scholars.

The *Woman's Foreign Missionary Society* returned its receipts for the year at \$127,352. It had 94 missionaries in service, of whom 29 were in India, 17 in China, 5 in Japan, 7 in Persia, 5 in Syria, 6 in Africa, 3 in Siam, 3 in Mexico, 7 in Brazil and the United States of Colombia, 9 among the Indians in North America, and 4 among the Chinese in California, and conducted in India fifty day-schools and six boarding schools, in connection with which one hundred scholarships had been founded.

The *General Assembly* of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America met at Madison, Wisconsin, May 20th. The Rev. William M. Paxton, D. D., of New York, was chosen moderator. Attention was given chiefly to hearing and considering the reports of the boards, and little legislation of importance was enacted. A reform was directed in the administration of the ministerial relief fund by ordering that appropriations shall not be made, in ordinary cases, to ministers merely because they are poor, unless they are disabled so that they can not sustain themselves by suitable employment, nor to widows who have children able to give them support; and that ministers who voluntarily and in health leave the ministry for some secular employment and after years fail in business and become poor, shall be held to have voluntarily relinquished by the course they have pursued all claims upon the funds of the Board. The Board of Publication was admonished in the report of the committee on its affairs to be vigilant against the issue from its press of publications casting the slightest doubt upon the Divine authority and plenary inspiration of the Bible, or upon the divinity and atoning death of Jesus Christ, or on the fact of man's utter ruin by sin and his need of redemption. The subject of considering a plan to alleviate the evils arising from the presence of so many unemployed ministers in the Church while yet so many vacant churches existed, was referred to a special committee to report to the next General Assembly. The professors in the theological seminaries were urged not to commend to the young men those religious teachers in Europe who are "disseminating doctrines calculated to undermine the authority of the Holy Scriptures," but to expose their fallacies, denounce their heresies, and fully and emphatically insist in their instructions on the integrity, inspiration, and authority of the Word of God. Resolutions were adopted against reading secular papers on Sunday, against the investment of money in enterprises to be carried out on Sunday, against the sale of intoxicating li-

quors, and against the transmission of lottery-tickets by the United States mails; also resolutions urging the eradication of Mormonism. The Presbyteries were enjoined, when dealing with applications for admission from other denominations, to see that they had received as thorough a course in collegiate and theological instruction as is required of regular Presbyterian candidates.

II. PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church for the last year, as they were reported to the General Assembly in May, 1880:

Synods.....	12
Presbyteries.....	67
Candidates.....	145
Licentiates.....	79
Ministers.....	1,060
Churches.....	1,923
Licensures.....	53
Ordinations.....	83
Installations.....	82
Ministers deceased.....	19
Pastoral dissolutions.....	40
Ministers received.....	3
Ministers dismissed.....	4
Churches organized.....	47
Churches dissolved.....	18
Ruling elders.....	5,721
Deacons.....	3,511
Added on examination.....	5,920
Added on certificate.....	3,614
Total communicants.....	120,025
Adults baptized.....	1,892
Infants baptized.....	4,705
Number of baptisms of non-communicants.....	29,397
In Sabbath-school and Bible-classes.....	74,902

CONTRIBUTIONS.

Sustentation.....	\$32,123
Evangelistic.....	15,233
Invalid fund.....	10,384
Foreign missions.....	39,577
Education.....	26,012
Publication.....	8,796
Presbyterial.....	12,945
Pastors' salaries.....	532,869
Congregational.....	396,692
Miscellaneous.....	47,693
Total.....	\$1,062,338

The *Committee on Foreign Missions* returned its receipts at \$48,485, or \$2,251 more than the receipts of the previous year. The principal part of the increase had come from the Women's Missionary Associations. The general debt of the committee had been reduced from \$9,524 to \$4,378. The foreign missionary force consisted of 83 persons, of whom 15 were missionaries, 21 assistants from the United States, 10 native preachers, 5 licentiates, and 32 teachers. Six churches had been organized in Brazil, and four young men were studying for the ministry. Four or five churches had been organized in Mexico, and a new station had been opened. Ten missionaries and 9 native preachers and licentiates were employed in China, with 34 communicants at Hangchow, 9 mission-schools, and 171 pupils. The native members of this mission had contributed \$23. Five members had been received in the Greek mission. Seventeen missionaries, of whom eight were natives, were engaged in the missions to the Indians. The

missions in Italy are carried on in connection with the Waldensian Church.

The *General Assembly* of the Presbyterian Church in the United States met at Charleston, South Carolina, May 20th. The Rev. T. A. Hoyt, D. D., of Nashville, Tennessee, was chosen moderator. In answer to a number of overtures which were sent up on the subject of preaching by women, the Assembly declared that the assumption of the sacred office of the ministry by women is "opposed to the advancement of true piety and the promotion of the peace of the churches, and this to such an extent as to make the introduction of women into our pulpits for the purpose of publicly expounding God's word an irregularity not to be tolerated." The rule on the subject of subscribing to the standards in the new Book of Church Order was interpreted to mean that the pledge of orthodoxy must be subscribed to by all ministers joining the Presbytery, including those who come from other Presbyteries. An overture asking the Assembly to make a deliverance on the subject of dancing was declined on the grounds that former deliverances were as full and explicit as the nature of the case allowed, and that the evil was to be remedied, not by deliverances of the Assembly, but rather by care on the part of the lower courts. A committee appointed by the previous General Assembly to consider the subject of retrenchment and reform in the management of the schemes of benevolence presented majority and minority reports. Both were ordered published for circulation among the ministers, and the consideration of the whole matter was referred to the next General Assembly. An overture was presented asking that so much of the deliverances of the previous General Assembly in relation to worldly amusements as declares that all deliverances of the General Assembly, and by necessary implication of the other courts of the Church, which are not made by them in a strictly judicial capacity, but are deliverances *en these*, can be considered as only didactic, advisory, and monitory, be repealed or modified. A paper was adopted on the subject, which declares: 1. That nothing is law to be enforced by judicial prosecution, but that which is contained in the Word as interpreted in the standards of the Church; 2. The judicial deliverances of the Church courts differ from *en these* deliverances in that the former determine, and, when proceeding from the highest court, conclude a particular case; but both these kinds of decisions are alike interpretations of the Word by a Church court, and both not only deserve high consideration, but must be submitted to, unless contrary to the Constitution and the Word, of which there is a right of private judgment belonging to every Church court, and also to every individual member. On the question whether an elder, when he is convinced that he has not been called to the office, can be demitted from it without censure, a decision

was given that this can be done only in case the elder is unacceptable to the people.

III. UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church for the year ending in May, 1880: Number of synods, 9; of presbyteries, 59; of pastors and stated supplies, 504; of licentiates, 50; of students of theology, 66; of congregations, 813; of mission stations, 82; of members, 82,119; of Sunday-schools, 760; with 8,327 officers and teachers, and 83,126 scholars; contributions for the salaries of ministers, \$439,933; for congregational expenses, \$221,497; to the boards, \$118,189; general contributions, \$44,175; total of contributions, \$826,794; average of contributions per member, \$10.43; average salary of pastors, \$896.

The *Board of Foreign Missions* reported to the General Assembly that its available resources during the year had amounted to \$69,089. The missions were in India and Egypt. The Egyptian mission included 41 stations, 8 foreign missionaries, 14 teachers, 6 ordained native ministers, 11 churches, 985 communicants, 6 licentiates, and 10 theological students. The training college at Osiout had proved to be very useful, and had given to the mission the majority of its native laborers. Churches were being organized, and native pastors were being settled in the older stations, and new stations were constantly opening up. The growing influence of Christianity was shown in the fact that the public markets in several of the large towns were now closed on Sunday. Less and less objection was made to the use of the Bible in the schools and daily instruction in it. The schools of the mission were multiplying, and the numbers attending on them were increasing. A growing interest was manifested in the education of women. The girls' boarding-schools at Osiout and Cairo were well attended, and had largely paid their own expenses. The mission in India included seventeen stations, five foreign missionaries, two native ordained ministers, ten theological students, four teachers, six churches, and 304 communicants. The native members in the two missions had contributed \$9,391.

The *General Assembly* of the United Presbyterian Church of North America met at Xenia, Ohio, May 26th. The Rev. E. T. Jeffers, D. D., President of Westminster College, was chosen moderator. The most prominent subject considered by the body was one involving the question whether the power to appoint commissions was possessed by all the courts of the Church or was confined to the General Assembly. An overture on the subject was adopted to be sent down to the Presbyteries for their action, which proposed the addition to the Book of Government and Discipline of a chapter providing for and regulating the appointment of commissions by sessions, presbyteries, and synods. The Presbytery of Sealkote, representing the mission in India, had been questioned by the previous General Assembly re-

specting its action in permitting baptism to be administered to a heathen convert who was at the time married to two women. The Presbytery replied that it had admitted to baptism a man who was thus married and living in a condition which was recognized in the civil and ecclesiastical codes of the country as one of lawful wedlock, but with a proviso that he should not be eligible to office in the Church. To determine the mind of the Assembly regarding the distinction which it had drawn concerning the conditions required in the Scriptures from private members and those holding spiritual offices, the Presbytery asked the question: "What is the meaning of the expression in 1 Timothy, iii, 2, that a bishop must be the husband of one wife? Does it permit us to receive a polygamist as a private member?" The committee to whom the subject was referred made two reports. The minority report recognized that polygamy is contrary to the plain teachings of the Word of God, and that it would be an act of inconsistency for any true Christian to desire to continue in a polygamous state, but suggested that there appeared to be Scripture authority for a temporary departure from a literal observance of a specific law, and advised the reversion of the subject to the Presbytery. The majority report declined to give a definite interpretation to the passage of Scripture which was referred to, stating that the question really brought before it was—"Can a polygamist be received into the Church during its transition state in a polygamous country, with the express understanding that this polygamy is only tolerated, and that while in this state he can never be admitted to any official position in the Church?" and said, "On the question here presented the majority answer in the negative, and declare that it is not proper to admit a polygamist to membership in the Church, even under the circumstances specified." The report of the majority was adopted. Woman's Missionary Societies were commended, and the general formation of them throughout the Church was approved. The formation of a United Presbyterian Historical Society was advised. The Board of Publication was directed to purchase certain Sunday-school papers published by private parties, and to publish a monthly paper devoted to Christian beneficence for gratuitous distribution.

IV. CUMBERLAND PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church as they were reported to the General Assembly in May, 1880: The Statistical Committee remarked that they had received returns from a larger proportion of presbyteries than ever before: number of ordained ministers, 1,391; of licentiates, 260; of candidates for the ministry, 173; of congregations, 2,454; of members in communion, 111,969; of officers and teachers in Sunday-schools, 7,075; of scholars in Sunday-schools, 54,301; of baptisms during the year, 5,767 of adults,

1,900 of infants. Amount of contributions: From Sunday-schools, \$11,213; for home missions, \$7,608; for foreign missions, \$3,929; for education, \$6,126; for publication, \$1,762; for church building and repairs, \$75,831; for pastors' salaries and supplies, \$186,640; for presbyterial purposes, \$6,672; for charity, \$4,529; miscellaneous contributions, \$17,229; total contributions, \$321,569, or \$99,933 more than were reported in 1879; value of church property, \$1,837,809.

The *General Assembly* of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church met at Evansville, Indiana, May 20th. The Rev. A. Templeton, of Texas, was chosen moderator. A celebration of the semi-centennial anniversary of the organization of the Church took place during the sessions of the Assembly, at which a sermon was preached by J. L. Dillard, D. D., on the distinctive doctrines of the denomination; an historical sketch of the Church was read by R. Beard, D. D.; biographical sketches from memory of the fathers and early ministers of the Church were presented by H. A. Hunter, D. D.; and a sermon was preached on the field and work of the Church by A. J. McGlumphy, D. D. An overture was presented asking for a change in the name of the denomination, to which the Assembly replied that "such a change is impracticable, not to say undesirable." Delegates were appointed to represent the Church in the meeting of the Presbyterian Alliance to be held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in September, 1880. A majority of the presbyteries having voted in favor of it, an amendment to the form of government was adopted under which every congregation willing to support the gospel according to its means is entitled to be represented in the Presbytery by a ruling elder. The question was asked of the Assembly whether a minister of the Church could administer the ordinance of baptism to a person who had been baptized in infancy. The Assembly answered no; for the Confession of Faith declares that "the sacrament of baptism is but once to be administered to any person, there being no example for the repetition of Christian baptism." A case came up in which a presbytery had ordained a minister who had been unusually useful and successful, but who, it was known, did not reach the standard of education required by the rules of the Church, without examining him, taking the ground that it had a right to grant a dispensation in a special and urgent case. The Synod had decided that the action of the Presbytery was irregular and unauthorized, and an appeal was taken to the General Assembly. The Assembly approved the action of the Synod. A resolution was adopted, urging the faithful execution of all laws for the restriction of the traffic in intoxicating liquors, and favoring a demand for still more stringent laws on the subject. A Sabbath committee was appointed to cooperate with the International Sabbath Association of Philadelphia.

V. PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN CANADA.—The sixth *General Assembly* of the Presbyterian Church in Canada met in Montreal, June 9th. The Rev. Donald McRae, of St. John, New Brunswick, was chosen moderator. The "Narrative of the State of Religion" spoke with satisfaction of the general observance of Sunday by the people of the Church, but condemned the practice of Sunday visiting as tending to disturb members of the Church at their homes, and the Sunday railway service as tending to interrupt the services of the churches. The Committee on Sabbath Observance was directed to cooperate with synodical, presbyterial, and all other committees in all well-directed efforts to secure the due observance of the Lord's-day. A committee was appointed to watch legislation that might be attempted with respect to marriage within the forbidden degrees. Gratification was expressed at the progress of legislation for repressing the sale of intoxicating liquors. A law regarding the admission of ministers from other churches, having been approved by the Presbyteries, was finally enacted. Much attention was given to the consideration of the reports of the colleges. Halifax College had a library of nine thousand volumes, and had an endowment fund of \$100,000 subscribed, of which one half had been collected. Morrin College, Quebec, returned an annual revenue of \$3,872, with a fair attendance of occasional students, but the work done by it could not be said to be increasing. Montreal College had a total of sixty-one graduates, and a revenue in excess of its expenditures. Queen's College had a year's revenue of \$19,375, with one hundred and fifteen students in art and theology, of whom fifty-one were studying for the ministry. The financial condition of Knox College had improved, but it still needed \$30,000 to clear it of debt, and its income fell below its expenditures. It had one hundred students preparing for the ministry. Manitoba College needed new buildings to meet the increasing demand in the province for higher education. Out of forty-seven Presbyterian students who had gone up to the university, sixteen were from this institution. All of the congregations were invited to contribute to its support. Reports were received from the Ladies' Colleges at Brantford and Ottawa.

VI. CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.—The *Committee on Statistics of Christian Liberty* reported to the General Assembly that the sum of the collections, contributions, and legacies to the Church and its funds during 1879 was £330,252, or £52,000 less than the receipts from the same sources in 1878. The *Committee on Sunday-Schools* gave the number of schools at 1,961, with 185,796 scholars. The *Colonial Committee* had had available funds of £6,974 wherewith to defray an expenditure amounting to £9,013. The income of the *Home Mission Committee* for the year had been £10,595, and its expenditures £11,647. It had voted funds to fifty-one mission stations, with an at-

tendance of 6,425 persons and 1,850 communicants; and seventy-eight mission churches, with 15,900 attendants and 10,023 communicants; and to thirteen church-building enterprises. The *Endowment Committee* had endowed and erected ten new parishes during the year ending April 15, 1880. Since the institution of the scheme, 293 parishes, with 129,700 communicants, had been added to the Church. The subscriptions received in aid of the special fund of £100,000 to endow one hundred additional churches now amounted to £43,349. Five hundred and sixty-five pupils were enrolled in its schools, and one baptism had taken place at Smyrna. The income of the *Foreign Mission Committee* had been £11,014, considerably less than in the previous year, while the expenditure had been £16,062, or £3,000 more than in 1878.

The *General Assembly* of the Church of Scotland met in Edinburgh, May 20th. The Rev. Dr. Archibald Watson, of Dundee, was chosen moderator. The most important action of the Assembly was the adoption for submission to the Presbyteries of a new formula for subscription by elders, which is as follows: "I believe that the true Protestant religion, as it hath of long time been professed in this land, is founded on and agreeable to the Holy Scriptures. I own and promise to adhere to the said true Protestant religion, and to the sum and substance of the doctrine of the Reformed Churches as contained in the Confession of Faith approved by former General Assemblies of this Church, and ratified by law in the year 1690. I likewise own and promise to adhere to the worship and Presbyterian government of this Church as now settled by law, and to submit to and concur with the said government, and never to endeavor, directly or indirectly, the prejudice or subversion thereof." Attention was called to the charges against the administration of the Blantyre mission on the Shire River, Central Africa, which had been made in a published pamphlet, and which had been discussed in Parliament. The investigation by the committee appointed to inquire into the subject showed that a murder had been committed at Blantyre by natives, for which the infliction of punishment was demanded. The neighboring chiefs were asked to try the murderers, but they replied that by native law and custom jurisdiction went with the territory, and as the English were in possession at Blantyre, they, and they alone, were responsible. The murderers were tried before a native jury, presided over by one of the missionaries, and sentenced to death. The missionaries hesitated to inflict the punishment; but one of the murderers escaping, the other was shot by a volley from native guns on the scene of the murder. The Committee on Missions had at one meeting expressed the deep distress with which they received this news, and at another one had disavowed all responsibility for the act, reserving their final decision in the case until further

information should have been received. Afterward, letters were received from the missionaries, pleading that the capital sentence was undoubtedly in itself righteous, and they had been little more than passive in the matter—they had only not prevented the natives from carrying out their own laws. The committee expressed the belief that its agents had done wrong legally and otherwise in partially assuming jurisdiction and sanctioning the execution, but could regard the error only as one of judgment. Forbidding the repetition of such an act, they had entered into a careful consideration of the questions of government and punishments in their infant settlement, and had also sought the advice of the Committee of the Free Church. In September, 1879, a conflict occurred with a neighboring chief who had attacked the settlement for the purpose of plunder, and the village continued to suffer till the end of the year from raids made with the object of carrying off men and women. These events had been combined in the pamphlet publication with the story of the execution, although they had no connection with it, and were seven months apart in time. Other charges were made in the pamphlet of a habit of flogging and inhuman imprisonment alleged to be practiced by the missionaries, to which the committee of inquiry said: "These charges must be thoroughly sifted. Meanwhile they are incredible. It is true there have been cases of corporal punishment. The first was in 1877, when Mr. James Stewart was in charge. The committee believe the instances to have been rare." The Assembly directed a commissioner to be sent out to inquire into the condition of the missions, and ordered that the Mission Committee should require from any commissioner that might be sent out a precise report as to the possibility of maintaining the mission without having recourse to violence or the assumption of any form of criminal jurisdiction.

VII. FREE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.—The report of the *Finance Committee*, presented to the General Assembly in May, showed that the total income of the Church for the year had been £591,478, or £40,000 more than the income for the previous year. The contributions for the sustentation fund had amounted to £171,719. The members and adherents of the Church were stated in the report on this fund to number 302,262. The income of the *Education Committee* had been £1,499, and its expenditure £2,837. Forty-nine teachers were receiving retiring allowances. The income of the *Mission to the Jews* had been £9,702, and the ordinary expenditure in behalf of it £5,921. Eleven baptisms had taken place during the year, at Pesth, Constantinople, and Breslau, and one hundred children, three fourths of whom were of Jewish birth, were receiving instruction in the schools at those places. The whole amount of the givings of the Church during the year had been £56,000, the largest amount ever reached in one year.

The *General Assembly* of the Free Church of Scotland met at Edinburgh, May 20th. The Rev. Dr. T. Main, of Edinburgh, was elected moderator. The case of Professor Robertson Smith, who was charged with impugning the inspiration and divine authority of the Scriptures in his article on the Bible in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," came up for final disposition. An account of this case, and of the proceedings of the General Assembly of 1879 upon it, is given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879. The Assembly of 1879 had reduced the libel against Professor Smith to one count, which charged him with holding views as to the historic character of the Book of Deuteronomy contradicting the doctrine of the direct inspiration, infallible truth, and divine authority of the Scriptures. When the amended form of libel was sent down to the Presbytery of Aberdeen, Professor Smith claimed to be heard on the relevancy of the charge; and, on the Presbytery deciding to serve the libel, he took a protest to the superior courts. The Presbytery thereupon agreed to resist procedure, and report the whole case to the Synod. The Synod of Aberdeen took a similar course when the case came before it, and the matter was thus brought again into the Assembly. Several motions were made for the disposition of the case. The Assembly divided upon two of them. One of these two was moved by Sir Henry Moncrieff, and was to the effect that the libel should be dropped, but that, in view of the sense of the Church to the danger lying in the line of view and discussion adopted by Professor Smith, as embodied in the previous proceedings on the subject, and inasmuch as Professor Smith no longer retained that measure of confidence on the part of the Church which was necessary to the edifying and useful performance of his professorial work, he must now cease to occupy any longer the chair of Hebrew and Old Testament Literature in the University of Aberdeen. The Rev. Dr. Beith moved "that the General Assembly, considering that the course of the case has confirmed the report of the college committee, that they had not found any ground sufficient to justify a process for heresy against Professor Robertson Smith, inasmuch as seven of the eight counts in the original libel have been found irrelevant, while, with regard to the remaining count, the explanations offered by Professor Smith at various stages, and, in particular, his answer to the amended libel, afford satisfactory evidence that in this aspect of the case there is not sufficient ground to support the process for heresy, do resolve to withdraw the libel against him. Further, the Assembly, finding that Professor Smith is blameworthy for the unguarded and incomplete statements of his articles, which have occasioned much anxiety in the Church, and given offense to many brethren zealous for the honor of the Word of God, instruct the Moderator to admonish Professor Smith with due solemnity as

to the past, in the confident expectation that the defects referred to will be guarded against and avoided in time to come. And, finally, the Assembly declares that, in declining to decide on these critical views by way of discipline, the Church expresses no opinion in favor of their truth or probability, but leaves the ultimate decision to future inquiry, in the spirit of patience, humility, and brotherly charity, admonishing professors to remember that they are not set for the propagation of their own opinions, but for the maintenance of the doctrine and truth committed to the Church." This resolution was adopted by a vote of 299, to 290 votes for the motion of Sir Henry Moncrieff. Professor Smith accepted the settlement, and said, in response to the admonition of the Moderator: "I hope that I am not out of place when I say that, while I thank God for the issue of this evening—an issue which, I trust, will be for his glory and for the maintenance of his truth—I have never been more sensible than on the present occasion of the blame that rests upon me for statements which have proved so incomplete that, even at the end of three years, the opinion of this house has been so divided upon them. I feel that, in the providence of God, this is a very weighty lesson to one placed as I am, in the position of a teacher; and I hope that by his grace I shall not fail to learn by it." Sir Henry Moncrieff moved a resolution to invite each theological professor to send in by February, 1881, a statement of the views he was prepared to teach to his students regarding the genuineness, authenticity, and inspiration of the Scriptures. Dr. Adam moved that, while there was no good cause for taking such action as was proposed, professors and ministers alike be exhorted to lay to heart the lessons which the important case just decided was fitted to convey. Dr. Adam's motion was adopted. A resolution was adopted declaring the possession by a single church of the exceptional position and privileges of an established church to be "most unjust and thoroughly unreasonable"; that the termination of the connection between church and state "would remove a great obstacle to the religious well-being of the country, and to the prospect of a harmonious and flourishing Presbyterianism in Scotland"; that the funds set free by disestablishment "ought to be employed in objects connected with the welfare of the community, and among these is an improved and completed system of education in conformity with the convictions of the people of Scotland"; that the time has come to press this policy, and that Parliament be petitioned in favor of it.

A new volume of the "Encyclopædia Britannica" was published a short time after the Assembly adjourned, containing an article by Professor Smith on the "Hebrew Language and Hebrew Literature," in which some of the views stated in the former article on the "Bible" were substantially repeated. It embodied criticisms of the Book of Jonah and an exam-

ination of the genealogies of the Bible, in which, among other things, the writer spoke of Eber as being an "ethnological abstraction." This was considered by many in the Church as a reflection upon the genuineness of the genealogy of Christ, and was noticed in several of the Presbyteries as a new offense by Professor Smith, and a contempt of the action of the Assembly. Resolutions were adopted in twelve Presbyteries calling the attention of the Commission of the General Assembly to the subject, and requesting it at its meeting in August to take the article into consideration, "so far as to adopt such steps as they may judge fit to meet the disturbance and anxiety prevailing in the Church, and to vindicate scriptural principles." Professor Smith presented a letter to the Church through his own Presbytery of Aberdeen, explaining that the article complained of had been written and furnished to the editors of the "Encyclopædia" some time before the meeting of the Assembly; that it was wholly out of his control at that time; that he had expected the volume to be published before the meeting, so that the Assembly would be able to act with the new article before it; and that he was sorry it had been delayed. In view of the decision of the Assembly upon his case, he had felt it his duty and was arranging his work so as to avoid disturbing controversy and devote himself to such departments of church work and scholarly research as could not excite it, but might rather bring him into closer sympathy with those who differed from his critical opinions. The Commission of the Assembly met August 11th, and having considered the requests of the Presbyteries and the letter of Professor Smith, appointed a committee to examine the new article and the letter, to consider their bearing upon the accepted belief and teaching of the Church, and to report their opinion and advice to an *in hunc effectum* meeting of the Commission to be held October 27th, before which Professor Smith was cited to appear.

The committee reported at the meeting thus appointed to the effect that the writings of Professor Smith raised new questions in the history of the Church in cases of heresy respecting the infallible truth of the Holy Scriptures. The committee did not, they said, impute to Professor Smith the intention of assailing the integrity and authority of the Scriptures in the writings they had examined; but the statements made by him in many particulars were fitted, and could hardly fail to produce upon the minds of readers the impression that Scripture does not present a reliable statement of truth, and that God is not the author of it; and it greatly concerned the character and credit of the Free Church to make it clear, in opposition to any such impression, that it held firmly and would maintain the infallible truth and authority of the Scriptures as the word of God. The report then adduced particular passages supporting its views, and con-

tinued by stating that "the whole tendency of the writings examined by the committee is fitted to throw the Old Testament history into confusion, and at least to weaken, if not to destroy, the very foundation on which New Testament doctrine is built; moreover, the general method on which he proceeds conveys the impression that the Bible may be accounted for by the same laws which have determined the growth of any other literature, inasmuch as there is no adequate recognition of the divine element in the production of the book." The committee accordingly recommended that the Commission take steps for making it evident that "the Free Church can not sanction the kind of teaching inadvertently upon in this report, which these writings would justify, and for urging the General Assembly to declare to her people and to other churches that she can not sanction the ideas suggested by it." The committee took issue with Professor Smith as to the interpretation put upon the action of the previous General Assembly, saying that the Assembly neither did nor could determine a general principle as to what views were consistent with the tenure of office in the Free Church, and that the judgment it had uttered was applicable only to the case before it. A motion was offered by Dr. Wilson, approving the report of the committee, declaring that the views of Professor Smith were dangerous, and protesting against the Church being implicated in the promulgation of them; resolving to transmit the whole matter to the General Assembly for further action; in the mean time instructing Professor Smith "to abstain from teaching his classes during the ensuing session, leaving the whole question of his status and position in the Free Church to the determination of the ensuing Assembly"; and advising the College Committee to make provision for the teaching of Professor Smith's classes. Mr. Ross Taylor offered a motion blaming Professor Smith for making unguarded statements; transmitting the report of the committee to the Presbytery of Aberdeen; and calling upon Professor Smith to heed, in the discharge of his duties as professor, the admonition addressed to him at the last Assembly. The motion of Dr. Wilson was adopted by a vote of 270 to 202 for that of Mr. Taylor, and Professor Smith was suspended.

VIII. UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.—Reports made to the Synod of this Church at its annual meeting in May, 1880, showed that the number of members in full communion was 174,134, or 932 less than were reported at the Synod of 1879. The amount of contributions for congregational purposes had been £225,402, and the amount of missionary and benevolent contributions £79,268, making the total income of the Church for 1879, £336,738, or £30,649 less than the income for 1878.

The Synod of the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland met in Edinburgh, May 3d. The

Rev. Professor Henry Calderwood was chosen moderator. The committee, to whom certain protests in the case of the Rev. Fergus Ferguson (which largely occupied the attention of the Synod of 1879) were referred, reported that, while it would have preferred another course of action on the part of the Glasgow Presbytery (south) in the way of preliminary inquiry, it would recommend that the decision of the Presbytery, declining to institute a new prosecution against Mr. Ferguson, be sustained as competent. The Synod voted that, without expressing any opinion on the doctrines that are supposed to be involved in the protest and appeal, it would adopt the report of the committee and dismiss the case. The committee on disestablishment and disendowment made a report in which it said that "it is probable that in no former year has the cause of disestablishment made more substantial advance." The Synod adopted the report, and recommended that a petition be presented to Parliament in favor of disestablishment. The question respecting the attitude which the Church should maintain with reference to marriage with a deceased wife's sister was discussed. The Synod decided, by a vote of 145 to 118, to adhere "meanwhile" to the existing practice of the Church. A resolution was passed condemning social drinking usages, especially at funerals and ordination dinners, declaring in favor of the earlier closing of public-houses, and approving a petition to Parliament against the Contagious Diseases Acts. Twelve deputies were appointed to represent the Church at the Presbyterian and Reformed Council to be held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in July, 1880.

IX. PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF ENGLAND.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church as they were reported to the Synod in May, 1880: number of Presbyteries, 10; of congregations, 268; of ministers, 249; of communicants, 54,259; of Sunday-school teachers, 6,252, with 60,775 scholars; of day-schools, 37, with 6,780 children.

X. PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN IRELAND.—The *General Assembly* of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland met at Belfast, June 7th. The Rev. Jackson Smith, D. D., of Armagh, was chosen moderator. The question of the use of instrumental music in public worship was brought up under the form of a resolution which was introduced for the appointment of a commission to look after the subject; and, in the event of disobedience to the laws of the Assembly by the introduction of instruments, to bring to discipline the ministers disobeying. This was lost by a vote of 250 to 263, and the question was remitted to the Presbyteries for another year. Remark was made upon the action of the late Government of the United Kingdom in announcing, just before the general election, that it was about to grant a charter to enable the united faculties of the Presbyterian colleges in Belfast and Derry to confer degrees in theology. Many members of the

Assembly were of the opinion that the announcement was designed as a trick to gain the votes of Presbyterians at the election. In connection with the subject of the privilege of conferring degrees, the action of the Committee of Education, in calling the attention of the Government to the inconvenience under which the Presbyterian Church lies in the matter as compared with the Episcopal Church, was approved; the committee was reappointed and directed to press the matter upon the attention of the Government. A resolution was considered, to lie on the table for one year, providing that theological students may attend any of the theological colleges of churches which accept the Westminster Confession and Catechism. The report of the sustentation fund showed that its receipts for the year had been £26,076, or £1,361 more than those of the previous year. The expenses of the Irish mission for the year had been £3,272, and its income had been a little less. Connected with the missions were 39 schools in Connaught, with 46 teachers and 1,463 pupils.

The income for foreign missions for the year had been £9,200. Six European missionaries, ten evangelists, and twenty-five teachers, were employed in connection with the mission in India.

XI. WELSH CALVINISTIC METHODIST CHURCH.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church as they were reported to the General Assembly in July, 1880: Number of churches, 1,115; of places of worship, 1,319; of ministers, 591; of preachers, 329; of communicants, 118,036; of Sunday-school teachers, 21,605; of children in Sunday-schools, 155,159. The report of the *Foreign Missionary Society* gave the following statistics: Number of churches, 29; of places of worship, 54; of church-members, 1,659.

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH. The "Church Almanac" gives the following statistics: Number of dioceses, 48; of missionary districts (including Africa, China, and Japan), 15; of bishops, 64; of bishops-elect, 2; of priests and deacons, 3,366; whole number of clergy, 3,432; number of parishes, about 3,000; number of baptisms in forty-seven dioceses, and thirteen missionary districts, 46,582; number of confirmations in forty-seven dioceses and thirteen missionary districts, 25,632; number of communicants in forty-eight dioceses and thirteen missionary districts, 338,333; number of Sunday-school teachers in forty-six dioceses and nine missionary districts, 31,614; number of scholars in Sunday-schools in forty-seven dioceses and twelve missionary districts, 297,407. Amount of contributions in forty-five dioceses and twelve missionary districts, \$6,727,043.

The following is a summary of the statistics of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, as they are given in Whittaker's "Protestant Episcopal Almanac and Directory" for 1881:

DIOCESSES AND MISSIONS.	Clergy.	Parishes.	Communi- cants.
Alabama.....	28	37	3,458
Albany.....	119	110	13,226
Arkansas.....	14	18	939
California.....	53	25	3,862
Central New York.....	96	105	12,296
Central Pennsylvania.....	88	83	6,891
Connecticut.....	183	148	20,249
Delaware.....	28	34	1,989
Easton.....	34	84	2,516
Florida.....	19	16	1,546
Fond du Lac.....	26	40	2,353
Georgia.....	37	34	4,433
Illinois.....	58	36	5,861
Indiana.....	32	39	3,692
Iowa.....	51	54	3,963
Kansas.....	29	23	1,860
Kentucky.....	35	36	3,954
Long Island.....	96	65	14,906
Louisiana.....	34	45	2,957
Maine.....	27	31	2,067
Maryland.....	163	182	20,084
Massachusetts.....	150	102	17,189
Michigan.....	60	63	7,184
Minnesota.....	73	61	4,536
Mississippi.....	30	35	1,694
Missouri.....	55	46	5,335
Nebraska.....	32	29	1,526
New Hampshire.....	31	25	2,065
New Jersey.....	93	70	6,924
New York.....	309	199	38,637
North Carolina.....	69	86	5,672
Northern New Jersey.....	76	66	7,513
Ohio.....	66	71	6,810
Pennsylvania.....	192	122	25,263
Pittsburg.....	45	55	5,896
Quincy.....	29	29	1,502
Rhode Island.....	43	41	6,338
South Carolina.....	47	55	4,549
Southern Ohio.....	53	43	4,783
Springfield.....	33	21	1,863
Tennessee.....	33	36	3,516
Texas.....	25	29	2,063
Vermont.....	29	51	3,316
Virginia.....	130	160	12,884
Western Michigan.....	30	29	3,063
Western New York.....	98	97	12,000
West Virginia.....	19	24	1,911
Wisconsin.....	60	41	4,027
MISSIONARY JURISDICTIONS.			
Oregon.....	21	39	1,067
Dakota.....	12	11	433
Colorado and Wyoming.....	23	30	1,545
Utah and Idaho.....	15	20	879
Nevada.....	7	9	340
Niobrara.....	14	..	696
Northern Texas.....	14	8	1,005
Western Texas.....	10	10	744
Northern California.....	16	15	763
New Mexico and Arizona.....	5
Montana.....	7	5	..
Washington.....	7	5	..
African Missions.....	12
China Missions.....	12	..	221
Japan Missions.....	8	..	77
Europe and Cuba.....	15	6	..
Total, 48 dioceses and 16 missions.....	3,369	2,996	345,541

Number of bishops, 63; of bishops-elect, 3, making the total number of clergy of all orders, 3,435. Number of missions, additional to the regularly organized parishes, 1,155. Number of baptisms during the year, 47,963; of confirmations, 25,903, so far as reported. Number of Sunday-school teachers, 34,041; of scholars in Sunday-schools, 299,070. Amount of contributions, so far as they were reported, \$7,013,762.

The periodicals of the Church are: "The American Church Review" (quarterly), New York; "The Churchman" (weekly), New

York; "The Church Eclectic" (monthly), Utica, New York; the "Church Monthly Magazine" (monthly), New York; the "Episcopal Register" (weekly), Philadelphia, New York, and Baltimore; "The Guardian" (weekly), New York; "The Living Church" (weekly), Chicago, Illinois; the "Pacific Churchman" (semi-monthly), San Francisco, California; the "Parish Visitor" (monthly), New York; the "Protestant Episcopal Church News" (weekly), Baltimore, Maryland; the "Spirit of Missions" (monthly), New York; the "Southern Churchman" (weekly), Richmond, Virginia; the "Standard of the Cross" (weekly), Cleveland, Ohio; "The Standard" (weekly), New York; "The Western Church" (weekly), Milwaukee, Wisconsin; "The Young Churchman" (monthly), Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

The *Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society of the Protestant Episcopal Church* met in the city of New York in October, in connection with the meeting of the General Convention. The *Committee of Domestic Missions* reported that its receipts for the year had been, for general domestic missions, \$105,708; designated for work among the colored people of the South, \$9,663; designated for work among the Indians, \$28,992; special contributions, not at all under the control of the committee, \$20,907: making in all, \$165,273. Its expenditures had been \$164,397. The committee employed 274 missionaries (including nine bishops) among white people, twenty-four clergymen and twenty-two lay-readers and teachers among the colored people, one Chinese clergyman among the Chinese, one bishop, twelve white and eleven native clergymen, three teachers, ten native catechists, and twelve women helpers—in all, forty-nine laborers among the Indians; making a total of 370 agents.

The total receipts of the *Foreign Committee* for the year had been \$162,084, and its expenditures \$166,670. The treasury was overdrawn on general missionary account to the amount of \$15,182. The committee held available assets to the amount of \$82,194. The missions of the Society were in Greece (consisting of a school with one American and eight native teachers and 700 scholars), Africa (Liberia and Cape Palmas), China, Japan, Hayti, and Mexico, and employed forty-six foreign missionaries, clergymen, physicians, and women missionaries, 175 native laborers, of whom twenty-nine were in holy orders, and returned an average attendance of 10,000 persons at divine service, 4,500 communicants, and 2,500 pupils in schools. A college had been established in China, and theological seminaries in Japan and Mexico, besides day and boarding schools in connection with all the missions.

The report of the *committee on the General Theological Seminary* showed that an effort to secure an endowment fund of \$250,000 had been begun in order to provide suitable salaries for the professors and enlarge the educational staff, and \$52,000 had already been given

to it. The institution had been attended during the year by ninety-four students, a larger number than had ever been present at one time since its organization.

The Rev. Thomas A. Starkey, having been elected Bishop of Northern New Jersey, to succeed Bishop Odenheimer, who died August 14, 1879, was consecrated to that office, January 8th.

The Rev. John N. Galleher was consecrated Bishop of Louisiana, February 5th, succeeding Bishop J. P. B. Wilmer, deceased.

The Rev. George K. Dunlop was consecrated Missionary Bishop of New Mexico, November 21st.

The *General Convention* of the Protestant Episcopal Church met in New York City October 6th. Bishop Herzog, of the Old Catholic Church in Switzerland, and Bishop Cotterill, of the Anglican Church, Edinburgh, Scotland, were present at the opening services as visiting delegates. Bishop Smith, of Kentucky, presided over the House of Bishops. The Rev. Dr. E. E. Beardsley, of Connecticut, was elected President of the House of Deputies.

A committee, consisting of five bishops, five clergymen, and five laymen, was appointed to examine the new revision of the English translation of the Bible and report whether it should be adopted by the Church, but was instructed to defer its report until after the Convention of Canterbury, representing the English Church, shall have acted on the subject. A report from the Committee on Christian Education was adopted, which recommended that the title of the committee should henceforth be "the Committee on Education under the Auspices and Control of the Protestant Episcopal Church"; that all churchmen use their means and energy in establishing parochial schools, and refuse to send their children to schools under the control of other denominations; that a system of higher education be provided for the schools for girls of the different parishes; and that no churchman send his children to any school which is not under diocesan control. A joint committee of bishops, presbyters, and laymen was appointed to watch what measures the Government might employ to secure to the Indians their civil rights, and to take such action as it should deem expedient for securing additional legislation. A petition was presented on the subject of free churches, asking the Convention to recognize the following principles: "1. That our churches should be so free and open that all who wish may worship in them. 2. That in them there should be no distinctions on the ground of wealth or social position. 3. That when they are consecrated, appropriated, and devoted to the honor and worship of Almighty God, they should be absolutely and unreservedly his, and in no sense the property of a limited number of persons who have bought their pews." The Convention declined to commit itself to the approval of a rule forbidding the consecration of pewed

churches. A resolution was offered recommending that the Canon on Divorce be amended in conformity with Deuteronomy xxiv, 1-4, so as to prohibit the remarriage of a divorced husband and wife. The Convention decided not to make any change in the canon. The Dioceses of Quincy, Springfield, and Illinois, having formed a federative council, the Convention was asked to recognize their organization and its power to do independent missionary work and hold an appellate court, under the name of the "Federative Council of the Province of Illinois." The Convention refused to sanction the use of the word province, but recognized the council under the name of the "Federative Council of the Dioceses of Illinois." Petitions were presented for the establishment of a court of appeals, and became the occasion of a discussion of the position of the Church on that subject. The Convention denied the petitions, and decided against making any change in the present judicial system of the Church. A joint committee, which had been appointed to consider and report on the subject of sisterhoods and deaconesses, reported that it had deemed it inexpedient to propose any specific legislation in regard to sisterhoods, but recommended a Canon on Deaconesses, which was adopted. It provides that women of devout character may be set apart by any bishop for the work of deaconesses. The duties of the office are the visitation of the Lord's poor and sick, the education of the young, the religious instruction of the neglected, the reclamation of the fallen, and other works of charity. Candidates for the office must be twenty-five years of age, though in special cases the Bishop may receive persons of twenty years of age and upward, and must have spent a year in preparation. No deaconesses can work officially in any diocese without the written permission of the Bishop, and they may be transferred from one diocese to another. An amendment to the canon was adopted allowing the minister to use a shortened form of service on certain days, with the provision that no prayers not set forth in the Book of Common Prayer should be used before or after the sermon or lecture. The Committee on the Lectionary presented a report embodying the results of their labors in revising that part of the service, which was adopted. The tables of lessons had been carefully revised and new passages had been substituted, and the lessons from the New Testament were shorter than those now in use. The following acts were also adopted:

"If in any church, upon a Sunday or holy day, both morning and evening prayer be not said, the minister may read the lessons appointed either for morning or for evening prayer." "At evening prayer on Sunday the minister may read the lesson from the Gospels appointed for the day of the month, in place of the second lesson for the Sunday," and "upon any day for which no proper lessons are provided, the lessons appointed in the calendar for any day in the same week may be read in place of the lessons for the day."

In the consideration of the missionary interests of the Church, the Convention ordered that the present system of collecting moneys for missions be superseded by a plan for subscriptions, under which members should pledge themselves to pay certain sums each year, in quarterly installments. The Board of Managers of the Missionary Society was advised to consider whether more liberal provision ought not to be made for preaching to the colored people of the South. A committee was appointed to consider the question of establishing a colored church in the South. A proposal was approved to organize a church-building commission and raise a fund of \$100,000, the interest of which is to be applied to the building of one hundred churches yearly. The appointment of a missionary bishop for every territory was decided upon, and a joint commission of twenty-one bishops, presbyters, and laymen was appointed to make provision for the new bishops. The Committee on the State of the Church, in its report, called attention to the neglected condition of the Southern and Western dioceses, and referred to a disposition discovered in some of the clergy to conform to various sentiments and opinions which once were neither considered consistent with ministerial fidelity nor approved by the worldly-minded, and to indulge in practices which were considered destructive of respect for teachers of religion.

PRUSSIA,* a kingdom of Europe, forming part of the German Empire. King, William I, German Emperor and King of Prussia. The composition of the Prussian Ministry remained in 1880 unchanged.

The population of Prussia, according to the new census of 1880, amounted to 27,260,331, an increase of 1,517,927, or 5.89 per cent., over the census of 1875. The following table gives the population of the provinces with the increase since 1875:

PROVINCES.	Population in 1880.	Increase since 1875.
Eastern Prussia.....	1,930,498	74,077
Western Prussia.....	1,402,498	59,441
Brandenburg.....	3,353,560	257,183
Pomerania.....	1,538,454	76,471
Posen.....	1,709,943	94,859
Silesia.....	4,003,223	159,524
Saxony.....	2,311,067	142,940
Schleswig Holstein.....	1,124,862	50,936
Hanover.....	2,115,745	98,352
Westphalia.....	2,040,672	134,975
Hesse-Nassau.....	1,558,344	85,446
Rhenish Provinces.....	4,087,886	238,505
Hohenzollern.....	67,579	1,118
Total.....	27,260,331	1,517,927

The budget estimates of both revenue and expenditures were as follows during each of the four years from 1878 to 1881 (the financial year ending March 31st):

YEAR.	Revenue and Expenditure, each.
1878.....	657,320,344
1879.....	718,857,764
1880.....	711,500,758
1881.....	799,200,581

* For additional statistics and information, see Article GERMANY.

Direct taxes form the chief source of revenue, and, next to them, the receipts from State railways. In recent years the income from railways and other State undertakings, such as mines, has been largely increasing, showing a tendency to become a far more fruitful source of revenue than all taxation, direct or indirect.

The public debt of the kingdom, according to the budget of 1880 to 1881, was 1,395,389,183 marks, of which 88,746,086 were debts of the new provinces.

The Diet resumed its session, which had been interrupted by the Christmas vacation, on January 8, 1880, and continued it until February 12th, when it was prorogued to make room for the German Reichstag. It met again on May 20th, and was closed on July 3d. The debates on the conflict between the State Government of Prussia and the Catholic Church were this year influenced by the fact that Prince Bismarck was in negotiation with the Papal Nuncio of Vienna about putting an end to the conflict. The Pope on February 24th addressed a letter to the deposed Archbishop of Cologne, which was officially communicated to Prince Bismarck, in which he made the concession that the Bishops should have the duty of notifying to the Government the names of the priests who were to be appointed prior to their canonical installation. In a dispatch from the Papal Secretary of State, dated March 17th, this concession was somewhat limited, and later it was taken back altogether. On April 20th Prince Bismarck declared that Prussia would not assent to a revision or a repeal of the May laws on the basis of the clerical claims, but reiterated his readiness to coöperate for a compromise based on mutual concessions. In the mean while (March 28th) the Prussian Government had introduced in the Diet a bill by which some of the provisions of the original May laws which were most offensive to the Catholic party were repealed, while, on the other hand, it was made obligatory for the bishops to notify the Government of the ecclesiastical appointments. The Catholic party, though it welcomed some of the concessions made by the Government, declared itself opposed to the bill as a whole. A special committee appointed in the Lower House advised the rejection of the bill by 13 against 8 votes; the House itself, however, in June, after rejecting a few of the clauses, adopted the remainder of the bill by 206 against 202 votes, the Conservative and Free Conservative parties and a part of the National Liberals voting for it. The bill in this shape was also adopted by the House of Lords, and went into effect on July 14th. It is to last only until January, 1882. The law afforded some relief in the administration of the dioceses which were without bishops, facilitating the appointment of priests as in vacant parishing, and providing that in future the courts shall not have the right of deposing priests from their office, but only that of declaring their incompetency, i. e.,

revoking their exequatur. During the discussion, Professor Virchow, the leader of the Party of Progress, declared again in favor of an entire separation between church and State, which the minister of worship, Herr von Puttkammer, regarded as a great danger for the State, as he thought that within twenty years it would lead to a predominance of the Ultramontane party.

The Government also introduced four bills relating to the organization of the local administration of the country. Two of them were adopted during the present session, being supported not only by the Conservative party, but also by the National Liberals and Party of the Center, and of the Party of Progress. The Diet unanimously granted to the Government a credit of several million marks for relieving several districts of Upper Silesia, which had severely suffered from inundations and a hard winter.

The second session of the Fourteenth Prussian Diet was opened in the name of the King by Count Stolberg. It was stated in the opening speech that the financial condition of the country showed a decided change for the better, and that, in view of expected surplus moneys from the Imperial exchequer, a remission of three months' class taxes, to the aggregate amount of fourteen million marks, was contemplated. In the House of Deputies, Herr von Köller was reelected President, and Herr von Benda first Vice-President, but the second Vice-President of the preceding session, Freiherr von Heeremann, was not reelected. The majority of the Conservative party refused to vote for him, because he, with the other members of the Catholic Center, had refused to attend, in compliance with the Emperor's invitation, the opening of the Cologne Cathedral.

The Government looked upon the coming session as one of unusual interest. The reorganization of the local administration of the kingdom, which had been begun in the preceding session, was to be completed, and the co-operation of the Diet for the novel, bold, and far-reaching financial schemes of Prince Bismarck, especially in regard to indirect taxes and monopolies, was to be secured. One of the Government bills referred to the appointment of a national railway council for the management of the State lines. This council will consist of a president and vice-presidents, to be nominated for three years by the king; of commissioners from the ministries of public works, trade and commerce, finance and agriculture; of three members from either House of Parliament; and of one, two, or three representatives of the various provinces, according to their importance in regard to the railways. The council is to begin its labors on January 1, 1882. The Diet referred the Government bills to committees which had not finished their work, when the Diet, on December 18th, adjourned to January 8, 1881.

On November 20th and 22d there was in

the House of Deputies a violent debate on the Jewish question. Deputy Hänel, formerly one of the vice-presidents of the House of Deputies, asked the Government what position it intended to assume with regard to the so-called Anti-Semite petition which aimed at the abolition of the constitutional rights of Jewish citizens. Count Stolberg, in the name of the Government, replied that the petition had not yet been received, and that the Government therefore had no official knowledge of its contents, but he did not hesitate to say that the State ministry had no intention to alter the present laws of Germany which guaranteed the equal rights of the religious laws in regard to the civil law. Notwithstanding this declaration of the Government, the interest taken by all the parties of the House in the Anti-Semite movement was so intense that by general consent the House engaged for two days in a general discussion of the question. The leading men of all the parties expressed their views on the agitation against the Jews. No one demanded a repeal of Jewish emancipation or a limitation of the constitutional rights of the Jewish citizens, but some of the Conservative deputies repeated the violent attacks which in some public meeting had been pronounced against the Jews as a foreign race, which was without sympathy with the German nationality, and had justly incurred a general odium by its prominent participations in the worst financial swindles of the last years. One Deputy, Herr von Ludwig, maintained that fully ninety per cent. of the participators in these financial swindles ("Gründer") had been Jews. Deputy Virchow, who severely censured the agitation, stated that it was unfortunately on the increase, especially among the students of the universities.

A royal decree of November 15th created an Economical Council (Volkswirtschaftsrath), which is to consist of seventy-five members, and to serve for five years. For forty-five of the members, the Chambers of Commerce, the heads of the commercial corporations, and of the agricultural associations, have a right of presentation. They propose the double number, from which the ministers for commerce and trades, for public works, and for agriculture select forty-five, of whom fifteen must be representatives of trades, fifteen of commerce, and fifteen of agriculture and forestry. The thirty other members of the council are elected by the ministers above members, and it is provided that one half of them must be mechanics or workmen. The council is to give its opinion on drafts of bills and decrees relating to important economical interest in commerce, trades, agriculture and forestry, before they are submitted to the king for ratification, also the motions to be made and the votes to be cast by the Prussian members of the Federal Council so far as they relate to economical questions. The council consists of three sections—for commerce, for trades, and for agri-

culture and forestry. Its standing committee consists of twenty-five members, of whom each of three sections elects five, and the ministers ten.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. *Annual Message of President HAYES, at the third Session of the Forty-sixth Congress, commencing December 6, 1880.*

FELLOW-CITIZENS OF THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES: I congratulate you on the continued and increasing prosperity of our country. By the favor of Divine Providence we have been blessed, during the past year, with health, with abundant harvests, with profitable employment for all our people, with contentment at home, and with peace and friendship with other nations. The occurrence of the twenty-fourth election of Chief Magistrate has afforded another opportunity to the people of the United States to exhibit to the world a significant example of the peaceful and safe transmission of the power and authority of Government from the public servants whose terms of office are about to expire, to their newly-chosen successors. This example can not fail to impress profoundly thoughtful people of other countries with the advantages which Republican institutions afford. The immediate, general, and cheerful acquiescence of all good citizens in the result of the election gives gratifying assurance to our country, and to its friends throughout the world, that a government based on the free consent of an intelligent and patriotic people possesses elements of strength, stability, and permanency not found in any other form of government.

Continued opposition to the full and free enjoyment of the rights of citizenship conferred upon the colored people by the recent amendments to the Constitution still prevails in several of the late slave-holding States. It has, perhaps, not been manifested in the recent election to any large extent in acts of violence or intimidation. It has, however, by fraudulent practices in connection with the ballots, with the regulations as to the places and manner of voting, and with counting, returning, and canvassing the votes cast, been successful in defeating the exercise of the right preservative of all rights—the right of suffrage—which the Constitution expressly confers upon our enfranchised citizens.

It is the desire of the good people of the whole country that sectionalism as a factor in our politics should disappear. They prefer that no section of the country should be united in solid opposition to any other section. The disposition to refuse a prompt and hearty obedience to the equal-rights amendments to the Constitution is all that now stands in the way of a complete obliteration of sectional lines in our political contests. As long as either of these amendments is flagrantly violated or disregarded, it is safe to assume that the people who placed them in the Constitution, as embodying the legitimate results of the war for the Union, and who believe them to be wise and necessary, will continue to act together, and to insist that they shall be obeyed. The paramount question still is as to the enjoyment of the right by every American citizen who has the requisite qualifications to freely cast his vote and to have it honestly counted. With this question rightly settled, the country will be relieved of the contentions of the past; by-gones will indeed be by-gones; and political and party issues, with respect to economy and efficiency of administration, internal improvements, the tariff, domestic taxation, education, finance, and other important subjects, will then receive their full share of attention; but resistance to and nullification of the results of the war will unite together in resolute purpose for their support all who maintain the authority of the Government and the perpetuity of the Union, and who adequately appreciate the value of the victory achieved. This determination proceeds from no hostile sentiment or feeling to any part of the people of our country or

to any of their interests. The inviolability of the amendments rests upon the fundamental principle of our Government. They are the solemn expression of the will of the people of the United States.

The sentiment that the constitutional rights of all our citizens must be maintained does not grow weaker. It will continue to control the government of the country. Happily, the history of the late election shows that in many parts of the country where opposition to the Fifteenth Amendment has heretofore prevailed, it is diminishing, and is likely to cease altogether, if firm and well-considered action is taken by Congress. I trust the House of Representatives and the Senate, which have the right to judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of their own members, will see to it that every case of violation of the letter or spirit of the Fifteenth Amendment is thoroughly investigated, and that no benefit from such violation shall accrue to any person or party. It will be the duty of the Executive, with sufficient appropriations for the purpose, to prosecute unsparingly all who have been engaged in depriving citizens of the rights guaranteed to them by the Constitution.

It is not, however, to be forgotten that the best and surest guarantee for the primary rights of citizenship is to be found in that capacity for self-protection which can belong only to a people whose right to universal suffrage is supported by universal education. The means at the command of the local and State authorities are, in many cases, wholly inadequate to furnish free instruction to all who need it. This is especially true where, before emancipation, the education of the people was neglected or prevented, in the interest of slavery. Firmly convinced that the subject of popular education deserves the earnest attention of the people of the whole country, with a view to wise and comprehensive action by the Government of the United States, I respectfully recommend that Congress, by suitable legislation and with proper safeguards, supplement the local educational funds in the several States where the grave duties and responsibilities of citizenship have been devolved on uneducated people, by devoting to the purpose grants of the public lands, and, if necessary, by appropriations from the Treasury of the United States. Whatever Government can fairly do to promote free popular education ought to be done. Wherever general education is found, peace, virtue, and social order prevail, and civil and religious liberty are secure.

In my former annual messages I have asked the attention of Congress to the urgent necessity of a reformation of the Civil-Service system of the Government. My views concerning the dangers of patronage, or appointments for personal or partisan considerations, have been strengthened by my observation and experience in the Executive office, and I believe these dangers threaten the stability of the Government. Abuses so serious in their nature can not be permanently tolerated. They tend to become more alarming with the enlargement of administrative service, as the growth of the country in population increases the number of officers and place-men employed.

The reasons are imperative for the adoption of fixed rules for the regulation of appointments, promotions, and removals, establishing a uniform method, having exclusively in view, in every instance, the attainment of the best qualifications for the position in question. Such a method alone is consistent with the equal rights of all citizens, and the most economical and efficient administration of the public business.

Competitive examinations, in aid of impartial appointments and promotions, have been conducted for some years past in several of the Executive departments, and by my direction this system has been adopted in the custom-houses and post-offices of the larger cities of the country. In the city of New York over two thousand positions in the Civil Service have been subject, in their appointments and tenure of place, to the operation of published rules for this purpose, during the past two years. The results of these practical trials have been very satisfactory, and have con-

firmed my opinion in favor of this system of selection. All are subjected to the same tests, and the result is free from prejudice by personal favor or partisan influence. It secures for the position applied for the best qualifications attainable among the competing applicants. It is an effectual protection from the pressure of importunity which, under any other course pursued, largely exacts the time and attention of appointing officers, to their great detriment in the discharge of other official duties, preventing the abuse of the service for the mere furtherance of private or party purposes, and leaving the employee of the Government, freed from the obligations imposed by patronage, to depend solely upon merit for retention and advancement, and with this constant incentive to exertion and improvement.

These invaluable results have been attained in a high degree in the offices where the rules for appointment by competitive examination have been applied.

A method which has so approved itself by experimental tests, at points where such tests may be fairly considered conclusive, should be extended to all subordinate positions under the Government. I believe that a strong and growing public sentiment demands immediate measures for securing and enforcing the highest possible efficiency in the Civil Service and its protection from recognized abuses, and that the experience referred to has demonstrated the feasibility of such measures.

The examinations in the custom-houses and post-offices have been held under many embarrassments and without provision for compensation for the extra labor performed by the officers who have conducted them, and whose commendable interest in the improvement of the public service has induced this devotion of time and labor without pecuniary reward. A continuance of these labors gratuitously ought not to be expected, and, without an appropriation by Congress for compensation, it is not practicable to extend the system of examinations generally throughout the civil service. It is also highly important that all such examinations should be conducted upon a uniform system and under general supervision. Section 1753 of the Revised Statutes authorizes the President to prescribe the regulations for admission to the Civil Service of the United States, and for this purpose to employ suitable persons to conduct the requisite inquiries with reference to "the fitness of each candidate, in respect to age, health, character, knowledge, and ability for the branch of service into which he seeks to enter," but the law is practically inoperative for want of the requisite appropriation.

I therefore recommend an appropriation of \$25,000 per annum to meet the expenses of a commission, to be appointed by the President in accordance with the terms of this section, whose duty it shall be to devise a just, uniform, and efficient system of competitive examinations, and to supervise the application of the same throughout the entire Civil Service of the Government. I am persuaded that the facilities which such a commission will afford for testing the fitness of those who apply for office will not only be as welcome a relief to members of Congress as it will be to the President and heads of departments, but that it will also greatly tend to remove the causes of embarrassment which now inevitably and constantly attend the conflicting claims of patronage between the legislative and Executive departments. The most effectual check upon the pernicious competition of influence and official favoritism, in the bestowal of office, will be the substitution of an open competition of merit between the applicants, in which every one can make his own record with the assurance that his success will depend upon this alone.

I also recommend such legislation as, while leaving every officer as free as any other citizen to express his political opinions and to use his means for their advancement, shall also enable him to feel as safe as any private citizen in refusing all demands upon his salary for political purposes. A law which should thus guarantee true liberty and justice to all who are en-

gaged in the public service, and likewise contain stringent provisions against the use of official authority to coerce the political action of private citizens or of official subordinates, is greatly to be desired.

The most serious obstacle, however, to an improvement of the Civil Service, and especially to a reform in the method of appointment and removal, has been found to be the practice under what is known as the spoils system, by which the appointing power has been so largely encroached upon by members of Congress. The first step in the reform of the Civil Service must be a complete divorce between Congress and the Executive in the matter of appointments. The corrupting doctrine that "to the victors belong the spoils" is inseparable from Congressional patronage as the established rule and practice of parties in power. It comes to be understood by applicants for office, and by the people generally, that Representatives and Senators are entitled to disburse the patronage of their respective districts and States. It is not necessary to recite at length the evils resulting from this invasion of the Executive functions. The true principles of government on the subject of appointments to office, as stated in the national conventions of the leading parties of the country, have again and again been approved by the American people, and have not been called in question in any quarter. These authentic expressions of public opinion upon this all-important subject are the statement of principles that belong to the constitutional structure of the Government.

Under the Constitution the President and heads of departments are to make nominations for office. The Senate is to advise and consent to appointments, and the House of Representatives is to accuse and prosecute faithless officers. The best interest of the public service demands that these distinctions be respected; that Senators and Representatives, who may be judges and accusers, should not dictate appointments to office.

To this end the coöperation of the Legislative department of the Government is required, alike by the necessities of the case and by public opinion. Members of Congress will not be relieved from the demands made upon them with reference to appointments to office until, by legislative enactment, the pernicious practice is condemned and forbidden.

It is, therefore, recommended that an act be passed defining the relations of members of Congress with respect to appointment to office by the President, and I also recommend that the provisions of Section 1767, and of the sections following, of the Revised Statutes, comprising the Tenure-of-Office act of March 2, 1867, be repealed.

Believing that to reform the system and methods of the Civil Service in our country is one of the highest and most imperative duties of statesmanship, and that it can be permanently done only by the coöperation of the Legislative and Executive departments of the Government, I again commend the whole subject to your considerate attention.

It is the recognized duty and purpose of the people of the United States to suppress polygamy where it now exists in our Territories, and to prevent its extension. Faithful and zealous efforts have been made by the United States authorities in Utah to enforce the laws against it. Experience has shown that the legislation upon this subject, to be effective, requires extensive modification and amendment. The longer action is delayed, the more difficult it will be to accomplish what is desired. Prompt and decided measures are necessary. The Mormon sectarian organization which upholds polygamy has the whole power of making and executing the local legislation of the Territory. By its control of the grand and petit juries, it possesses large influence over the administration of justice. Exercising, as the heads of this sect do, the local political power of the Territory, they are able to make effective their hostility to the law of Congress on the subject of polygamy, and, in fact, do prevent its enforcement. Polygamy will not be abolished if the enforcement of the law depends on those who practice and uphold the crime. It can only be suppressed by

taking away the political power of the sect which encourages and sustains it.

The power of Congress to enact suitable laws to protect the Territories is ample. It is not a case for half-way measures. The political power of the Mormon sect is increasing; it controls now one of our wealthiest and most populous Territories. It is extending steadily into other Territories. Wherever it goes it establishes polygamy and sectarian political power. The sanctity of marriage and the family relation are the corner-stone of our American society and civilization. Religious liberty and the separation of church and state are among the elementary ideas of free institutions. To reestablish the interests and principles which polygamy and Mormonism have imperiled, and to fully reopen to intelligent and virtuous immigrants of all creeds that part of our domain which has been, in a great degree, closed to general immigration by intolerant and immoral institutions, it is recommended that the Government of the Territory of Utah be reorganized.

I recommend that Congress provide for the Government of Utah by a governor and judges, or commissioners, appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate—a government analogous to the provisional government established for the territory northwest of the Ohio by the ordinance of 1787. If, however, it is deemed best to continue the existing form of local government, I recommend that the right to vote, hold office, and sit on juries in the Territory of Utah be confined to those who neither practice nor uphold polygamy. If thorough measures are adopted, it is believed that within a few years the evils which now afflict Utah will be eradicated, and that this Territory will in good time become one of the most prosperous and attractive of the new States of the Union.

Our relations with all foreign countries have been those of undisturbed peace, and have presented no occasion for concern as to their continued maintenance.

My anticipation of an early reply from the British Government to the demand of indemnity to our fishermen for the injuries suffered by that industry at Fortune Bay, in January, 1878, which I expressed in my last annual message, was disappointed. This answer was received only in the latter part of April in the present year, and when received exhibited a failure of accord between the two governments as to the measure of the inshore-fishing privilege secured to our fishermen by the Treaty of Washington of so serious a character that I made it the subject of a communication to Congress, in which I recommended the adoption of the measures which seemed to me proper to be taken by this Government in maintenance of the rights accorded to our fishermen under the treaty, and toward securing an indemnity for the injury these interests had suffered. A bill to carry out these recommendations was under consideration by the House of Representatives at the time of the adjournment of Congress in June last.

Within a few weeks I have received a communication from her Majesty's Government, renewing the consideration of the subject, both of the indemnity for the injuries at Fortune Bay and of the interpretation of the treaty in which the previous correspondence had shown the two governments to be at variance. Upon both these topics the disposition toward a friendly agreement is manifested by a recognition of our right to an indemnity for the transaction at Fortune Bay, leaving the measure of such indemnity to further conference, and by an assent to the view of this Government, presented in the previous correspondence, that the regulation of conflicting interests of the shore fishing of the provincial sea-coasts, and the vessel fishery of our fishermen, should be made the subject of conference and concurrent arrangement between the two governments.

I sincerely hope that the basis may be found for a speedy adjustment of the very serious divergence of views in the interpretation of the fishery clauses of the Treaty of Washington, which, as the correspond-

ence between the two governments stood at the close of the last session of Congress, seemed to be irreconcilable.

In the important exhibition of arts and industries which was held last year at Sydney, New South Wales, as well as in that now in progress at Melbourne, the United States have been efficiently and honorably represented. The exhibitors from this country at the former place received a large number of awards in some of the most considerable departments, and the participation of the United States was recognized by a special mark of distinction. In the exhibition at Melbourne the share taken by our country is no less notable, and an equal degree of success is confidently expected.

The state of peace and tranquillity now enjoyed by all the nations of the continent of Europe has its favorable influence upon our diplomatic and commercial relations with them. We have concluded and ratified a convention with the French Republic for the settlement of claims of the citizens of either country against the other. Under this convention a commission, presided over by a distinguished publicist, appointed, in pursuance of the request of both nations, by his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, has been organized and has begun its sessions in this city. A congress to consider means for the protection of industrial property has recently been in session in Paris, to which I have appointed the ministers of the United States in France and in Belgium as delegates. The International Commission upon Weights and Measures also continues its work in Paris. I invite your attention to the necessity of an appropriation to be made in time to enable this Government to comply with its obligations under the Metrical Convention.

Our friendly relations with the German Empire continue without interruption. At the recent International Exhibition of Fish and Fisheries at Berlin, the participation of the United States, notwithstanding the haste, with which the commission was forced to make its preparations, was extremely successful and meritorious, winning for private exhibitors numerous awards of a high class, and for the country at large the principal prize of honor offered by his Majesty the Emperor. The results of this great success can not but be advantageous to this important and growing industry. There have been some questions raised between the two governments as to the proper effect and interpretation of our treaties of naturalization, but recent dispatches from our minister at Berlin show that favorable progress is making toward an understanding, in accordance with the views of this Government, which makes and admits no distinction whatever between the rights of a native and a naturalized citizen of the United States. In practice, the complaints of molestation suffered by naturalized citizens abroad have never been fewer than at present.

There is nothing of importance to note in our unbroken friendly relations with the governments of Austria-Hungary, Russia, Portugal, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, and Greece.

During the last summer several vessels belonging to the merchant marine of this country, sailing in neutral waters of the West Indies, were fired at, boarded, and searched by an armed cruiser of the Spanish Government. The circumstances, as reported, involve not only a private injury to the persons concerned, but also seemed too little observant of the friendly relations existing for a century between this country and Spain. The wrong was brought to the attention of the Spanish Government in a serious protest and remonstrance, and the matter is undergoing investigation by the royal authorities with a view to such explanation or reparation as may be called for by the facts.

The Commission sitting in this city for the adjudication of claims of our citizens against the Government of Spain is, I hope, approaching the termination of its labors.

The claims against the United States under the Florida Treaty with Spain were submitted to Con-

gress for its action at the late session, and I again invite your attention to this long-standing question with a view to a final disposition of the matter.

At the invitation of the Spanish Government, a conference has recently been held at the city of Madrid to consider the subject of protection by foreign powers of native Moors in the Empire of Morocco. The minister of the United States in Spain was directed to take part in the deliberations of this conference, the result of which is a convention signed on behalf of all the powers represented. The instrument will be laid before the Senate for its consideration. The Government of the United States has also lost no opportunity to urge upon that of the Emperor of Morocco the necessity, in accordance with the humane and enlightened spirit of the age, of putting an end to the persecutions which have been so prevalent in that country of persons of a faith other than the Moslem, and especially of the Hebrew residents of Morocco.

The consular treaty concluded with Belgium has not yet been officially promulgated, owing to the alteration of a word in the text by the Senate of the United States, which occasioned a delay, during which the time allowed for ratification expired. The Senate will be asked to extend the period for ratification.

The attempt to negotiate a treaty of extradition with Denmark failed on account of the objection of the Danish Government to the usual clause providing that each nation should pay the expense of the arrest of the persons whose extradition it asks.

The provision made by Congress, at its last session, for the expense of the Commission which had been appointed to enter upon negotiations with the Imperial Government of China, on subjects of great interest to the relations of the two countries, enabled the commissioners to proceed at once upon their mission. The Imperial Government was prepared to give prompt and respectful attention to the matters brought under negotiation, and the conferences proceeded with such rapidity and success that, on the 17th of November last, two treaties were signed at Peking, one relating to the introduction of Chinese into this country, and one relating to commerce. Mr. Trescott, one of the commissioners, is now on his way home bringing the treaties, and it is expected that they will be received in season to be laid before the Senate early in January.

Our Minister in Japan has negotiated a convention for the reciprocal relief of shipwrecked seamen. I take occasion to urge once more upon Congress the propriety of making provision for the erection of suitable fire-proof buildings at the Japanese capital for the use of the American legation, and the court-house and jail connected with it. The Japanese Government, with great generosity and courtesy, has offered for this purpose an eligible piece of land.

In my last annual message I invited the attention of Congress to the subject of the indemnity funds received some years ago from China and Japan. I renew the recommendation then made that whatever portions of these funds are due to American citizens should be promptly paid, and the residue returned to the nations, respectively, to which they justly and equitably belong.

The extradition treaty with the Kingdom of the Netherlands, which has been for some time in course of negotiation, has, during the past year, been concluded and duly ratified.

Relations of friendship and amity have been established between the Government of the United States and that of Roumania. We have sent a diplomatic representative to Bucharest, and have received at this capital the special envoy, who has been charged by his Royal Highness, Prince Charles, to announce the independent sovereignty of Roumania. We hope for a speedy development of commercial relations between the two countries.

In my last annual message I expressed the hope that the prevalence of quiet on the border between this country and Mexico would soon become so assured as to justify the modification of the orders, then in force, to our military commanders in regard to crossing the

frontier, without encouraging such disturbances as would endanger the peace of the two countries. Events moved in accordance with these expectations, and the orders were accordingly withdrawn, to the entire satisfaction of our own citizens and the Mexican Government. Subsequently the peace of the border was again disturbed by a savage foray, under the command of the Chief Victorio, but, by the combined and harmonious action of the military forces of both countries, his band has been broken up and substantially destroyed.

There is reason to believe that the obstacles which have so long prevented rapid and convenient communication between the United States and Mexico by railways are on the point of disappearing, and that several important enterprises of this character will soon be set on foot which cannot fail to contribute largely to the prosperity of both countries.

New envoys from Guatemala, Colombia, Bolivia, Venezuela, and Nicaragua have recently arrived at this capital, whose distinction and enlightenment afford the best guarantee of the continuance of friendly relations between ourselves and these sister republics.

The relations between this Government and that of the United States of Colombia have engaged public attention during the past year, mainly by reason of the project of an interoceanic canal across the Isthmus of Panama, to be built by private capital under a concession from the Colombian Government for that purpose. The treaty obligations subsisting between the United States and Colombia, by which we guarantee the neutrality of the transit and the sovereignty and property of Colombia in the Isthmus, make it necessary that the conditions under which so stupendous a change in the region embraced in this guarantee should be effected—transforming, as it would, this Isthmus, from a barrier between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans into a gateway and thoroughfare between them for the navies and the merchant ships of the world—should receive the approval of this Government, as being compatible with the discharge of these obligations on our part, and consistent with our interests as the principal commercial power of the Western Hemisphere. The views which I expressed in a special message to Congress in March last, in relation to this project, I deem it my duty again to press upon your attention. Subsequent consideration has but confirmed the opinion "that it is the right and duty of the United States to assert and maintain such supervision and authority over any interoceanic canal across the Isthmus that connects North and South America as will protect our national interest."

The war between the Republic of Chili on the one hand, and the allied Republics of Peru and Bolivia on the other, still continues. This Government has not felt called upon to interfere in a contest that is within the belligerent rights of the parties as independent states. We have, however, always held ourselves in readiness to aid in accommodating their difference, and have at different times reminded both belligerents of our willingness to render such service.

Our good offices, in this direction, were recently accepted by all the belligerents, and it was hoped they would prove efficacious; but I regret to announce that the measures which the ministers of the United States at Santiago and Lima were authorized to take, with the view to bring about a peace, were not successful. In the course of the war some questions have arisen affecting neutral rights; in all of these the ministers of the United States have, under their instructions, acted with promptness and energy in protection of American interests.

The relations of the United States with the Empire of Brazil continue to be most cordial, and their commercial intercourse steadily increases, to their mutual advantage.

The internal disorders with which the Argentine Republic has for some time past been afflicted, and which have more or less influenced its external trade, are understood to have been brought to a close. This happy result may be expected to redound to the benefit

of the foreign commerce of that republic as well as to the development of its vast interior resources.

In Samoa, the government of King Malietoa, under the support and recognition of the consular representatives of the United States, Great Britain, and Germany, seems to have given peace and tranquillity to the islands. While it does not appear desirable to adopt as a whole the scheme of tripartite local government, which has been proposed, the common interests of the three great treaty powers require harmony in their relations to the native frame of government, and this may be best secured by a simple diplomatic agreement between them. It would be well if the consular jurisdiction of our representative at Apia were increased in extent and importance, so as to guard American interests in the surrounding and outlying islands of Oceania.

The obelisk, generously presented by the Khedive of Egypt to the City of New York, has safely arrived in this country, and will soon be erected in that metropolis. A commission for the liquidation of the Egyptian debt has lately concluded its work, and this Government, at the earnest solicitation of the Khedive, has acceded to the provisions adopted by it, which will be laid before Congress for its information. A commission for the revision of the judicial code of the Reform Tribunal of Egypt is now in session in Cairo. Mr. Farman, Consul-General, and J. M. Batchelder, Esq., have been appointed as commissioners to participate in this work. The organization of the Reform Tribunals will probably be continued for another period of five years.

In pursuance of the act passed at the last session of Congress, invitations have been extended to foreign maritime states to join in sanitary conference in Washington, beginning the first of January. The acceptance of this invitation by many prominent powers gives promise of success in this important measure, designed to establish a system of international notification, by which the spread of infectious or epidemic diseases may be more effectively checked or prevented. The attention of Congress is invited to the necessary appropriations for carrying into effect the provisions of the act referred to.

The efforts of the Department of State to enlarge the trade and commerce of the United States, through the active agency of consular officers, and through the dissemination of information obtained from them, have been unrelaxed. The interest in these efforts, as developed in our commercial communities, and the value of the information secured by this means to the trade and manufactures of the country, were recognized by Congress at its last session, and provision was made for the more frequent publication of consular and other reports by the Department of State. The first issue of this publication has now been prepared, and subsequent issues may regularly be expected. The importance and interest attached to the reports of consular officers are witnessed by the general demand for them by all classes of merchants and manufacturers engaged in our foreign trade. It is believed that the system of such publications is deserving of the approval of Congress, and that the necessary appropriations for its continuance and enlargement will commend itself to your consideration.

The prosperous energies of our domestic industries, and their immense production of the subjects of foreign commerce, invite, and even require, an active development of the wishes and interests of our people in that direction. Especially important is it that our commercial relations with the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of South America, with the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico, should be direct, and not through the circuit of European systems, and should be carried on in our own bottoms. The full appreciation of the opportunities which our front on the Pacific Ocean gives to commerce with Japan, China, and the East Indies, with Australia and the island groups which lie along these routes of navigation, should inspire equal efforts to appropriate to our own shipping,

and to administer, by our own capital, a due proportion of this trade. Whatever modifications of our regulations of trade and navigation may be necessary or useful to meet and direct these impulses to the enlargement of our exchanges and of our carrying trade, I am sure the wisdom of Congress will be ready to supply. One initial measure, however, seems to me so clearly useful and efficient that I venture to press it upon your earnest attention. It seems to be very evident that the provision of regular steam postal communication, by aid from Government, has been the forerunner of the commercial predominance of Great Britain on all these coasts and seas, a greater share in whose trade is now the desire and the intent of our people. It is also manifest that the efforts of other European nations to contend with Great Britain for a share of this commerce have been successful in proportion with their adoption of regular steam postal communication with the markets whose trade they sought. Mexico and the States of South America are anxious to receive such postal communications with this country, and to aid in their development. Similar cooperation may be looked for, in due time, from the Eastern nations, and from Australia. It is difficult to see how the lead in this movement can be expected from private interests. In respect of foreign commerce, quite as much as in internal trade, postal communication seems necessarily a matter of common and public administration, and thus pertaining to Government. I respectfully recommend to your prompt attention such just and efficient measures as may conduce to the development of our foreign commercial exchanges, and the building up of our carrying trade.

In this connection I desire also to suggest the very great service which might be expected in enlarging and facilitating our commerce on the Pacific Ocean were a transmarine cable laid from San Francisco to the Sandwich Islands, and thence to Japan at the north and Australia at the south. The great influence of such means of communication on these routes of navigation in developing and securing the due share of our Pacific coast in the commerce of the world needs no illustration or enforcement. It may be that such an enterprise, useful and in the end profitable as it would prove to private investment, may need to be accelerated by prudent legislation by Congress in its aid, and I submit the matter to your careful consideration.

An additional and not unimportant, although secondary, reason for fostering and enlarging the Navy may be found in the unquestionable service to the expansion of our commerce which would be rendered by the frequent circulation of naval ships in the seas and ports of all quarters of the globe. Ships of the proper construction and equipment to be of the greatest efficiency in case of maritime war might be made constant and active agents in time of peace in the advancement and protection of our foreign trade, and in the nurture and discipline of young seamen, who would naturally, in some numbers, mix with and improve the crews of our merchant ships. Our merchants at home and abroad recognize the value to foreign commerce of an active movement of our naval vessels, and the intelligence and patriotic zeal of our naval officers in promoting every interest of their countrymen is a just subject of national pride.

The condition of the financial affairs of the Government, as shown by the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, is very satisfactory. It is believed that the present financial situation of the United States, whether considered with respect to trade, currency, credit, growing wealth, or the extent and variety of our resources, is more favorable than that of any other country of our time, and has never been surpassed by that of any country at any period of its history. All our industries are thriving; the rate of interest is low; new railroads are being constructed; a vast immigration is increasing our population, capital and labor; new enterprises in great number are in progress, and our commercial relations with other countries are improving.

The ordinary revenues from all sources, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1880, were—

From customs.....	\$186,522,064 60
From internal revenue.....	124,009,873 92
From sales of public lands.....	1,016,506 60
From tax on circulation and deposits of national banks.....	7,014,971 44
From repayment of interest by Pacific Railway Companies.....	1,707,967 18
From sinking-fund for Pacific Railway Companies.....	786,621 22
From customs, fees, fines, penalties, etc.....	1,148,500 16
From fees—consular, letters patent, and lands.....	2,337,029 00
From proceeds of sales of Government property.....	282,616 50
From profits on coinage, etc.....	2,792,186 73
From revenues of the District of Columbia.....	1,809,469 70
From miscellaneous sources.....	4,999,603 88
Total ordinary receipts.....	\$333,526,610 93

The ordinary expenditures for the same period were—

For civil expenses.....	\$15,693,963 55
For foreign intercourse.....	1,211,490 58
For Indians.....	5,945,457 09
For pensions (including \$19,341,023.20 arrears of pensions).....	56,777,174 44
For the military establishment, including river and harbor improvements and arsenals.....	38,116,916 22
For the naval establishment, including vessels, machinery, and improvements at navy-yards.....	13,536,954 74
For miscellaneous expenditures, including public buildings, light-houses, and collecting the revenue.....	34,535,691 00
For expenditures on account of the District of Columbia.....	8,272,354 63
For interest on the public debt.....	95,737,575 11
For premium on bonds purchased.....	2,795,320 42
Total ordinary expenditures.....	\$267,642,957 78

Leaving a surplus revenue of.....	\$65,883,653 20
Which, with an amount drawn from the cash balance in Treasury of.....	8,084,434 21

Making..... **\$73,968,087 41**

Was applied to the redemption—

Of bonds for the sinking-fund.....	\$73,652,900 00
Of fractional currency.....	251,717 41
Of the loan of 1858.....	40,000 00
Of temporary loan.....	100 00
Of bounty-land scrip.....	25 00
Of compound-interest notes.....	16,500 00
Of 7.30 notes of 1864-5.....	2,650 00
Of one and two year notes.....	3,700 00
Of old demand notes.....	495 00
Total.....	\$73,968,087 41

The amount due the sinking-fund for this year was \$37,931,943.55. There was applied thereto the sum of \$73,904,617.41, being \$35,972,973.86 in excess of the actual requirements for the year.

The aggregate of the revenues from all sources during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1880, was \$333,526,610.93, an increase over the preceding year of \$59,699,426.52. The receipts thus far of the current year, together with the estimated receipts for the remainder of the year, amount to \$350,000,000, which will be sufficient to meet the estimated expenditures of the year, and leave a surplus of \$90,000,000.

It is fortunate that this large surplus revenue occurs at a period when it may be directly applied to the payment of the public debt soon to be redeemable. No public debt has been more constantly cherished in the United States than the policy of paying the nation's debt as rapidly as possible.

The debt of the United States, less cash in the Treasury and exclusive of accruing interest, attained its maximum of \$2,756,431,571.43 in August, 1865, and has since that time been reduced to \$1,886,019,504.65. Of the principal of the debt, \$108,758,100 has been paid since March 1, 1877, effecting an annual saving

of interest of \$6,107,593. The burden of interest has also been diminished by the sale of bonds bearing a low rate of interest and the application of the proceeds to the redemption of bonds bearing a higher rate. The annual saving thus secured since March 1, 1877, is \$14,290,453.50. Within a short period over six hundred millions of five and six per cent. bonds will become redeemable. This presents a very favorable opportunity not only to further reduce the principal of the debt, but also to reduce the rate of interest on that which will remain unpaid. I call the attention of Congress to the views expressed on this subject by the Secretary of the Treasury in his annual report, and recommend prompt legislation to enable the Treasury Department to complete the refunding of the debt which is about to mature.

The continuance of specie payments has not been interrupted or endangered since the date of resumption. It has contributed greatly to the revival of business and to our remarkable prosperity. The fears that preceded and accompanied resumption have proved groundless. No considerable amount of United States notes have been presented for redemption, while very large sums of gold bullion, both domestic and imported, are taken to the mints and exchanged for coin or notes. The increase of coin and bullion in the United States since January 1, 1879, is estimated at \$227,399,428.

There are still in existence, uncanceled, \$346,681,016 of United States legal-tender notes. These notes were authorized as a war measure, made necessary by the exigencies of the conflict in which the United States was then engaged. The preservation of the nation's existence required, in the judgment of Congress, an issue of legal-tender paper money. That it served well the purpose for which it was created is not questioned, but the employment of the notes as paper money indefinitely, after the accomplishment of the object for which they were provided, was not contemplated by the framers of the law under which they were issued. These notes long since became—like any other pecuniary obligation of the Government—a debt to be paid, and when paid to be canceled as mere evidence of an indebtedness no longer existing. I therefore repeat what was said in the annual message of last year, that the retirement from circulation of United States notes, with the capacity of legal tender in private contracts, is a step to be taken in our progress toward a safe and stable currency which should be accepted as the policy and duty of the Government, and the interest and security of the people.

At the time of the passage of the act now in force, requiring the coinage of silver dollars, fixing their value and giving them legal-tender character, it was believed by many of the supporters of the measure that the silver dollar which it authorized would speedily become, under the operations of the law, of equivalent value to the gold dollar. There were other supporters of the bill who, while they doubted as to the probability of this result, nevertheless were willing to give the proposed experiment a fair trial, with a view to stop the coinage if experience should prove that the silver dollar authorized by the bill continued to be of less commercial value than the standard gold dollar.

The coinage of silver dollars, under the act referred to, began in March, 1878, and has been continued as required by the act. The average rate per month to the present time has been \$2,276,492. The total amount coined prior to the 1st of November last was \$72,847,750. Of this amount \$47,084,450 remain in the Treasury, and only \$25,763,291 are in the hands of the people. A constant effort has been made to keep this currency in circulation, and considerable expense has been necessarily incurred for this purpose, but its return to the Treasury is prompt and sure. Contrary to the confident anticipation of the friends of the measure at the time of its adoption, the value of the silver dollar containing 412½ grains of silver has not increased. During the year prior to the passage of the bill authorizing its coinage, the market value of the silver which it contained was from 90 to 92 cents as

compared with the standard gold dollar. During the last year the average market value of the silver dollar has been 88½ cents.

It is obvious that the legislation of the last Congress in regard to silver, so far as it was based on an anticipated rise in the value of silver as a result of that legislation, has failed to produce the effect then predicted. The longer the law remains in force, requiring as it does the coining of a nominal dollar, which in reality is not a dollar, the greater becomes the danger that this country will be forced to accept a single metal as the sole legal standard of value in circulation, and this a standard of less value than it purports to be worth in the recognized money of the world.

The Constitution of the United States, sound financial principles, and our best interests, all require that the country should have as its legal-tender money both gold and silver coin of an intrinsic value, as bullion, equivalent to that which, upon its face, it purports to possess. The Constitution, in express terms, recognizes both gold and silver as the only true legal-tender money. To banish either of these metals from our currency is to narrow and limit the circulating medium of exchange to the disparagement of important interests. The United States produces more silver than any other country, and is directly interested in maintaining it as one of the two precious metals which furnish the coinage of the world. It will, in my judgment, contribute to this result if Congress will repeal so much of existing legislation as requires the coining of silver dollars containing only 412½ grains of silver, and in its stead will authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to coin silver dollars of equivalent value, as bullion, with gold dollars. This will defraud no man, and will be in accordance with familiar precedents. Congress, on several occasions, has altered the ratio of value between gold and silver, in order to establish it more nearly in accordance with the actual ratio of value between the two metals.

In financial legislation every measure in the direction of greater fidelity in the discharge of pecuniary obligations has been found by experience to diminish the rates of interest which debtors are required to pay, and to increase the facility with which money can be obtained for every legitimate purpose. Our own recent financial history shows how surely money becomes abundant whenever confidence in the exact performance of moneyed obligations is established.

The Secretary of War reports that the expenditures of the War Department for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1880, were \$39,924,773.03. The appropriations for this department, for the current fiscal year, amount to \$41,993,630.40.

With respect to the Army, the Secretary invites attention to the fact that its strength is limited by statute (section 1,115 Revised Statutes) to not more than 30,000 enlisted men, but that provisos contained in appropriation bills have limited expenditures to the enlistment of but 25,000. It is believed the full legal strength is the least possible force at which the present organization can be maintained, having in view efficiency, discipline, and economy. While the enlistment of this force would add somewhat to the appropriation for pay of the Army, the saving made in other respects would be more than an equivalent for this additional outlay, and the efficiency of the Army would be largely increased.

The rapid extension of the railroad system west of the Mississippi River, and the great tide of settlers which has flowed in upon new territory, impose on the military an entire change of policy. The maintenance of small posts along wagon and stage routes of travel is no longer necessary. Permanent quarters at points selected, of a more substantial character than those heretofore constructed, will be required. Under existing laws permanent buildings can not be erected without the sanction of Congress, and when sales of military sites and buildings have been authorized the moneys received have reverted to the Treasury and could only become available through a new appropriation. It is recommended that provision be made by a

general statute for the sale of such abandoned military posts and buildings as are found to be unnecessary, and for the application of the proceeds to the construction of other posts. While many of the present posts are of but slight value for military purposes, owing to the changed condition of the country, their occupation is continued at great expense and inconvenience, because they afford the only available shelter for troops.

The absence of a large number of officers of the line, in active duty, from their regiments is a serious detriment to the maintenance of the service. The constant demand for small detachments, each of which should be commanded by a commissioned officer, and the various details of officers for necessary service away from their commands, occasions a scarcity in the number required for company duties. With a view to lessening this drain to some extent, it is recommended that the law authorizing the detail of officers from the active list, as professors of tactics and military science at certain colleges and universities, be so amended as to provide that all such details be made from the retired list of the Army.

Attention is asked to the necessity of providing by legislation for organizing, arming, and disciplining the *active* militia of the country, and liberal appropriations are recommended in this behalf. The reports of the Adjutant-General of the Army and the Chief of Ordnance touching this subject fully set forth its importance.

The report of the officer in charge of education in the Army shows that there are seventy-eight schools now in operation in the Army, with an aggregate attendance of 2,305 enlisted men and children. The Secretary recommends the enlistment of one hundred and fifty school-masters, with the rank and pay of commissary sergeants. An appropriation is needed to supply the Judge-Advocates of the Army with suitable libraries, and the Secretary recommends that the corps of Judge-Advocates be placed upon the same footing, as to promotion, with the other staff corps of the Army. Under existing laws, the Bureau of Military Justice consists of one officer, the Judge-Advocate-General, and the corps of Judge-Advocates of eight officers of equal rank (majors), with a provision that the limit of the corps shall remain at four when reduced by casualty or resignation to that number. The consolidation of the Bureau of Military Justice and the corps of Judge-Advocates, upon the same basis with the other staff corps of the Army, would remove an unjust discrimination against deserving officers, and subserve the best interests of the service.

Especial attention is asked to the report of the Chief of Engineers upon the condition of our national defenses. From a personal inspection of many of the fortifications referred to, the Secretary is able to emphasize the recommendations made, and to state that their incomplete and defenseless condition is discreditable to the country. While other nations have been increasing their means for carrying on offensive warfare and attacking maritime cities, we have been dormant in preparation for defense; nothing of importance has been done toward strengthening and finishing our casemated works since our late Civil War, during which the great guns of modern warfare and the heavy armor of modern fortifications and ships came into use among the nations; and our earthworks, left by a sudden failure of appropriations some years since in all stages of incompleteness, are now being rapidly destroyed by the elements.

The two great rivers of the North American Continent—the Mississippi and the Columbia—have their navigable waters wholly within the limits of the United States, and are of vast importance to our internal and foreign commerce. The permanency of the important work on the South Pass of the Mississippi River seems now to be assured. There has been no failure whatever in the maintenance of the maximum channel during the six months ended August 9th last. This experiment has opened a broad, deep highway to the ocean, and is an improvement upon the permanent

success of which congratulations may be exchanged among people abroad and at home, and especially among the communities of the Mississippi Valley, whose commercial exchanges float in an unobstructed channel safely to and from the sea.

A comprehensive improvement of the Mississippi and its tributaries is a matter of transcendent importance. These great water-ways comprise a system of inland transportation spread like net-work over a large portion of the United States, and navigable to the extent of many thousands of miles. Producers and consumers alike have a common interest in such unequaled facilities for cheap transportation. Geographically, commercially, and politically, they are the strongest tie between the various sections of the country. These channels of communication and interchange are the property of the nation. Its jurisdiction is paramount over their waters, and the plainest principles of public interest require their intelligent and careful supervision, with a view to their protection, improvement, and the enhancement of their usefulness.

The channel of the Columbia River, for a distance of about one hundred miles from its mouth, is obstructed by a succession of bars, which occasion serious delays in navigation, and heavy expense for light-erage and towage. A depth of at least twenty feet at low tide should be secured and maintained, to meet the requirements of the extensive and growing inland and ocean commerce it subserves. The most urgent need, however, for this great water-way is a permanent improvement of the channel at the mouth of the river.

From Columbia River to San Francisco, a distance of over six hundred miles, there is no harbor on our Pacific coast which can be approached during stormy weather. An appropriation of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars was made by the Forty-fifth Congress for the commencement of a breakwater and harbor of refuge, to be located at some point between the Straits of Fuca and San Francisco, at which the necessities of commerce, local and general, will be best accommodated. The amount appropriated is thought to be quite inadequate for the purpose intended. The cost of the work when finished will be very great, owing to the want of natural advantages for a site at any point on the coast between the designated limits, and it has not been thought to be advisable to undertake the work without a larger appropriation. I commend the matter to the attention of Congress.

The completion of the new building for the War Department is urgently needed, and the estimates for continuing its construction are especially recommended.

The collections of books, specimens, and records constituting the Army Medical Museum and Library are of national importance. The library now contains about 51,500 volumes and 57,000 pamphlets relating to medicine, surgery, and allied topics. The contents of the Army Medical Museum consist of 22,000 specimens, and are unique in the completeness with which both military surgery and the diseases of armies are illustrated. Their destruction would be an irreparable loss, not only to the United States but to the world. There are filed in the record and pension division over 16,000 bound volumes of hospital records, together with a great quantity of papers, embracing the original records of the hospitals of our armies during the Civil War. Aside from their historical value, these records are daily searched for evidence needed in the settlement of large numbers of pension and other claims, for the protection of the Government against attempted frauds, as well as for the benefit of honest claimants. These valuable collections are now in a building which is peculiarly exposed to the danger of destruction by fire. It is therefore earnestly recommended that an appropriation be made for a new fire-proof building, adequate for the present needs and reasonable future expansion of these valuable collections. Such a building should be absolutely fire-proof; no expenditure for mere architectural

display is required. It is believed that a suitable structure can be erected at a cost not to exceed \$250,000.

I commend to the attention of Congress the great services of the commander and chief of our armies during the war for the Union, whose wise, firm, and patriotic conduct did so much to bring that momentous conflict to a close. The legislation of the United States contains many precedents for the recognition of distinguished military merit, authorizing rank and emoluments to be conferred for eminent services to the country. An act of Congress authorizing the appointment of a Captain-General of the Army, with suitable provisions relating to compensation, retirement, and other details, would, in my judgment, be altogether fitting and proper, and would be warmly approved by the country.

The report of the Secretary of the Navy exhibits the successful and satisfactory management of that department during the last fiscal year. The total expenditures for the year were \$12,916,639.45, leaving unexpended at the close of the year \$2,141,682.23 of the amount of available appropriations. The appropriations for the present fiscal year ending June 30, 1881, are \$15,095,061.45, and the total estimates for the next fiscal year, ending June 30, 1882, are \$15,953,751.61. The amount drawn by warrant from July 1, 1880, to November 1, 1880, is \$5,041,570.45.

The recommendation of the Secretary of the Navy that provision be made for the establishment of some form of civil government for the people of Alaska is approved. At present there is no protection of persons or property in that Territory, except such as is afforded by the officers of the United States ship *Jamestown*. The vessel was dispatched to Sitka, because of the fear that, without the immediate presence of the national authority, there was impending danger of anarchy. The steps taken to restore order have been accepted in good faith by both white and Indian inhabitants, and the necessity for this method of restraint does not, in my opinion, now exist. If, however, the *Jamestown* should be withdrawn, leaving the people, as at present, without the ordinary, judicial, and administrative authority of organized local government, serious consequences might ensue.

The laws provide only for the collection of revenue, the protection of public property, and the transmission of the mails. The problem is to supply a local rule for a population so scattered and so peculiar in its origin and condition. The natives are reported to be teachable and self-supporting, and, if properly instructed, doubtless would advance rapidly in civilization, and a new factor of prosperity would be added to the national life. I therefore recommend the requisite legislation upon this subject.

The Secretary of the Navy has taken steps toward the establishment of naval coaling-stations at the Isthmus of Panama, to meet the requirements of our commercial relations with Central and South America, which are rapidly growing in importance. Locations eminently suitable, both as regards our naval purposes and the uses of commerce, have been selected, one on the east side of the Isthmus, at Chiriqui Lagoon, in the Caribbean Sea, and the other on the Pacific coast, at the Bay of Golfito. The only safe harbors, sufficiently commodious, on the Isthmus are at these points, and the distance between them is less than one hundred miles. The report of the Secretary of the Navy concludes with valuable suggestions with respect to the building up of our merchant-marine service, which deserve the favorable consideration of Congress.

The report of the Postmaster-General exhibits the continual growth and the high state of efficiency of the postal service. The operations of no department of the Government, perhaps, represent with greater exactness the increase in the population and the business of the country. In 1860 the postal receipts were \$8,518,067.40; in 1880 the receipts were \$33,315,470.84. All the inhabitants of the country are directly and personally interested in having proper mail facilities, and naturally watch the post-office very closely.

This careful oversight on the part of the people has proved a constant stimulus to improvement. During the past year there was an increase of 2,134 post-offices, and the mail routes were extended 27,177 miles, making an additional annual transportation of 10,804,191 miles. The revenues of the postal service for the ensuing year are estimated at \$38,845,174.10, and the expenditures at \$42,475,932, leaving a deficiency to be appropriated out of the Treasury of \$3,630,757.90.

The Universal Postal Union has received the accession of almost all the countries and colonies of the world maintaining organized postal services, and it is confidently expected that all the other countries and colonies now outside the Union will soon unite therewith, thus realizing the grand idea and aim of the founders of the Union of forming, for purposes of international mail communication, a single postal territory, embracing the world, with complete uniformity of postal charges and conditions of international exchange for all descriptions of correspondence. To enable the United States to do its full share of this great work additional legislation is asked by the Postmaster-General, to whose recommendations especial attention is called.

The suggestion of the Postmaster-General that it would be wise to encourage, by appropriate legislation, the establishment of American lines of steamers by our own citizens, to carry the mails between our own ports and those of Mexico, Central America, South America, and of trans-pacific countries, is commended to the serious consideration of Congress.

The attention of Congress is also invited to the suggestions of the Postmaster-General in regard to postal savings.

The necessity for additional provision to aid in the transaction of the business of the Federal courts becomes each year more apparent. The dockets of the Supreme Court, and of the Circuit Courts in the greater number of the circuits, are encumbered with the constant accession of cases. In the former Court, and in many instances in the Circuit Courts, years intervene before it is practicable to bring cases to a hearing.

The Attorney-General recommends the establishment of an Intermediate Court of Errors and Appeals. It is recommended that the number of judges of the Circuit Court in each circuit, with the exception of the second circuit, should be increased by the addition of another judge; in the second circuit, that two should be added; and that an Intermediate Appellate Court should be formed in each circuit, to consist of the circuit judges and the circuit justice, and that in the event of the absence of either of these judges the place of the absent judge should be supplied by the judge of one of the district courts in the circuit. Such an appellate court could be safely invested with large jurisdiction, and its decisions would satisfy suitors in many cases where appeals would still be allowed to the Supreme Court. The expense incurred for this intermediate court will require a very moderate increase of the appropriations for the expenses of the Department of Justice. This recommendation is commended to the careful consideration of Congress.

It is evident that a delay of justice, in many instances oppressive and disastrous to suitors, now necessarily occurs in the Federal Courts, which will in this way be remedied.

The report of the Secretary of the Interior presents an elaborate account of the operations of that department during the past year. It gives me great pleasure to say that our Indian affairs appear to be in a more hopeful condition now than ever before. The Indians have made gratifying progress in agriculture, herding, and mechanical pursuits. Many, who were a few years ago in hostile conflict with the Government, are quietly settling down on farms where they hope to make their permanent homes, building houses, and engaging in the occupations of civilized life. The introduction of the freighting business among them has been remarkably fruitful of good results, in giving many of them congenial and remunerative employment, and in stimulating their ambition to earn their own

support. Their honesty, fidelity, and efficiency as carriers are highly praised. The organization of a police force of Indians has been equally successful in maintaining law and order upon the reservations, and in exercising a wholesome, moral influence among the Indians themselves. I concur with the Secretary of the Interior in the recommendation that the pay of this force be increased as an inducement to the best class of young men to enter it.

Much care and attention have been devoted to the enlargement of educational facilities for the Indians. The means available for this important object have been very inadequate. A few additional boarding-schools at Indian agencies have been established, and the erection of buildings has been begun for several more, but an increase of the appropriations for this interesting undertaking is greatly needed to accommodate the large number of Indian children of school age. The number offered by their parents from all parts of the country for education in the Government schools is much larger than can be accommodated with the means at present available for that purpose. The number of Indian pupils at the Normal School at Hampton, Virginia, under the direction of General Armstrong, has been considerably increased, and their progress is highly encouraging. The Indian school established by the Interior Department, in 1879, at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, under the direction of Captain Pratt, has been equally successful. It has now nearly two hundred pupils of both sexes, representing a great variety of the tribes east of the Rocky Mountains. The pupils in both these institutions receive not only an elementary English education, but are also instructed in house-work, agriculture, and useful mechanical pursuits. A similar school was established this year at Forest Grove, Oregon, for the education of Indian youth on the Pacific coast. In addition to this, thirty-six Indian boys and girls were selected from the Eastern Cherokees and placed in boarding-schools in North Carolina, where they are to receive an elementary English education and training in industrial pursuits. The interest shown by Indian parents, even among the so-called wild tribes, in the education of their children is very gratifying, and gives promise that the results accomplished by the efforts now making will be of lasting benefit.

The expenses of Indian education have so far been drawn from the permanent civilization fund at the disposal of the Department of the Interior; but the fund is now so much reduced that the continuance of this beneficial work will in the future depend on specific appropriations by Congress for the purpose; and I venture to express the hope that Congress will not permit institutions so fruitful of good results to perish for want of means for their support. On the contrary, an increase of the number of such schools appears to me highly advisable.

The past year has been unusually free from disturbances among the Indian tribes. An agreement has been made with the Utes by which they surrender their large reservation in Colorado in consideration of an annuity to be paid to them, and agree to settle in severally on certain lands designated for that purpose, as farmers, holding individual title to their land in fee-simple, inalienable for a certain period. In this way a costly Indian war has been avoided, which at one time seemed imminent, and, for the first time in the history of the country, an Indian nation has given up its tribal existence to be settled in severally, and to live as individuals under the common protection of the laws of the country.

The conduct of the Indians throughout the country during the past year, with but few noteworthy exceptions, has been orderly and peaceful. The guerrilla warfare carried on for two years by Victorio and his band of Southern Apaches has virtually come to an end by the death of that chief and most of his followers on Mexican soil. The disturbances caused on our northern frontier by Sitting Bull and his men, who had taken refuge in the British dominions, are also likely to cease. A large majority of his followers have

surrendered to our military forces, and the remainder are apparently in progress of disintegration.

I concur with the Secretary of the Interior in expressing the earnest hope that Congress will at this session take favorable action on the bill providing for the allotment of lands on the different reservations in severalty to the Indians, with patents conferring fee-simple title inalienable for a certain period, and the eventual disposition of the residue of the reservations, for general settlement, with the consent and for the benefit of the Indians, placing the latter under the equal protection of the laws of the country. This measure, together with a vigorous prosecution of our educational efforts, will work the most important and effective advance toward the solution of the Indian problem, in preparing for the gradual merging of our Indian population in the great body of American citizenship.

A large increase is reported in the disposal of public lands for settlement during the past year, which marks the prosperous growth of our agricultural industry, and a vigorous movement of population toward our unoccupied lands. As this movement proceeds, the codification of our land laws, as well as proper legislation to regulate the disposition of public lands, become of more pressing necessity, and I therefore invite the consideration of Congress to the report and the accompanying draft of a bill, made by the Public Lands Commission, which were communicated by me to Congress at the last session. Early action upon this important subject is highly desirable.

The attention of Congress is again asked to the wasteful depredations committed on our public timberlands, and the rapid and indiscriminate destruction of our forests. The urgent necessity for legislation to this end is now generally recognized. In view of the lawless character of the depredations committed, and the disastrous consequences which will inevitably follow their continuance, legislation has again and again been recommended to arrest the evil, and to preserve for the people of our Western States and Territories the timber needed for domestic and other essential uses.

The report of the Director of the Geological Survey is a document of unusual interest. The consolidation of the various geological and geographical surveys and exploring enterprises, each of which has heretofore operated upon an independent plan, without concert, can not fail to be of great benefit to all those industries of the country which depend upon the development of our mineral resources. The labors of the scientific men, of recognized merit, who compose the corps of the Geological Survey, during the first season of their field operations and inquiries, appear to have been very comprehensive, and will soon be communicated to Congress in a number of volumes. The Director of the Survey recommends that the investigations carried on by his bureau, which so far have been confined to the so-called public-land States and Territories, be extended over the entire country, and that the necessary appropriation be made for this purpose. This would be particularly beneficial to the iron, coal, and other mining interests of the Mississippi Valley, and of the Eastern and Southern States. The subject is commended to the careful consideration of Congress.

The Secretary of the Interior asks attention to the want of room in the public buildings of the Capital, now existing and in progress of construction, for the accommodation of the clerical force employed and of the public records. Necessity has compelled the renting of private buildings in different parts of the city for the location of public offices, for which a large amount of rent is annually paid, while the separation of offices belonging to the same department impedes the transaction of current business. The Secretary suggests that the blocks surrounding Lafayette Square on the east, north, and west be purchased as the sites for new edifices for the accommodation of the Government offices, leaving the square itself intact, and that, if such buildings were constructed upon a harmonious plan of architecture, they would add much to the

beauty of the national Capital, and would, together with the Treasury and the new State, Navy, and War Department building, form one of the most imposing groups of public edifices in the world.

The Commissioner of Agriculture expresses the confident belief that his efforts in behalf of the production of our own sugar and tea have been encouragingly rewarded. The importance of the results attained have attracted marked attention at home, and have received the special consideration of foreign nations. The successful cultivation of our own tea and the manufacture of our own sugar would make a difference of many millions of dollars annually in the wealth of the nation.

The report of the Commissioner asks attention particularly to the continued prevalence of an infectious and contagious cattle disease known and dreaded in Europe and Asia as cattle-plague, or pleuro-pneumonia. A mild type of this disease, in certain sections of our country, is the occasion of great loss to our farmers, and of serious disturbance to our trade with Great Britain, which furnishes a market for most of our live stock and dressed meats. The value of neat-cattle exported from the United States for the eight months ended August 31, 1880, was more than twelve million dollars, and nearly double the value for the same period in 1879, an unexampled increase of export trade. Your early attention is solicited to this important matter.

The Commissioner of Education reports a continued increase of public interest in educational affairs, and that the public schools generally throughout the country are well sustained. Industrial training is attracting deserved attention, and colleges for instruction, theoretical and practical, in agriculture and mechanic arts, including the Government schools recently established for the instruction of Indian youth, are gaining steadily in public estimation. The Commissioner asks special attention to the depredations committed on the lands reserved for the future support of public instruction, and to the very great need of help from the nation for schools in the Territories and in the Southern States. The recommendation heretofore made is repeated and urged, that an educational fund be set apart from the net proceeds of the sales of the public lands annually, the income of which, and the remainder of the net annual proceeds, to be distributed on some satisfactory plan to the States and the Territories and the District of Columbia.

The success of the public schools of the District of Columbia, and the progress made, under the intelligent direction of the Board of Education and the Superintendent, in supplying the educational requirements of the District with thoroughly trained and efficient teachers, is very gratifying. The acts of Congress, from time to time, donating public lands to the several States and Territories in aid of educational interests, have proved to be wise measures of public policy, resulting in great and lasting benefit. It would seem to be a matter of simple justice to extend the benefits of this legislation, the wisdom of which has been so fully vindicated by experience, to the District of Columbia.

I again commend the general interests of the District of Columbia to the favorable consideration of Congress. The affairs of the District, as shown by the report of the Commissioners, are in a very satisfactory condition.

In my annual messages heretofore, and in my special message of December 19, 1879, I have urged upon the attention of Congress the necessity of reclaiming the marshes of the Potomac adjacent to the Capital, and I am constrained by its importance to advert again to the subject. These flats embrace an area of several hundred acres. They are an impediment to the drainage of the city, and seriously impair its health. It is believed that, with this substantial improvement of its river front, the Capital would be, in all respects, one of the most attractive cities in the world. Aside from its permanent population, this city is necessarily the place of residence of persons from every section of the country engaged in the public service. Many

others reside here temporarily for the transaction of business with the Government.

It should not be forgotten that the land acquired will probably be worth the cost of reclaiming it, and that the navigation of the river will be greatly improved. I therefore again invite the attention of Congress to the importance of prompt provision for this much-needed and too-long-delayed improvement.

The water supply of the city is inadequate. In addition to the ordinary use throughout the city, the consumption by Government is necessarily very great in the navy-yard, arsenal, and the various departments, and a large quantity is required for the proper preservation of the numerous parks and the cleansing of sewers. I recommend that this subject receive the early attention of Congress, and that, in making pro-

vision for an increased supply, such means be adopted as will have in view the future growth of the city. Temporary expedients for such a purpose can not but be wasteful of money, and therefore unwise. A more ample reservoir, with corresponding facilities for keeping it filled, should, in my judgment, be constructed. I commend again to the attention of Congress the subject of the removal from their present location of the depots of the several railroads entering the city; and I renew the recommendations of my former messages in behalf of the erection of a building for the Congressional Library, the completion of the Washington Monument, and of liberal appropriations in support of the benevolent, reformatory, and penal institutions of the District.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, December 6, 1880.

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REFORMED CHURCHES. I. REFORMED CHURCH IN AMERICA.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church, as reported to the General Synod in June, 1880:

CLASSES.	Churches.	Ministers.	Communicants.
Albany.....	17	18	3,163
Arcot.....	21	8	1,286
Bergen.....	16	17	2,174
South Bergen.....	11	14	1,785
Cayuga.....	11	12	1,108
Geneva.....	17	18	1,852
Grand River.....	15	12	2,328
Greene.....	7	8	1,454
Holland.....	17	15	2,887
Hudson.....	10	14	1,948
Illinois.....	22	20	2,084
Kingston.....	14	18	2,492
North Long Island.....	20	28	8,877
South Long Island.....	17	28	8,950
Michigan.....	9	10	766
Monmouth.....	11	14	1,380
Montgomery.....	23	17	2,581
Newark.....	14	18	2,466
New Brunswick.....	10	21	2,252
New York.....	21	34	6,891
Orange.....	26	24	3,553
Paramus.....	22	22	2,917
Passaic.....	14	19	1,919
Philadelphia.....	14	14	3,174
Poughkeepsie.....	11	14	2,254
Raritan.....	16	21	8,619
Rensselaer.....	18	18	2,090
Saratoga.....	14	14	1,628
Schenectady.....	11	18	2,585
Schoharie.....	14	11	1,235
Ulster.....	15	19	2,680
Westchester.....	14	17	2,007
Wisconsin.....	28	17	2,498
Total.....	510	545	80,208

Number of families connected with the Church, 43,289; number of Sunday-schools, 645, with 80,445 scholars; amount of contributions for religious and benevolent purposes, \$171,614; for congregational purposes, \$852,286.

Reports were made to the General Synod of the condition of the funds and benevolent enterprises of the Church, as follows:

Widows' Fund: Present amount, \$52,703; income for the year, \$3,074; annuities had been paid to the amount of \$2,319. Ten widows, four ministers, and two orphans had been aided during the year.

Disabled Ministers' Fund: Amount of invested funds, \$19,614; total increase for the

year, \$5,806, of which amount \$3,778 had been paid out to disabled ministers. Twenty-five persons had been relieved by this fund during the year.

Board of Education: Contributions of the churches during the year, \$9,479; indebtedness of the board, \$10,820. Seventy-two students had been under the care of the board.

Board of Publication: Net profits of the year, \$708; surplus of assets over liabilities, \$7,300; funded debt, \$5,200.

The *Board of Domestic Missions* reported that its own receipts for the year had been \$34,527, and the receipts on account of the church-building fund, \$7,139. The latter fund was in debt to the amount of \$4,616.

The receipts of the *Board of Foreign Missions* had been \$63,185, or \$4,742 more than the receipts of the previous year. Two missionaries had been sent to Japan during the year. The missions at Amoy, China, Arcot, India, and in Japan returned 14 stations, 101 out-stations, 16 missionaries, 21 assistant missionaries, 11 native ministers, 38 catechists or preachers, 14 assistant catechists, 32 readers, 40 schoolmasters and teachers, 9 schoolmistresses, 35 churches with 2,341 communicants, 3 academies (in India and Japan) with 96 scholars, 49 day-schools (in China and India), with 1,719 scholars, 12 theological students (in China and Japan), 1 dispensary (in India), in which 12,001 patients were treated, and contributions from the native churches amounting to \$2,250. The growth of the missions, during fifteen years, is shown in an increase of 24 churches, 85 out-stations, 1,626 communicants, 5,500 adherents, and 1,541 scholars from December, 1864, to December, 1879.

The receipts of the *Woman's Board* for the year had been \$8,879, or nearly \$500 more than those of the previous year. This society was about to assume all the work among women and girls connected with the missions.

The *General Synod of the Reformed Church in America* met in Brooklyn, New York, June 2d. The Rev. John A. De Baun, D. D., was chosen President. Four classes had sent memorials to the Synod on the subject of Freemasonry and secret societies, which they consid-

ered, for reasons which were specifically given, to be "anti-republican, anti-Christian, and anti-Reformed," asking the Synod to make a deliverance on the subject, embodying its advice, testimony, and the evidence of its active opposition against such societies. The Synod, in reply, adopted a declaration—

"that while as the *ex parte* evidence of the memorials now before it, this Synod can not properly give its official testimony for or against Freemasonry and other oath-bound secret societies; and while it holds as sacred the indefeasible rights of all its ministers and members to their individual conscientious convictions and liberty of speech and action, subject only to their prior loyalty to Christ and to his Church, yet it hereby declares that no communicant member and no minister of the Reformed Church in America ought to unite with, or remain in, any society or institution, whether secret or open, where principles, practices, and obligations are anti-Christian or contrary to the faith and practice of the Church to which we belong; that this Synod solemnly believes and declares that any system of religion or morals whose tendency is to hide our Saviour, or to supplant the religion of which he is the founder, should receive no countenance from his professed followers; and, furthermore, that no human, benevolent, or philanthropic, or reforming agency in this world can take the place of the Church of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, whose principle is to 'do good to all men, but especially to those that are of the household of faith'; and, therefore, that all who belong to this Church are in duty bound to give it the preëminence over all inferior institutions, and to promote, to the utmost of their power, its unity, peace, and prosperity, and especially its great charities and philanthropies; that this Synod also advises consistories and classes of the Church to be very kind and forbearing and strictly constitutional in their dealings with individuals on this subject, and that they be and are hereby cautioned against setting up any new tests of communion in the Christian Church."

A plan for systematic benevolence was adopted. It provides for the submission yearly, by the several boards of benevolence, of statements of their condition and needs, and for the apportionment, by the Synod's Committee of Systematic Benevolence, of the sums to be raised among the several classes, and a further apportionment by the several classes among the individual churches.

A resolution was adopted expressing the judgment of the Synod, that the members of the Church owe it to themselves and their Christian profession not to encourage by their own subscriptions, or in any way, the circulation of Sunday papers.

II. REFORMED CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES.—The following is a summary of the statistics of this Church, as they are given in the "Almanac of the Reformed Church in the United States" (Reformed Church Publication Board, Philadelphia) for 1881:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Congregations.	Members.
Synod of the United States.....	208	487	64,637
Synod of Ohio.....	145	295	21,250
Synod of the Northwest.....	162	249	22,080
Synod of Pittsburg.....	56	121	11,073
Synod of the Potomac.....	130	266	27,264
German Synod of the East.....	44	39	9,508
Total.....	748	1,405	155,857

Number of classes, 18. Of the members, 96,463 are returned as "members unconfirmed." Number of persons who communed during the year, 127,334; number of baptisms, 14,304 of infants, 1,208 of adults; number of persons confirmed, 10,639. Number of Sunday-schools, 1,339, with 104,169 scholars. Amount of contributions, for general benevolence, \$79,906; for local objects, \$736,181. Number of students for the ministry, 151.

The "Almanac" gives a list of six colleges, two theological seminaries, one mission house, and seven collegiate institutes, seminaries, and high-schools for young men and young women; in all, sixteen educational and literary institutions, under the care of the Church. The orphan homes at Womelsdorf, Berks County, Pennsylvania, and Butler, Butler County, Pennsylvania, had, together, 105 orphans under care.

The periodicals of the Church include one quarterly, five monthly, two semi-monthly, and three weekly publications in the English language; one monthly, one semi-monthly, and one weekly publication in the German language.

The *Home Missions* of the Tri-Synodic Board (of the Eastern, the Pittsburg, and the Potomac Synods) of Missions included 38 missionaries, 2,910 members, and 2,988 Sunday-school scholars. The number of additions during the year was 324; number of baptisms, 292; value of church property, \$125,000, against which were debts of about \$30,000.

The first *Board of Foreign Missions* was organized in 1838, and coöperated till 1860 with the American Board. The Rev. O. J. Sohr, of this Church, has been laboring in India for several years, as a missionary of the German Evangelical Missionary Society of the United States. A mission has been established in Japan, under the direct care of the board, and is supplied by the Rev. A. D. Gring.

III. GENERAL COUNCIL OF THE REFORMED CHURCHES HOLDING THE PRESBYTERIAN SYSTEM.—The second General Council of the *Alliance of the Reformed Churches throughout the World holding the Presbyterian System* met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, September 23d. The Alliance was organized in London in 1875 at a meeting of delegates from the several Presbyterian churches appointed for the purpose, and the first regular meeting of the General Council was held at Edinburgh, Scotland, in July, 1877. The history of the organization of the Alliance, and of the first meeting, is given in the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1875 and 1877. By the provisions of the constitution of the Alliance, any church organized on Presbyterian principles, which holds the supreme authority of the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments in matters of faith and morals, and whose creed is in harmony with the consensus of the Reformed Churches, is eligible to membership in it. The following churches were represented at the Council of 1880 by full delega-

tions: Presbyterian Church in the United States of America; Presbyterian Church in the United States; United Presbyterian Church of North America; Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church; General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church; Associate Reformed Synod of the South; Reformed Church in America; Reformed Church of the United States; Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Church; Presbyterian Church of Canada; Church of Scotland; Free Church of Scotland; United Presbyterian Church of Scotland; Presbyterian Church of England; Presbyterian Church of Ireland; National Reformed Church of France; Free Evangelical Church of Germany; Spanish Christian Church; Free Church of Switzerland; Missionary Church of Belgium; Reformed Church of Bohemia; Presbyterian Church of Victoria; Presbyterian Church of New South Wales; Presbyterian Church of Tasmania; Presbytery of Ceylon; and Mission Synod of the New Hebrides. Delegates were also present from India, South Australia, and several Presbyterian missions. The whole number of delegates was 265—180 ministers and 85 elders.

Delegates were appointed to the Council from the Cumberland Presbyterian Church, but the Council was not fully satisfied that the doctrines of that Church are in harmony with the consensus of the Reformed Confessions, and they were not admitted. The sessions of the Council were continued till the 3d of October; during their continuance, the following papers were read, and debated in brief discussions:

"The Ceremonial, the Moral, and the Emotional in Christian Life and Worship," Professor Roswell D. Hitchcock, D. D., LL. D., New York City; "Modern Theological Thought," Principal Robert Rainey, D. D., Edinburgh; "Religion in Secular Affairs," Principal G. M. Grant, D. D., Kingston, Canada; "Inspiration, Authenticity, and Interpretation of the Scriptures," Professor E. P. Humphrey, D. D., LL. D., Louisville, Kentucky, and Professor Robert Watts, D. D., Belfast; "Distinctive Principles of Presbyterianism," Professor Samuel J. Wilson, D. D., LL. D., Allegheny City, Pennsylvania; "Worship of the Reformed Churches," John DeWitt, D. D., Philadelphia; "Ruling Elders," Rev. O. H. Reed, D. D., Richmond, Virginia; "The Application of the Gospel to Employers and Employed," William G. Blaikie, D. D., LL. D., Edinburgh; "Christianity the Friend of the Working Classes," Chief-Justice C. D. Drake, Washington, D. C.; "Revealed Religion in its Relations to Science and Philosophy," Professor Henry Calderwood, LL. D., Edinburgh; "How to deal with Young Men trained in Science in this Age of Unsettled Opinions," President James McCosh, D. D., LL. D., Princeton, New Jersey; "Agnosticism," Professor Robert Flint, D. D., LL. D., Edinburgh; "Creeds and Confessions," Dr. A. B. Van Zandt, New Brunswick, New Jersey;

"Bible Revision," Professor J. W. Chambers, D. D., New York City; "Presbyterianism and Education," Professor Edward D. Morris, D. D., Cincinnati, Ohio; "Religion and Politics," Professor Lyman H. Atwater, D. D., Princeton, New Jersey; "Presbyterianism in Relation to Civil and Religious Liberty," Sylvester H. Savell, D. D., Pittsburg, Pennsylvania; "Catholicity of Presbyterianism," George C. Hutton, D. D., Paisley, Scotland, Principal D. H. MacVicar, D. D., LL. D., Montreal, Canada, and William H. Campbell, D. D., New York City, "The Vicarious Sacrifice of Christ," Principal John Cairns, D. D., Edinburgh, and Professor A. A. Hodge, D. D., Princeton, New Jersey; "Church Extension in Large Cities," R. M. Patterson, D. D., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and William J. R. Taylor, D. D., Newark, New Jersey; "Church Extension in Sparsely-settled Districts," W. J. Reid, D. D., Pittsburg, Pennsylvania; "The Conflict between Faith and Rationalism in Holland," Professor J. J. Van Oosterzee, D. D., Utrecht; Paper, "The Theology of the Reformed Church with Special Reference to the Westminster Standards," Professor Alexander Mitchell, D. D., St. Andrews; "Grounds and Methods of Admission to Sealing Ordinances," Rev. D. D. Bannerman, M. A., Perth; "Baptism," T. P. Stevenson, D. D., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; "Sabbath Observance," Professor William Gregg, D. D., Toronto; "Popular Amusements," Theodore L. Cuyler, D. D., Brooklyn, New York; "The Proper Care, Support, and Training of Candidates for the Ministry," Herrick J. Johnson, D. D., Chicago, Illinois; "Future Retribution," T. D. Witherspoon, D. D., Petersburg, Virginia; "Temperance," Hon. William E. Dodge, New York City; "Our Relations to the Churches of the European Continent," J. S. McIntosh, Belfast, Ireland; "Personal Religion," Rev. David Steele, D. D., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; "Regeneration," Professor J. H. A. Bomberger, D. D., Ursinus College, Pennsylvania.

Addresses were made by delegates from the several countries on the state of religion, and particularly of churches of the Presbyterian order in France, Switzerland, Ireland, Italy, Moravia, Bohemia, and Spain. Addresses were also made upon the condition of religious and mission work in Japan, China, the New Hebrides Islands, Syria, India, among the Choctaw Indians, and in South Africa. A report was made on the foreign missions of the Presbyterian Churches of the United States and Canada, in which the statistics of all the missions were shown to be as follows:

American ministers in the field.....	195
Native ministers.....	135
Native licentiate preachers.....	193
Medical missionaries and teachers.....	18
American women connected with the missions.....	266
Teachers and Bible-readers.....	894
Communicants.....	13,871
Scholars in boarding-schools.....	1,691
Scholars in day-schools.....	12,987

Two committees, one American and one Eu-

ropean, were appointed to secure coöperation and close union of the several churches in the work of the mission-field. A committee on "the Desiderata of Presbyterian History" reported that the work of collecting the returns was still incomplete, and was continued. Committees were appointed to reconsider the desirableness of defining the consensus of the Reformed Churches as required by the constitution of the Alliance, and report at the next meeting of the Council, and to define grounds for and act upon applications for admission to membership in the Alliance. A resolution was adopted in favor of arbitration as a means of preserving peace among nations. It was decided that the next meeting of the Council should be held in Belfast, Ireland, in 1884.

RHODE ISLAND. The adjourned, or January, session of the General Assembly of Rhode Island began on the 20th of January and continued until the 16th of April. There was little of general interest or importance in its proceedings. An effort to secure to women the right to vote on matters pertaining to public education was defeated, as was an attempt to amend the insolvency laws and to pass a new act in relation to the sale of intoxicating liquors. An act was passed abolishing the tribal authority and tribal relations of the Narragansett Indians, also one for the punishment of tramps. The Legislature of 1879 assigned to a joint special committee the duty of examining and reporting "as to what course is most advisable for the State to pursue in relation to the future management of the Providence Reform School," etc. The committee reported at the January session in favor of the transfer of the institution to the State, and an act was passed in April to effect this purpose. The Board of State Charities and Correction was requested to make a report to the Legislature at the May session on the general subject of Reform School management.

Before the adjournment of the General Assembly the State election had been held and a new Legislature chosen. The first of the political conventions was that of the Prohibitory party, which was held in the hall of the House of Representatives at Providence, on the 19th of February. A letter was received from Governor Van Zandt expressing his gratitude for the "constant support of the temperance men of Rhode Island," and declining the use of his name for a renomination. Albert C. Howard, of East Providence, was nominated for Governor; T. M. Seabury, for Lieutenant-Governor; Joshua M. Addeman, for Secretary of State; Willard Sayles, for Attorney-General; and Samuel Clark for General Treasurer. Mr. Seabury subsequently declined to be a candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, and the name of Harrison H. Richardson was substituted by the State Central Committee of the party. The Convention adopted no platform.

The Republican Convention was held at Providence on the 18th of March. The candidates

nominated for State officers were: Alfred H. Littlefield, of Lincoln, for Governor; Henry H. Fay, of Newport, for Lieutenant-Governor; Joshua M. Addeman, of Providence, for Secretary of State; Willard Sayles, of Providence, for Attorney-General; and Samuel Clark, of Lincoln, for General Treasurer. Delegates to the National Convention of the party were also chosen, but no platform was adopted.

The Democrats held their Convention at Providence on the 22d of March. Horace A. Kimball, of Burrillville, was nominated as a candidate for Governor; Stephen P. Slocum, of Newport, for Lieutenant-Governor; W. B. W. Hallett, for Secretary of State; Hugh J. Carroll, for Attorney-General; and Daniel B. Pond, for General Treasurer. Delegates to the National Convention at Cincinnati were chosen, and the following declarations were adopted:

The Democrats of Rhode Island, in convention assembled, congratulate the country upon the multiplying evidences that the Republican party is passing into a condition of disintegration and decay. It has outlived its usefulness; the old leaders who brought it into being—Seward, Chase, Sumner, Lincoln, Morton, and a long list of great men—have passed away, and in their places we see the Conklings, the Blaines, the Shermans, the Camerons—corrupt and scheming men, the names of many of whom have become a stench in the nostrils of the body politic. These men, already gorged with plunder, are pushing to the front, eager to slake their drunken thirst from the very vitals of the nation's life. Another four years of Republicanism in power will furnish a spectacle of greed, recklessness, and rascality never witnessed since the formation of the republic. This country is at the crisis of its fate. All good men see the necessity of a change of administration and methods. The Democratic party is the only power ready and able to face the impending peril and rescue the Government from the grasp of the usurper and destroyer. With returning prosperity should be dealt the final blow to rapacity and dishonesty. Unless that blow is struck in this year of grace 1880, the party of centralization, a "strong Government," and imperialism, will make its grasp perpetual and too powerful to be shaken off. It is best for Democrats to look the danger in the face. And that the people of this enterprising State may understand the objects and motives which actuate us, we herewith put forward the following declaration of principles:

Whereas, The Democracy of the State of Rhode Island, anxious to bear their part in the great work of redeeming the nation from Republican misrule, find themselves hampered and restricted by an unjust and oppressive enactment in contravention of the Constitution of the United States, and the great principles of manhood suffrage which lies at the basis of all popular liberty; and

Whereas, This enactment alone prevents Rhode Island from becoming a Democratic State by a decisive and permanent majority; therefore,

Resolved, That we give notice to liberty-loving men in all parts of these United States that fully one fourth of the citizens of this Commonwealth are deprived of the right of suffrage by the accident of birth, no citizen of the United States of foreign nativity, no matter how long his residence, how upright his character, or how eminent his usefulness, being allowed access to the polls unless endowed with a property qualification not exacted of the meanest vagabond or vilest criminal of native birth.

Resolved, That, having borne this wrong meekly for successive generations, we now resolve unitedly and courageously to wage war upon it by all lawful means until it is stricken from the Constitution; and we appeal to Democrats everywhere to make common cause

with us in resisting this great wrong, which has imposed upon us an oligarchy as oppressive and merciless as the meanest despotism of Asia.

Resolved, That we arraign the Republican party as wholly responsible for the perpetuation of this proscriptive principle, which is keeping back population, depressing industry and enterprise, and will rob the State of one representative in Congress.

Resolved, That we recognize a tendency toward the same proscriptive system in our Federal Government, which, by the employment of United States marshals and soldiers at the polls, has already stifled the voice of the majority in more than one State, making our boasted right of suffrage a mockery and by-word, and bringing contempt upon republican institutions in all nations which boast the supremacy of their "strong Governments." That man must be blind indeed who does not see in this crushing out of suffrage a positive and rapid tendency toward monarchy and absolutism.

Resolved, That the time has not yet come for the Democracy to be forgetful of the stupendous fraud of 1876-'77, when the President and Vice-President of the United States, elected by an overwhelming majority of the people, and by a decisive vote in the electoral college, were deprived of their offices by an infamous conspiracy concocted by men now high in official position and the confidence of the Administration; and we do hereby denounce and condemn, and hold up to the execration of the world the foul crime against our institutions by which the right of the people to choose their rulers was denied for the first time in the history of the republic.

Resolved, That we refer with pride to the forbearance of the Democracy in submitting to this great wrong, and ask the people of the United States to contrast with it the boast of the Republican party that the man whom they nominate at Chicago is to be inaugurated, even if he calls 500,000 soldiers to his aid.

Resolved, That the men who are elected to the offices of President and Vice-President of the United States in November, 1880, shall be inaugurated.

Resolved, That we regard the recent developments of dishonesty in high official circles in this State as the legitimate fruit of that condition of irresponsibility in politics fostered by the ring which holds the majority of voters with a grip of iron; and we unhesitatingly declare that our only security from further disgrace is in the ascendancy of Democratic principles, by which these Augean stables of Republican rule shall be cleansed.

Resolved, That the Republican ring of this State has shown itself the enemy of the soldier, as exhibited in the preference for office of civilians, whose only claim is party service. We denounce this as a breach of faith, and the most glaring hypocrisy on the part of a party which claims an exclusive patent upon everything "truly loyal," and assumes to be the soldier's only friend.

Resolved, That the policy of a large proportion of the Republican party, of electing to the Presidency for a third term the man whose administration was conspicuous chiefly for its failures and the numerous scandals arising from the employment of dishonest and incompetent men in office, should be condemned, not only as in violation of a tradition that has been held sacred for a century both by the people and the most eminent of Presidents and statesmen, but as perilous to the permanence of the Government itself and the liberties of the people under it; and we appeal to the people of the United States to rise up as one man against this contemplated plot to overthrow a precedent as firmly established as the Constitution itself, and the possible results of which no patriot can contemplate without horror.

Resolved, That for a general avowal of the great principles which underlie the Democratic party, and which shall receive our support in the coming contest, we hereby solemnly declare:

1. Fidelity to all the provisions of the Constitution, retrenchment and economy in Federal and State ad-

ministration, and the lessening of the burdens imposed upon labor by the reduction of offices and taxation.

2. The strict accountability of all officials and the reduction of the Democratic tests of honesty, fidelity, and capacity as essential qualifications for all public officers.

3. The honest payment of the public debts in such currency as its terms imply, and the preservation of the public faith.

4. Home rule, no centralization of State or Federal powers; no Federal interference in municipal, State, or Federal elections.

5. A just and equitable revenue tariff.

6. Manhood suffrage. To vote is a duty the citizen owes his State. The provision for a pecuniary consideration in the case of the registered voter should be annulled. Tax the citizen, not the citizen's vote.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Rhode Island will earnestly labor for purer and more economical administration; that the State ticket nominated to-day shall receive our united and hearty support, and that we hail with satisfaction the evidence of a growing desire on the part of the people to emancipate themselves from the party of political bigotry, intolerance, and ring-rule which has for years controlled this State. Convinced that the Republican party, made infamous by the most gigantic crimes, can not always prosper or maintain its ascendancy over a free people, we call upon all who believe in honest government and desire the perpetuity of our institutions, to aid in strengthening our organization, which must be the ultimate hope of the State and the Union when political crime shall become exposed in all its hideousness and the people are thoroughly aroused to the danger that threatens them from those who would abridge their liberties, who have turned the Government into a refuge of thieves, and who to-day are prospering in crime.

The election took place on April 7th. When the new Legislature, which consisted of twenty-seven Republicans and seven Democrats in the Senate, and fifty-nine Republicans and twelve Democrats in the House of Representatives, came together at Newport on the 25th of May, and the votes were canvassed in the "Grand Committee," it was found that the whole number cast for Governor was 22,809, making 11,405 necessary to a choice. Alfred H. Littlefield received 10,224, Horace A. Kimball 7,440, Albert C. Howard 5,047, and 98 were "scattering." There was, therefore, no choice of Governor by the popular vote. The same was the case in regard to the Lieutenant-Governor. The whole number of votes for Secretary of State was 22,585, of which Joshua M. Addeman received 15,097, William B. W. Halliett 7,406, and 82 were scattering. Willard Sayles was elected Attorney-General, and Samuel Clark General Treasurer, by a similar vote. The Governor and Lieutenant-Governor were chosen by a joint ballot of the two branches of the Legislature, the choice being confined to the two candidates receiving the highest vote at the election. In a total vote of 102, Littlefield for Governor had 82, Kimball 20; and Fay for Lieutenant-Governor 81, and Slocum 21. The inauguration of Littlefield followed immediately on the first day of the "May session" of the Legislature. This session was brief, continuing only from May 25th to 28th, inclusive, with an adjourned sitting on the 8th and 9th of June for the election of United States Senator in accordance with the

requirement of the Federal law, that the first vote shall be taken on the second Tuesday of the session. General Ambrose E. Burnside was reelected to the Senate of the United States, the vote being as follows: In the Senate, A. E. Burnside, 25; George H. Brown, 7; C. O. Van Zandt, 2. In the House, Burnside, 54; Brown, 9; Van Zandt, 2; and J. Lewis Diamond and William P. Sheffield, 1 each.

The legislation of the May session was of small amount and little importance. The report of the State Board of Charities and Correction on the question of dealing with juvenile offenders was received, and an act was passed locating the new Reform School on the State farm at Cranston, and providing for the erection of the necessary buildings. An act was also passed to prevent deception in the sale of butter, requiring "oleomargarine" to be labeled with its proper designation. A resolution was adopted authorizing the Governor to appoint a committee to revise and digest the public laws of the State. John F. Tobey, Joshua M. Addeman, and George M. Carpenter, Jr., were appointed on this commission, and their work was completed and submitted to the Legislature at the adjourned session in January, 1881. The plan adopted in regard to changes in the laws is thus stated in their report:

1. To make all amendments, whether by addition, removal, or substitution, which are required by the language of all amendatory statutes passed since 1872, and by the literal interpretation of those statutes.

2. To make such amendments as seem to be required by a fair construction of the meaning and intent of those amendatory statutes, and such as seem to be required in order to carry them into practical effect. Under this class the changes are comparatively few in number, but of several distinct kinds, and, perhaps, do not need to be enumerated. Prominent among these are the change, in some instances, of the formal and subordinate duties of various town officers, in order to conform to the systems of registration, and of militia enlisting and returns which have lately been made, and the various changes rendered necessary by the establishment of certain administrative boards.

3. To make a revision of the form and language of the General Statutes as thus amended, so as to secure greater clearness of arrangement and ease of reference, and to make the language more concise, uniform, and accurate in those particulars where, in consequence of the necessary haste in which some acts have been passed, it seemed desirable.

State Conventions were held in October for the nomination of candidates for electors of President and Vice-President of the United States, and district Conventions for the nomination of candidates for members of Congress. The Republican State Convention occurred on the 8th, at Providence, and speeches were made expressive of the party sentiment on national questions, but no formal declarations were adopted, and no business was transacted except the nomination of electors. The Congressional District Conventions were held the same day and at the same place. The delegates of the first district nominated Nelson W. Aldrich without opposition, but those of the second took eighty-eight ballots before effect-

ing a nomination, and the result was then brought about by the withdrawal of W. A. Pierce, one of the prominent candidates before the Convention. The name finally agreed upon was that of Jonathan Chase, of Lincoln.

The Democratic State Convention took place at Providence on the 13th, and its action was confined to the selection of candidates for Presidential electors. The Eastern District Convention nominated Isaac Lawrence, of Newport, as a candidate for Congress, and the Western District Convention agreed upon Mr. Treat, of Warwick.

A State Convention of the Greenback party was held at Providence on the 19th of October for the nomination of electors, and the following platform was adopted:

1. The Greenback-Labor party of Rhode Island affirms the Chicago platform of June 9, 1880, and heartily supports the candidates nominated thereon.

2. It demands the payment of the bonded indebtedness of the United States without unnecessary delay;

3. The substitution of non-interest-bearing greenbacks, in place of double-interest-bearing national bank notes;

4. That the national Government alone shall issue currency, and shall control its volume, and preserve unchanged its purchasing power as sacredly as measures of weight, length, and kindred measures are preserved, and for like obvious reasons;

5. Universal suffrage without distinction of sex, and universal education.

6. That the Congress of the United States perform, without evasion and without delay, its sworn duty to invest the naturalized citizens of the United States in Rhode Island with the privileges and immunities, as well as permit to be imposed upon them the duties of citizenship, to this end refusing, if necessary, to seat any representative from Rhode Island till the oligarchy here shall observe the supreme law of the land in this regard.

Candidates for Congress were also nominated by the delegates from the districts. That for the First or Eastern District was Henry C. Cram, of Providence; for the Second or Western District, John Francis Smith, of Cranston.

At the November election the total vote for Presidential electors was 29,235, of which 18,195 were for the Republican ticket, 10,779 for that of the Democrats, 236 for the Greenback, 20 for the Prohibition, 4 for the American candidates, and 1 was reported as "scattering." The Republican plurality over the Democratic vote was 7,416; majority over all, 7,155. In the first Congressional District Aldrich was elected by a vote of 9,510 to 4,586 for Lawrence, and 188 "scattering"; in the second, Chase was elected by a vote of 8,515 to 6,027 for Treat, and 139 "scattering."

The population of Rhode Island, according to the new Federal census, is 276,528, of which 104,850 is in the city of Providence, 19,030 in Pawtucket, 16,053 in Woonsocket, 15,693 in Newport, 13,765 in Lincoln, and 12,165 in Warwick, or 181,554 in the six cities, leaving but 94,974, or little more than one third, for the rest of the State.

The receipts of the State Treasury for the year were \$837,323.43, including a balance on

hand at the beginning of \$166,164.08. The expenditures were \$751,460.25, leaving a balance on hand at the close of \$85,865.20. The amount of State bonds outstanding is \$2,523,500, against which there is a sinking fund amounting to \$825,595.05. This leaves as the net indebtedness \$1,697,904.95, and shows a decrease of \$134,558 during the year. The State bonds are payable as follows:

Bonds issued October 1, 1861, payable 1881.....	\$500
Bonds issued September 2, 1862, payable 1882.....	954,000
Bonds issued April 1, 1863, payable 1883.....	200,000
Bonds issued July 1, 1863, payable 1893.....	631,000
Bonds issued August 1, 1864, payable 1894.....	738,500
Total.....	\$2,523,500

The school statistics of the year are as follows:

Number of children from five to fifteen years enumerated.....	52,273
Number of children reported as attending public schools.....	33,504
Number of children reported as attending Catholic schools.....	4,817
Number of children reported as attending select schools.....	1,891
Number of children reported as not attending any schools.....	12,279
Number of pupils enrolled in day-schools.....	30,112
Average number.....	27,217
Average attendance.....	824
Number of schools.....	9 mos., 4 days.
Average length of schools.....	889
Number of teachers regularly employed.....	\$390,558 34
Amount paid teachers.....	4,176
Number of pupils enrolled in evening-schools.....	2,846
Average number.....	1,843
Average attendance.....	40
Number of schools.....	168
Average number of teachers employed.....	124 weeks.
Average length of the schools.....	\$538,450 86
Total receipts.....	456,862 91
Current expenditures.....	57,387 64
Permanent expenditures (land, building, etc.).....	

The School for the Deaf, which has been established only four years, is on a successful basis, and has twenty-five pupils. The permanent school fund of the State is \$240,376.37, invested chiefly in the stock of Providence banks, and \$26,573.54 awaiting investment.

The penal, correctional, and charitable institutions on the State farm at Cranston cost \$147,190.57 for support during the year. A new Reform School, with separate departments for boys and girls, has been added, for which the buildings are not yet complete. At the close of the year the Workhouse and House of Correction contained 180 men and 57 women; the Asylum for the Incurable Insane, 113 men and 132 women; the Almshouse, 76 men, 77 women, 21 boys, and 4 girls—178 in all; the State Prison, 76 men and 6 women. The Providence County Jail contained 109 men and 14 women; that of Washington County, 3 men; that of Bristol County, no inmates at all; Newport County, 1 man; Kent County, 2 men.

There are thirty-nine savings-banks in the State, with 97,682 depositors and an aggregate of \$44,755,625.49 in deposits, making the average due each depositor \$458.18. The increase of deposits for the year was \$1,660,091.68; increase in number of depositors, 4,489. The average rate of dividends was $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

RIPLEY, GEORGE, LL. D., died July 4, 1880, in New York. The family from which he sprung has produced many eminent men, generals and divines. He was born at Greenfield, Massachusetts, September 3, 1802. He graduated at Harvard in 1823, and in 1826 at the Cambridge Divinity School. During three years he occupied the pulpit of a Unitarian church in Boston. In 1831 he definitively retired from the ministry, and went to Europe to study philosophy. From that time he kept up with the foremost wave of thought. The schools of Fourier, Comte, and St. Simon were then in high vogue. Though his mind was strongly imbued with some of their theories, he never avowed himself a disciple. On his return to Boston, in 1835, he became a propagandist of advanced French and German philosophy. His translations of such works helped to popularize the new views. Between 1838 and 1842, in conjunction with Dr. Hedge, he published "Specimens of Foreign Standard Literature," in fourteen octavo volumes. In 1839 Dr. Ripley published "Discourses on the Philosophy of Religion." Professor Andrews Norton, of Cambridge, replied to this in a pamphlet entitled "The Latest Form of Infidelity." A vigorous, prolonged, and bitter controversy ensued. He was intimately connected with the inception of New England Transcendentalism. Ralph Waldo Emerson was his college mate and friend. Dr. Ripley wrote for "The Dial," the exponent of their peculiar views. In 1844 he invested and lost his slender fortune in the Brook Farm experiment. He was the actual head of this socialistic colony, established near Roxbury, where Margaret Fuller, Nathaniel Hawthorne, and other American philosophers, male and female, lived on a communistic plan. Their organ, "The Harbinger," asserted that this was not at first a Fourierite movement, but that those principles were adopted after the fusion of the New York with the Boston community. Whether or not they could have succeeded in this nineteenth century in fleeting the time carelessly as they did in the golden world, after three years a fire swept away their buildings, and the philosophers dispersed. Dr. Ripley moved to New York, and in 1849 became literary editor of the "Tribune." He was a consummate critic, and his reviews helped to form public taste. He superintended the literary department of "Harper's Monthly," and occupied the post of "reader" to that publishing firm. Mrs. Ripley was his coadjutor in all his literary and philosophic enterprises. In 1852 he and Bayard Taylor edited a "Handbook of Literature and the Fine Arts." In 1858, in conjunction with Charles A. Dana, he undertook the editing of "Appletons' New American Cyclopædia," which is largely indebted to his erudition and fidelity of research. A revised edition appeared in 1873. Labors so arduous precluded much original writing, and upon these works his fame must rest. From the time when a knot of young enthusiasts

broke through all trammels, good and bad, in their zeal for the ideal, to ripe old age, when he persistently presented the claims of science and literature in an absorbed and practical community, Dr. Ripley's influence on the thought of his day was continuous.

ROBERTS, MARSHALL OTIS, was born in New York, in 1812. He began life as a ship-chandler. During the Mexican War he accumulated a fortune by contracts for stores and transportation. This he ultimately lost. During the rapid colonization of California he was largely interested in a steamship company, which was awarded a lucrative contract for transportation of mails across the Isthmus of Panama. The company became bankrupt, Mr. Roberts acquired their claims against the Government, and years after obtained a judgment for above a million dollars. In 1856 he was a delegate to the first National Convention of the Republican party, at Pittsburg, which nominated Fremont for the Presidency. In 1861 Mr. Roberts was an ardent friend of the Union. He placed the steamer *Star of the West* at the disposal of General Scott. His patriotism was acknowledged by the award of contract after contract, by which he amassed a colossal fortune. He was connected with many enterprises. He was at the head of the Tehuantepec Canal and Railroad Company. He was one of the five capitalists who undertook the laying of the Atlantic cable. On the assassination of President Lincoln Mr. Roberts presented his family with a gift of ten thousand dollars. He was also a munificent patron of art, and expended in the acquisition of pictures more than a million of dollars, the greater part of which went to the encouragement of native art. He was the founder of the Women's Christian Association and the Home for Girls in New York City. He died at Saratoga, New York, September 11, 1880, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. During the year 1880 the Roman Catholic Church remained under the direction of Pope Leo XIII, the position at Rome being unchanged. The Italian Government pursued its course of seizing ecclesiastical property, all that belonging to the College of the Propaganda, the great missionary college of the Church, arising from contributions from all countries, being taken, and, though the Propaganda appealed to the courts, the judges decided (November 13th) in favor of the Government from whom they received their salaries. Pope Leo XIII continued to encourage the study of the works of St. Thomas Aquinas, and set apart rooms for the preparation of a new and careful edition. Theological disputations were frequently conducted in his presence. In February he addressed an encyclical to the Lenten preachers on marriage and the tendency of civil government to undermine it, by opening the door to divorces on any pretext.

In Germany no new laws were passed op-

pressing the Catholics, but those on the statute-book were enforced, gradually depriving Catholics in that empire of all religious services, and punishing with rigor any attempt to supply the vacancies.

In Switzerland the Catholics, by taking part in the elections in some places, recovered their churches by electing their duly appointed parish priests.

The French Republic, by the decrees of March 29, 1880, ordered the suppression of all unauthorized religious orders, that is, of orders that were not incorporated and recognized under the French laws. The appeals of the episcopate and clergy to the President and his Cabinet were disregarded. Under this the Jesuits were expelled from their houses and colleges by the police at Paris, Angers, and elsewhere, convents of Carmelites and Récollets were mobbed, and even the famous Sister Jeanne de Chantal, known as the heroine of Châteaudun, for her services during the war with Germany, was driven from her convent. Similar scenes were enacted throughout the republic, and religious orders were compelled to disperse and break up their colleges, academies, and schools, as well as institutions of charity and houses for home missions among the poor and neglected. Many of these *religieuses* took up temporary residence in England and the British Isles, and in Spain. In many cases the *religieuses* protested against the decrees and against invasion of their individual rights, and yielded only to force. Large bodies of troops were at times sent against monasteries to overawe the people while the expulsion was effected. On the 11th of November Cardinal Guibert addressed a letter to the members of the communities dispersed under the March decrees.

On the 31st of November a preliminary agreement was signed between the Holy See and the Russian Government in regard to the nomination of bishops and the regulation of seminaries. This gave hopes of some freedom to members of the Catholic Church in the Russian dominions, although many points were not touched, especially the condition of the United Greeks in Poland. It was hailed, however, as an indication of better feeling toward the Catholics in general, but the death of Alexander II, before the agreement was completely carried out, left the whole matter in a state of uncertainty.

To encourage the Slav Catholics, Leo XIII, on the 30th of September, issued an encyclical on their apostles Sts. Cyril and Methodius, and the church founded by them, and made their feast one of higher rank in the church-at-large.

The ancient order of St. Benedict celebrated the fourteen hundredth anniversary of the birth of its founder, the Prince-Archbishop of Salzburg officiating, at Monte Casino, April 6th, and similar celebrations took place in Austria, Switzerland, England, the United States, and other parts where the order still flourishes;

the abbey at Montserrat in Spain celebrating on the same month its millennial.

Pilgrimages took place in various parts; and Knock, in Ireland, in consequence of apparitions said to have occurred there, became a resort visited by pious gatherings from all parts of Ireland and England, and even from the United States.

In Belgium a school law hostile to religious influence led to a rupture between that kingdom and Rome, the Belgian Minister to the Holy See closing his embassy on the 6th of July. Pope Leo XIII, on the 27th, addressed a letter to Cardinal Dechamps on the subject, and on the 20th of the following month he reviewed the whole subject in an allocution to the Cardinal.

The United States of Colombia in June passed a law recalling from banishment Bishop Bermudez, of Popayan; Bishop Restrepo, of Pasto; Bishop Gonzalez, of Antioquia; Bishop Montoya, of Medellin; and Bishop Carra, of Pamplona, who had been driven into exile.

No promotion of cardinals occurred during the year, except that of Anthony Hassun, Patriarch of Cilicia, of the Armenians, who was created cardinal in December, the only member of the Sacred College representing any of the Oriental rites. Cardinal Pie, Bishop of Poitiers, died May 17, 1880; Cardinal F. X. Apuzzo, Archbishop of Capua, July 30th; Cardinal Pacea, October 14th.

Among other eminent Catholics who died during the year were the Dominican prior, Very Rev. Joseph Mulledy, an archæologist, author of "St. Clement and his Basilica in Rome" (June 25th); Mgr. G. Martigny, author of the "Dictionnaire des Antiquités Chrétiennes" (August 18th); and the Countess Clotilda von Bochoitz, foundress of a diocesan seminary at Paderborn, Germany (August 29th).

ROUMANIA, a kingdom in Southeastern Europe. Reigning King, Charles I, born April 20th, 1839; accepted his election as Prince of Roumania May 10, 1866; was proclaimed King by the Parliament of Roumania on March 26, 1881.

The area of Roumania is estimated at 129,947 square kilometres, and the population at 5,376,000. The largest cities are Bucharest, with 177,646 inhabitants; Jassy, with 90,000; and Galatz, with 80,000.

The revenue for the financial year 1879 amounted to 114,228,041 lei (1 lei = 1 franc = 19·3 cents); the expenditure to 114,340,586 lei. The public debt, on January 1, 1880, was 597,964,953 lei.

The effective force of the territorial army in 1879 was 22,463 infantry, and 12,184 cavalry with 12,192 horses. The navy consists as yet of only four steamers and six gunboats, and has thirty officers and five hundred men.

The imports were valued in 1879 at 254,483,000 lei; the exports at 238,650,000 lei. The number of vessels entering the ports of the Danube in 1879 was 22,349, with 3,929,032

tons; the number of vessels cleared 21,913, with 3,904,369 tons. In September, 1880, there were 1,098 kilometres of state railroads and 223 kilometres of private roads in operation, exclusive of one road in the Dobrudja of 63 kilometres. The aggregate length of the telegraph lines was 5,238 kilometres, of the wires 8,323 kilometres; the number of dispatches sent, 879,138. The postal establishment carried 5,150,848 private letters, 1,103,544 official letters, 531,548 registered letters, 697,210 postal-cards. The number of offices was 233; the revenue, 3,637,784 francs.

The attention of the Cabinet and the Chambers was chiefly directed to measures of internal administration, and to the enlargement and improvement of commercial facilities. The independence of the nation was recognized at the beginning of February by the Government of the Netherlands. On the 7th of February the Austro-Hungarian Government addressed a note to England, France, and Germany, inviting these Governments, in view of the intrigues of the Roumanian Cabinet to press forward the emancipation of the Jews, formally to acknowledge the independence of the principality. On the 20th of February a joint note acknowledging the independence of Roumania was presented to the Government by the representatives of the three powers named. The announcement of the fact was received in the Chambers with so much applause that the sittings had to be temporarily suspended. Immediately after the note was presented, Mr. W. A. White, the British Consul-General, submitted his credentials as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Roumanian Government.

The relations between Roumania and Bulgaria came to a rupture in May, when Mr. Stourdza, the Roumanian representative to Bulgaria, was recalled, on the ground that he had been treated discourteously, and that the Bulgarian Government had insinuated that Roumania was secretly supporting insurrection in Bulgaria. This act was followed by the recall of the Bulgarian agent, Mr. Georgieff, from Bucharest. Another difference arose upon the introduction of a bill in the Bulgarian Parliament for the naturalization of all Bulgarians dwelling in Roumania and Servia as subjects of the Bulgarian Principality. This bill was, however, withdrawn, in deference to the objections urged by Roumania that such a measure would interfere with its territorial rights.

In the matter of the settlement of the frontier line of the Danube, Russia, in June, gave its consent to a delimitation by which the fort of Arab Sabia proper and the intrenchments situated on the heights of Yumen and Yelianli, with their western surroundings, should be allotted to Roumania, while the southeastern part of the intrenchments, with Fort Odo, should be kept by the Bulgarians. The Roumanians were willing to accept this line, notwithstanding that they alleged that the last-mentioned position, which would be left in the

hands of Bulgaria, commanded the bridge over the Danube. The details of the settlement of the frontier line between Roumania and the Dobrudja were afterward agreed upon by the powers, and communicated to the Roumanian Government, whose duty it then became to come to an understanding with Bulgaria respecting the actual work of marking the boundary.

The unfriendly feeling toward Russia, which had been quite strong ever since the negotiation of the Treaty of Berlin, became more intense while these negotiations respecting the frontier were going on. It was aggravated by charges on the one side that the Russians were carrying on intrigues in Roumania, and on the other by a Russian accusation that the Government at Bucharest was harboring incendiary agents who desired to stir up revolution in Russia. The Russian Government made representations to that of Roumania concerning the Nihilists who had taken refuge within its territory, but the Roumanian Government found no authority in law for taking any decisive measures against them. The reports of the extent of these jealousies, and of the character of the correspondence to which they led, appear to have been much exaggerated, but they were sufficiently real to influence the course of the Government and lead it to seek closer relations with Germany and Austria. The feeling of the Government was not shared by all of the people, and a part, including Prince Gregory Stourdza, son of the late Hospodar of Moldavia, favored Russia. During the debate of the Senate on the address in February, Prince Stourdza had attacked the Ministry, and urged that the true policy for the country would be to seek an intimate union with Russia and an alliance with the other principalities of the Balkan Peninsula. The speech was intended as a kind of political programme for a new party to be formed out of the members of the Opposition and some malcontents who had hitherto belonged to the Ministerial part, and was followed by the establishment of a new Opposition journal, the "Demokratia Nationala."

The Government published a memorandum on the question of the Danube in September, in which it complained of a disposition of Austria to assume dictatorial power over the navigation of the river, and claim the sole right of police surveillance. It demanded that a European commission, to include representatives of Roumania, Servia, and Bulgaria, should decree what rules should be established. An arrangement was made between the Austrian and Roumanian Governments in October, by which Austria should retain the presidency and the casting vote which it had claimed in the mixed Danubian Commission, but that Roumania should appoint the Inspector-General, and the Commission should reside at Giurgevo instead of Rustchuk.

A new Cabinet was formed at the beginning

of August, as follows: J. C. Bratiano, Minister of Finance and President of the Council of Ministers; A. Boeresco, Minister of Foreign Affairs; A. Teriakio, Minister of the Interior; General G. Slaniceno, Minister of War; Colonel Dabija, Minister of Public Works; B. Conta, Minister of Public Instruction and Justice. Teriakio, Dabija, and Conta were new members.

An attempt was made, December 14th, to assassinate Mr. Bratiano, the Premier, as he was leaving the Chamber of Deputies. The assailant, who succeeded in wounding the Minister in two places with a knife, was arrested, and found to be one Jean Pietraro, who had been discharged from a position in the Ministry of Finance on account of his bad reputation.

The succession to the throne of Roumania was settled by vote of the Senate, October 10, 1880, upon Prince Ferdinand of Hohenzollern, nephew to Prince Charles, in the event of the latter remaining childless.

RUSSIA (EMPIRE OF ALL THE RUSSIAS), an empire in Europe and Asia. The Emperor Alexander II, who was born April 17 (new style), 1818, and succeeded his father, Nicholas I, February 18, 1855, was assassinated on March 13, 1881. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Alexander III, born February 26, 1845; married, October 28, 1866, to Marra Feodorovna (formerly called Sophia Frederica Dagmar), daughter of King Christian IX of Denmark, born November 14, 1847. Offspring of this union are four children: 1. Nicholas, heir-apparent, born May 6, 1868; 2. George, born April 27, 1871; 3. Xenia, born March 25, 1875; 4. Michael, born November 23, 1878. Brothers of the Emperor: 1. Vladimir, born April 10, 1847, married August 16, 1874, to Princess Marie, of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Offspring of this union are three sons, Cyrille, born 1876, Boris, born 1877, and Andreas, born 1879. 2. Alexis, born January 2, 1850; 3. Sergius, born April 29, 1857; 4. Paul, born September 21, 1860. Uncles of the Emperor: 1. Constantine, High-Admiral of the Russian Navy, born September 9, 1827, married, August 30, 1848, to Princess Alexandra of Saxe-Altenburg, of which union there are issue four children: Nicholas, born 1850; Olga, Queen of Greece, born 1851; Vera, widow of Prince Eugen of Wurtemberg, born 1854; Constantine, born 1858; Dimitis, born 1860; 2. Nicholas, born July 27, 1831, field-marshal in the Russian Army, married to Princess Alexandra of Oldenburg, of which marriage there are two sons, Nicholas, born 1856, and Peter, born 1864; 3. Michael, born October 13, 1832, field-marshal in the Russian Army, married to Princess Cecilia of Baden, of which marriage there are six sons, Nicholas, born 1859; Michael, 1861; George, 1863; Alexander, 1866; Sergius, 1869; Alexis, 1875, and one daughter, Anastasia, born 1860, and married, in 1879, to Prince Frederic Fraul of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

The area and population of the great di-



ALEXANDER III

EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

visions of Russia were estimated as follows in 1880 ("Gotha Almanac," 1881):

DIVISIONS.	Area in square kilometres.	Population.
1. European Russia.....	4,909,193·7	65,864,910
Poland.....	127,316·5	6,528,017
Annexed districts in Bessarabia.....	9,274	127,000
2. Grand duchy of Finland.....	378,536·2	1,990,847
3. Caucasasia.....	439,187·7	5,391,744
Government of Kars.....	25,769	236,600
4. Siberia.....	12,495,109·5	3,440,362
5. Central Asia.....	3,950,587·1	4,503,576
Russian Empire.....	21,759,973·7	88,085,856

The following cities have, according to the latest enumerations, more than 100,000 inhabitants: Petersburg (in 1869), 667,963; Moscow (1871), 601,969; Warsaw (in 1878), 336,703; Odessa (1873), 184,819; Kiev (1874), 127,251; Riga, 103,000; Kishinev, 102,427; Kharkov (1879), 101,175.

For religious and other statistics of the empire, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1877 and 1878.

The budget for 1880, as published in January, showed a probable balance between revenue and expenditure, the totals in each case being estimated at 666,000,000 rubles. The

receipts were estimated according to the normal average yield of the various sources of revenue, and were regarded as sufficient completely to cover the outlay, notwithstanding the expenditure, which included the interest on the new loans, had increased by 38,000,000 rubles. Of the items of increased expenditure, the payment of interest for the state debts, after reckoning the reduction effected by the redemption of the former loans, required 15,000,000 more than in the previous year, while the war and naval budgets were increased by 11,000,000 rubles, and the estimates of the Ministry of the Interior by 2,000,000, the last addition being attributable to the reinforcement of the police. On the other side, the increase of revenue was produced chiefly by receipts on account of excise, customs, forests, and repayments by railway companies. It was computed that the additional revenue from this source would amount to about 30,000,000 rubles, and a further increase of 7,000,000 rubles was expected to accrue in small amounts from miscellaneous items.

The foreign commerce of Russia in 1877 and 1878 was as follows (value in rubles):

	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1877.	1878.	1877.	1878.
Baltic ports.....	138,815,000	235,738,000	249,821,000	186,329,000
Overland.....	136,007,000	270,924,000	211,221,000	179,048,000
Southern ports.....	15,927,000	50,280,000	35,135,000	221,106,000
White Sea ports.....	712,000	778,000	12,105,000	10,061,000
Total commerce with Europe.....	291,461,000	557,715,000	508,282,000	596,544,000
" " Finland.....	9,030,000	9,768,000	12,752,000	12,331,000
" " Asia.....	20,446,000	28,105,000	6,902,000	9,290,000
Total.....	321,037,000	595,583,000	527,936,000	618,165,000

The movement of shipping was in 1878 as follows:

PORTS.	Entered.	Cleared.
Baltic Sea.....	8,133	8,145
Southern.....	5,994	6,918
White Sea.....	781	813
Caspian Sea.....	597	421
Total.....	15,505	16,297
Of these were steamers.....	5,704	5,656

The commercial fleet in 1878 consisted of 3,643 sailing-vessels, with 308,230 tons, and 259 steamers, of 74,324 tons.

The strength of the Russian army in 1880 was as follows:

	PEACE FOOTING.		WAR FOOTING.	
	Men.	Horses.	Men.	Horses.
I. REGULAR ARMY:				
Infantry.....	623,981	10,985	1,800,710	31,540
Cavalry.....	85,860	61,727	94,466	93,440
Artillery.....	108,610	21,252	210,772	118,330
Engineers.....	20,624	661	43,352	14,020
Total.....	839,075	94,625	2,149,800	257,300
II. IRREGULAR ARMY:				
Infantry.....	6,500		8,510	
Cavalry.....	34,196	32,754	142,400	128,810
Artillery.....	2,912	1,989	12,650	11,440
Total.....	43,608	34,743	163,560	140,250

The Russian fleet was in 1880 composed as follows:

	No.	Guns.	Tons.	Horse-power.
1. Baltic fleet:				
Ironclads.....	24	273	200,000	30,000
War-steamers.....	145	860		
Transport-steamers.....	85	...		
2. In the Black Sea:				
Ironclads.....	4	18	30,000	10,515
War-steamers.....	25	92		
Transports.....	58	...		
3. In the Caspian Sea:				
War-steamers.....	13	37	8,686	858
Non-armed steamers.....	4	..		
4. Aral Sea flotilla steamers.....	6	18	1,180	217
5. Siberian flotilla war-steamers.....	10	43	9,000	1,725
Non-armed steamers.....	15	...		
Total.....	389	886	248,866	42,810

On January 1, 1880, there were 22,434 kilometres of railroad in operation, exclusive of Finland. The number of post-offices in 1879 was 4,374; of letters sent, 102,461,031; of wrappers, 8,303,025; of registered letters, 5,789,493; of money letters, 8,782,662; of packages, 2,519,535; of newspapers and periodicals, 78,620,531. The aggregate length of telegraph-lines was, in 1878, 99,917 kilometres, of which 75,081 were state lines. The

number of offices was 2,534; the number of dispatches, 5,761,731. The receipts of the telegraph-office (in 1878, 28,113,702 francs) showed in recent years a small annual surplus, which is, by imperial decree, always devoted to the extension of the telegraphic system.

There were indications that the principles of the Nihilists were spreading in the army; four officers in one regiment were arrested during the first week in January on a charge of disseminating revolutionary publications, copies of some of which were found at their lodgings. Two officers who had assisted eight political prisoners to escape were arrested, and special courts-martial were established in two districts where Nihilism was discovered in the regiments. A depository of revolutionary publications, with galvanic batteries, was discovered in Moscow on the 6th, and led to the revelation of a plot to blow up the Czar on his next journey to that city. A petty officer and seaman, having their sea-chests filled with revolutionary books and pamphlets, were arrested at Nicolaieff. Anxiety was increased by the disaffection of a number of superior officers, some of them high in command, and it appeared that a considerable proportion of those who had failed to obtain promotion and honors after the late war had espoused the revolutionary cause. A proclamation to Russian society was published by students of the high-schools, complaining of the oppressive measures which the Government had taken against them, and of the system of education which was imposed upon them. It charged the Government with giving the preference to the classical system as one which tended to keep the public in ignorance, dwarf their reasoning power, and incapacitate them for active life; demanded educational liberty and the right to enter the universities; and declared that, although society would do nothing for its authors, they would fight the great Moloch, called the Russian Government, to the end, even though the best of them might perish in the struggle. Another secret press was discovered at St. Petersburg, with type set for the third number of the new revolutionary paper, "*Narodnaja Wolia*," which was said to contain, among other things, a programme of the Executive Committee, proposing to overthrow the Government and transfer the reins of power to an assembly of organization. The press, and copies of another revolutionary journal, called "*Tschornog Peredol*" (the Black Distribution of Land), was discovered a few days afterward.

On the 17th of February, at seven o'clock in the evening, just as the imperial family were about to dine, a mine was exploded in the basement of the Winter Palace, immediately under the imperial guard-room, which was situated beneath the dining-room. The guard-room was blown up, ten soldiers were killed, and forty-five wounded. Fortunately, none of the imperial party had yet entered the dining-

room, although the Czar and Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, who had been conversing in the Czar's study, were about to enter it through one door, and the imperial Princesses were about going in through another door. The Empress was asleep in a remote part of the palace, and was not disturbed by the shock of the explosion. An examination of the premises showed that the mine was filled partly with dynamite and partly with gun-cotton, and that the train was laid to a cellar in an inner court, where a battery, by which it was fired, was concealed among a store of fuel. Though the cellars were used by workmen, none of the regular workmen employed about the palace appeared to be implicated in the offense. The Czar was very much affected by the occurrence, so that, at one time, he almost, it is said, lost his self-command. When Lord Dufferin, the British ambassador, called to congratulate him on his escape, he remarked that he was indebted to Divine Providence, and that God, having mercifully delivered him twice, recently, from very imminent peril, he was content to trust his life for the future to his protecting hand. Congratulations on his escape were sent to the Czar by the heads of all the principal states. To a dispatch from President Grévy, of France, his Majesty replied: "I cordially thank you for the sentiments you express. The spirit of evil is unwearied, like Divine grace. I am glad to reckon on the sympathies of right-thinking men." On the Sunday after the attempt, the Czar visited the Paulowski military school, where he received an ovation from the students, whose cheering was taken up by the crowds assembled on the quay.

On the 24th of February a ukase was issued, in which the Czar, having declared his firm determination to put down the attempts to disturb order in Russia, appointed a Supreme Executive Commission to sit in the capital, of which General Count Loris-Melikoff was named as president, and the members of which were to be selected by him. The head of the Commission, whose duty it was made to watch over the safety of the Russian Empire, was invested with the rights of commander-in-chief in St. Petersburg and the adjacent district, and further, with the direct control over all political trials held in the capital, the military district of St. Petersburg, and throughout the empire. All the local authorities, governors, governors-general, and town commanders, were placed under the jurisdiction of the chief of the Executive Commission, and all persons employed in the various departments were commanded to afford him their entire coöperation. The head of the Commission was given authority to adopt any measure which might appear to him desirable for the protection of order, and his orders were to be unconditionally obeyed. The office of the Provisional Governor-General of St. Petersburg, held hitherto by General Gourko, was abolished. The first

act of the newly-appointed Supreme Executive was to issue the following proclamation to the inhabitants of St. Petersburg:

A series of attempts of unparalleled atrocity, aimed at the subversion of public order and at the sacred person of his Majesty the Emperor, just at the time when all classes are preparing to celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the reign, so beneficial at home and so glorious abroad, of the most magnanimous of monarchs, has evoked not only the deep resentment of the Russian nation, but the horror and indignation of all Europe. The Government has already repeatedly appealed to society to combine in a struggle against criminal tendencies destructive to the foundations of civil order, upon which the development of every well-ordered state depends. At the present time the Government is forced to resort to more energetic measures to repress an evil assuming dimensions perilous to public security. According to the supreme will of the Emperor, the difficult task has fallen on me to assume the conduct of the measures rendered unavoidable by the present situation. Confiding in the Most High, and with a firm belief in the steadfastness of the Russian system of government, which has already passed through manifold and serious crises; fully convinced, moreover, from my long service to the Emperor and the country, of the healthy feeling and moral strength of the Russian nation, I humbly accept this new sign of the sovereign's confidence in my feeble powers, I fully recognize the difficulty of the task before me, and I do not conceal from myself the responsibility with which I am laden. Without entertaining exaggerated and premature expectations, I can only promise one thing—that I will employ every effort and the fruits of my lengthened experience, on the one hand, not to permit the slightest forbearance or to shrink from the most exemplary punishments in respect of actions which are an insult to Russian society; and, on the other, to protect in a peaceful condition the lawful interests of the well-disposed portion of the community. I am assured that I shall meet with the support of all right-minded people, who are devoted to the Emperor, and are sincerely attached to their country, now suffering such unmerited trials. To society I look as the mainstay of the authorities in the renewal of a regular and orderly course of national life, through the interruption of which its own interests suffer in the highest degree. In this trust I appeal, in the first place, to the residents of the capital as immediate witnesses of the late unprecedented deeds, with the urgent request to await the future with dignity and serenity, and not to be led astray by either malicious or frivolous whisperings, speeches, or rumors. In the discreet and firm attitude of the population, in face of the present oppressive situation, I view a security for our success in attaining an end alike wished for by all—the restoration of order and the return of the Fatherland to those paths of peace and prosperity which the benevolent intentions of its leader so clearly pointed out.

The twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of the Czar Alexander II to the throne was celebrated March 2d. The day was observed as a general holiday in St. Petersburg. First in order of the ceremonies of the day, the Czar received the congratulations of the various members of his family. He then, amid the playing of bands and the firing of salutes, appeared on the balcony of the Winter Palace, and for twenty minutes saluted the multitude assembled there in acknowledgment of their acclamations. A reception was afterward given to the imperial suite and the dignitaries of the empire, and was followed by a thanksgiving service in the palace, while the whole diplo-

matic body awaited the return of his Majesty to the throne-room. The levee which was given here was attended by nearly four thousand persons. In the afternoon a cantata, composed by Prince Peter of Oldenburg, the national anthem, and the hymn, "Long Life to the Czar," were sung in the white drawing-room by six hundred school-children. The Emperor drove through the city during the day, and was loudly cheered. In connection with the celebration, a number of decrees were published, remitting arrears of taxes and fines due to the state from various classes of people. The festivities were not marred by any disturbance or inappropriate event, but on the next day General Loris-Melikoff was shot at as he was alighting from his carriage before his official residence in the Grand Morskaya. The assassin was so close that General Melikoff was able to strike him in the face with his fist, and was at once secured. He proved to be a baptized Jew, named Wladetsky Minsk. He was tried and sentenced to death on the 4th of March, and was executed on the 5th. He maintained a defiant demeanor throughout the trial, and refused to stand up or make any defense, or take any part in the proceedings. He said that he was a Jew who had turned Christian because it was impossible otherwise to live. After judgment had been pronounced upon him, he addressed the Court, saying that he had been arrested in the previous year in St. Petersburg, and departed to his native district. On hearing from his companions that they were preparing a revolution for the 2d of March, he had returned to the capital. Orders were, however, given that nothing should be done on that day. He then determined to kill General Melikoff, as the cause of the postponement of the movement by which he had been prevented from obtaining money. He said, also, that General Melikoff would be killed by some of his comrades. Although his own attempt had failed, a second would be made, and, if that miscarried, a third man would be found to execute the deed. The Revolutionary Committee issued a proclamation declaring that the attempt of Wladetsky on General Melikoff was his own act, and was not undertaken at their instance.

The appeal of Count Melikoff was well responded to by the citizens of St. Petersburg, who gave him many assurances of support. He invited the town council to elect four members to participate in the labors of the Supreme Commission for the maintenance of public safety in the city; divided the city into nine districts, each of which was placed under the superintendence of one civil and two military officers; and, not satisfied with merely repressive measures, entered upon a policy looking to the removal of the sources of existing evils. General Drenteln having resigned the office of Chief of the Third Section, or the Secret Police, he undertook the management of that department with the intention of purging it from

its obnoxious features. The first sitting of the Supreme Executive Commission was held March 16th.

A ukase was issued in the latter part of August, appointing General Loris-Melikoff Minister of the Interior, abolishing the Supreme Commission and the Third Section of the Privy Chancellery, and creating the post of Minister of Posts and Telegraphs, to which Mr. Makoff, hitherto Minister of the Interior, was appointed. The decree was received with great satisfaction, it was said, "as a public announcement of the close of the era of domestic troubles and extraordinary measures." General Loris-Melikoff, on the 25th of August, held a reception of the officers of the Ministry of the Interior, and made an address soliciting their coöperation and assistance. At the request of General Melikoff, and the Minister of Justice, the Czar gave his assent to a measure for a revision of all branches of administration in the provinces, one of the features of which was a provision securing to subordinate officers the right to appeal to a higher authority against their dismissal by their superiors. The Czar, also, in a rescript announcing the investiture of General Melikoff with the insignia of the order of St. Andrew, expressed his warmest thanks for the energy which that officer had displayed in the discharge of his functions as President of the Supreme Executive Commission.

The editors of the chief Russian journals in St. Petersburg, who had become outspoken in their demands for liberal reforms, were called before General Loris-Melikoff during September, and told that their continued discussion of the subject of a constitution for Russia had highly displeased the Czar and his court, and that nothing more on that subject would be allowed to appear in print. The Minister, at this interview, described the programme of the policy of the Government to be: 1. The better guarantee of the public and corporate institutions in the enjoyment of their rights, and the extension of the latter as may seem necessary. 2. The bringing of the police department into harmony with the new state of affairs. 3. The enlargement of the competency of local institutions, with a view to decentralization. 4. A thorough inquiry into the necessities of the local population. 5. The according to the press of liberty to discuss the various measures and ordinances of Government, but with the condition that it should not agitate the public mind with illusory dreams.

The Mayor of St. Petersburg was authorized by General Melikoff, in October, to abolish the system which had been introduced by General Gourka, in 1879, under which all the householders of the city were required to station doorkeepers as watchmen outside their houses during both the day and the night, but was instructed that it would be necessary to increase the police force.

The representatives of the principal newspa-

pers of St. Petersburg, on invitation, met the committee appointed by the Government to inquire into the press regulations, November 17th. They suggested that charges against the press should be subject to the jurisdiction of the ordinary legal tribunals. General Melikoff discouraged impatience on the subject, but was believed to be in favor of emancipating newspapers from all arbitrary and oppressive restrictions.

An official project for the readjustment of taxation, which appeared in December, proposed that incomes derived from capital, trade, commerce, labor, land, and property, should be taxed according to an equal percentage; that all foreigners living in Russia should be taxed equally with Russians; that all Government securities should be taxed without distinction, but that foreigners permanently living abroad should not pay the tax upon incomes derivable from the paper securities upon which Russia bound itself, at the time of their issue, to pay interest abroad. Foreign bondholders, who might wish to avail themselves of this immunity, would, however, have to certify to the bankers that they were not Russian subjects.

Michael Dragomiroff, formerly professor at the University of Kiev, a member of the revolutionary organization, addressed a letter to General Loris-Melikoff, in April, stating the conditions on which the Revolutionists would "conclude an armistice" with the Government. They were: 1. The dismissal of all the governors appointed with arbitrary powers since the attempt of the 2d of April, 1879. 2. Abolition of all the measures ordered by them, and also of the exceptional decrees of 1873. 3. Abolition of the special tribunals established for the hearing of political trials. 4. An amnesty and restoration of rights to those persons who had been deprived of them in consequence of the arbitrary measures above referred to. 5. Abolition of the Third Section, with all its agents; guarantees against imprisonment without trial. 6. Grant of freedom to the press, the right of meeting, and the right of forming societies. Mr. Dragomiroff added that, if these conditions were not accepted, the contest would be pursued by the Revolutionary party with all the means at its command. New Wladetskis and Solovieffs would arise, and, "instead of the single Executive Committee of the year 1878-'79, there will be a whole confederation of political societies to carry on the struggle for the liberation of the people from tyranny." A few days afterward the "Bereg," the newly-established semi-official journal, published what it called the programme of the Revolutionary Executive Committee. It was as follows:

First, the Government being regarded as an enemy, the end justifies all means that may be employed for its overthrow. Secondly, all elements of opposition, though not actually allied with us, will have our assistance and protection. Thirdly, persons and social groups knowingly aiding the Government in our struggle with it, and exceeding the bounds of neutrality, will be treated as enemies.

The trial of eleven prisoners, seven men and four women, charged with being Nihilists, and with being concerned in Solovieff's attempt on the life of the Czar, and in the assassination of General Mesentzeff, was begun at St. Petersburg May 18th. Among the prisoners was Dr. Weimar, who held a high office at court, and who was charged with having lent his carriage to the murderer of General Mesentzeff, with having procured for Solovieff the revolver which he fired at the Emperor, and the poison which was found in his possession, and with having, three years before, assisted in the flight of Prince Krapotkine, who was charged with Nihilism. All the prisoners were found guilty. Two of them were sentenced to be hanged, the others to terms of imprisonment and labor—Dr. Weimar to fifteen years of labor in the mines. The sentences were afterward all commuted, the sentences of death to terms of labor in the mines, the other sentences to shorter terms.

Twenty-one persons were convicted at Kiev of forming an illegal society with the object of forcibly overthrowing the existing order of the state, and sentenced to death and imprisonment. Their sentences were also commuted in accordance with the new policy adopted by the Government of mitigating the severity of its administration. The Czar had previously, in April, granted a full pardon to three students of the University of Kharkov, who had been sentenced to exile in Siberia for carrying on a revolutionary propaganda, with the effect of producing a more favorable impression on the students of the university. A trial was begun before the military tribunal of St. Petersburg, under the presidency of Major-General Leicht, November 10th, of sixteen prisoners, among whom were the supposed authors of the explosions in the Winter Palace and under the railway at Moscow, and the man who was accused of having prepared the mine near the Alexandrovsky station on the Sebastopol Railroad. The presumed author of the explosion in the Winter Palace was a peasant from the government of Viatka, named Stephen Chaltasen, who was employed as a carpenter in the palace under an assumed name. The mine near the Alexandrovsky station was laid in 1879 for the purpose of blowing up the imperial train, but had only recently been discovered, on the occasion of the train passing the spot. It was divided into two partitions, each filled with dynamite, and connected by a wire with the roadway adjacent to the railway track. On the approach of the imperial train a carriage drawn by three horses came rapidly up on the roadway, but drove off after the train had passed. It is supposed the carriage contained an electric battery, and that the attempt proved unsuccessful on account of the wire having been accidentally cut. Another of the prisoners was charged, upon the confession of the actual murderer, with being concerned in the assassination of General Krapotkine, the Governor of Kharkov.

The prisoners were permitted to address the Court in their own defense. Several of them admitted that the charges against them were substantially true, but maintained that their acts were justified by the coercive measures of the Government. One of them asserted that it was no crime to belong to a secret society, inasmuch as there was no other country in the civilized world where meetings were not allowed. Another one told the judges that the struggle would not be finished with the death of the prisoners. Five of them were sentenced to death, the others to various terms of imprisonment and servitude. Three of the capital sentences were commuted, but two of the convicted persons were hanged November 16th.

A Russian named Hartmann was arrested in Paris in February on a supposition that he was the owner of the house in Moscow whence the mine was laid in 1879 to blow up the railway train carrying the Czar. Although no extradition treaty existed between the two countries, the Russian Government asked the French Government to surrender him. The French Government, after examining the case, declined to give up the prisoner, on the ground that the evidence of his identity and participation in the offense charged against him was not clear enough to justify it, and permitted him to go to England. The refusal caused a temporary coolness of feeling.

After negotiations extending over several months, a preliminary agreement has been concluded between Russia and the Vatican referring to the ecclesiastical organization of the Roman Catholic bishoprics in Russia. It deals with the position of the bishops, the regulation of several dioceses, the control of the bishops over ecclesiastical seminaries, and the instruction of the clergy. The Holy See was, in November, about to examine the question of providing for the vacant sees in Poland, in view of the recommendations of the Russian Government concerning the choice of the new prelates.

An imperial decree, published in May, relieved Count Tolstoi, at his own request, of the posts of Minister of Education and Supreme Procurator of the Holy Synod, and appointed him a member of the Council of the Empire. Privy Councillor Saburoff, Curator of the Dorpat Educational District, was made Minister of Education, and promoted to the rank of Secretary of State, and Privy Councillor and Senator Pobedonosszeff was appointed Supreme Procurator of the Holy Synod. The new Minister of Education, immediately after his appointment, gave notice that all religious instruction in the elementary schools would in the future be given by lay teachers. The first stone of the University of Tomsk, in Siberia, was laid September 7th.

Mr. Greig, Minister of Finance, resigned his office in November, and was succeeded by Mr. Abaza, who, on assuming office, stipulated for a more complete control of the spending power

of his department. Mr. Bunge, a professor in the University of St. Vladimir, was appointed Vice-Minister of Finance. He was regarded as the superior in intellectual position and attainments of any officer who had ever been placed in this post, and was well known in Europe as a scientific man and political economist. He had had much experience in financial management as Director of the Branch Bank of Russia, at Kiev, and had spent much of his life in aiding and fostering industries.

The Czar, accompanied by General Melikoff, went to Livalia in September for a few weeks' sojourn. The railway was carefully guarded along the whole line of his route by forty thousand men, selected for that duty from among the peasantry, the police, the soldiers, and the gendarmes. Watchmen were stationed along the line at distances of thirty paces from each other; bodies of infantry were posted at the more important points; every bridge was examined; the carriages of the train were carefully inspected; and the houses along the railway were jealously searched. The journey was made in safety. The Czarevitch and Czarevna joined the Czar in October, for the purpose, it was understood, of arranging for the future position of the Princess Dolgorouki whom the Czar was about to marrymorganatically, and her children. The Czar returned to St. Petersburg in December, General Melikoff having been sent for to escort him. The railways were guarded as before. Servant-trains were arranged to run on parallel lines, and the train which carried the Emperor was kept unknown. The Czar arrived at St. Petersburg December 8d. On the 8th the festival of St. George was celebrated at the Winter Palace by a dinner at which three thousand knights of the order were present. The first toast was proposed to the health of the German Emperor, by the Czar, who recapitulated the military services of the Emperor, and bore witness to his unfailing friendship for Russia and its sovereign. The health of the Czar was proposed by the Grand Duke Nicholas.

According to the Russian official journal, some very extensive operations in draining marshes have been executed within a few years. At the end of 1879 twenty million acres of the Polessié marshes had been reclaimed, with six hundred and thirty-two miles of canals, the more important of which were made by the state, the others by resident proprietors. Half a million of the reclaimed acres were already arable land, and were the means of adding fourteen million rubles to the national wealth. Great drainage-works had also been carried out in the governments of St. Petersburg, Olonetz, and Yaroslav, with very satisfactory results. Preparatory works have been set on foot on the shores of the Black and Caspian Seas, in the provinces of Kherson and Catherinoslav, for the drainage of the marshes in those regions. The surveys cover a surface of 12,500 acres, while it is intended

that the works shall ultimately spread over a surface of five million acres. It is also proposed to explore parts of the provinces of Voronezh, and Samara, with the object of irrigating the steppes of the Calmuck nomads. In this way it is hoped that the great barren belt which disfigures and impoverishes southern Russia may by degrees be brought under cultivation.

General Loris-Melikoff entered in April into negotiations with a number of eminent and influential Poles, among whom were Count Wielopolski, Count Zamoyski, Count Ostrowski, and Mr. Krasneviski, the author, with a view of endeavoring to conciliate the Polish nationality, and bring about an understanding with it. The Polish negotiators demanded, as the basis of any understanding, that their nation should be placed in political and constitutional relations absolutely on a par with the Russians, and that the political disabilities under which they now labored should be abolished. General Melikoff advised the Polish gentlemen to draw up a memorial explaining what reforms they demanded, counseled them concerning the nature of the demands which would be most prudent, and engaged to lay the memorial before the Minister of the Interior.

The fiftieth anniversary of the Polish revolution of 1830 was celebrated in various parts of Europe, November 29th, by banquets, at which patriotic speeches were delivered. The "Golos," in an article on these celebrations, said: "We may view the celebration with calmness, Russia being so strong that she can not be disquieted by any foreign manifestations. Polish society has made sufficient progress to understand the importance of its relations with Russia, especially on the eve of the approaching administrative reforms."

Forty-two thousand people had emigrated from the province of Kars from the time of the Russian occupation up to October 13, 1879. The emigrants were said to have received half a million rubles on account of expropriation, which were contributed in nearly equal shares by the Government for their land and by private buyers of houses and property in Kars. A correspondent of the "Cologne Gazette," writing from Moscow in January, observed that that part of Asia Minor—comprising Batoum, Kars, Olti, and Artwin—which had been acquired by Russia under the Treaty of Berlin, was a district very rich in natural productions, and capable of great development under an efficient administration. Its agricultural productiveness was not great, but it had an abundance of wood and metals, and its climate and soil were well suited for the cultivation of silk and tobacco. The natives appeared reconciled to the new state of things; they had ceased to emigrate into Turkish territory, and hoards of money which had hitherto been concealed had made their appearance in the towns. Batoum, thanks to its great advantages as a harbor,

was increasing in size, while Poti, notwithstanding its dockyard and railway, was gradually declining. In December, 1878, the customs receipts at Batoum amounted to 480 rubles; in October, 1879, they had increased to 7,000 rubles. The German consul at Batoum made a statement somewhat at variance with this in his report on the trade and industry of the Caucasus. During the past twelve months, he said, adverse economic conditions

had been experienced in Trans-Caucasia, and the province had derived no advantage from the possession of Batoum since it had come under Russian control. The inhabitants of the district were not consumers of European goods, and the land-traffic with the interior of Asia Minor by way of Batoum was rendered almost impossible by the want of roads. At present the port was absolutely useless, except for strategic purposes.

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SARGENT, EPES, author, was born at Gloucester, Massachusetts, in 1812, of a family well known in literary circles of New England. He entered Harvard College, but left before graduating. He was a persistent worker in the under walks of literature. In his early boyhood he conducted a paper called the "Literary Journal." He connected himself with Mr. S. G. Goodrich in the management of "The Token" and "Peter Parley's Magazine." Together they compiled the Peter Parley series of school-books, which have had so wide a circulation. In 1836 he produced his first play, "The Bride of Genoa," which was followed the next year by "Velasco," a tragedy written for Miss Ellen Tree, and played both in America and England. He edited the "New England Magazine," the "Boston Daily Advertiser," and the "Atlas," the "New Monthly Magazine," and the "Boston Transcript." He wrote a comedy, various juvenile tales, novels, lives of Henry Clay and Benjamin Franklin. He also published a volume of verses, among which "A Life on the Ocean Wave" is well known, and will probably live. He edited a number of the lesser English poets, and wrote their biographies, besides which he prepared for the press "The Modern Standard Drama," in seven volumes. He wrote much on spiritualism, in which he had a devout belief. He was a voluminous contributor to the periodical literature of the day, especially "The Knickerbocker" and the "Atlantic Monthly." But his most remunerative labors were in the preparation of readers, speakers, spellers, and other educational works. He died in Boston, in the sixty-ninth year of his age.

SOUTH CAROLINA. An extra session of the Legislature was called by the Governor for the purpose of voting appropriations, the Supply Bill passed at the preceding session having been adjudged invalid by the Supreme Court. In addition to the Supply Act, the Governor in his Message called the attention of the General Assembly to the need of a registration law and other matters. The session opened February 10th. Besides the Appropriation and Supply Bill, two bills amending the debt settlement were among the more important acts passed. In the act of 1878 to utilize convict labor, the section which provided that railroad

scrip might be taken in payment for the labor of the convicts was rescinded. A report of the Directors of the Penitentiary shows the number of convicts leased to be 306 out of a total number of 593, the hire being from \$3 to \$5 per month. The office of Railroad Commissioner was abolished.

The consolidation of the Augusta, Knoxville, and Greenwood Railroad Company, and the Augusta and Knoxville Railroad Company, of Georgia, was authorized, and the Blue Ridge Railroad was chartered.

On the 1st of September the Governor, W. D. Simpson, resigned his office to take the Chief Justiceship, and Lieutenant-Governor T. B. Jeter was installed as Chief Magistrate of the State. At the opening of the regular session of the Legislature in November there was a discussion upon the right and propriety of Governor Jeter's receiving a seat in the Senate to which he had been elected and acting as *pro tempore* President of the Senate while discharging the functions of Governor. The new Governor, Hagood, was inaugurated on November 30th. He called attention in his inaugural address to the fact that the accounts of the State had been cleared from all confusion or uncertainty, and a true and accurate account of the actual state of the treasury laid before the people. The Assembly passed a resolution to submit the question of calling a Constitutional Convention to the people at the next general election.

The condition of the State debt at the close of 1880 was as follows:

Consols.....	\$5,210,793 82
Deficiencies.....	564,855 98
State scrip (Agricultural College).....	191,800 00
To be funded, principal and interest, ante-bellum.....	196,570 91
To be funded, principal and interest, post-bellum.....	896,316 00
To be funded for fundable interest.....	146,659 07
To be funded for bills, bank of the State.....	22,145 00
Total bonded debt.....	\$6,639,170 78

In this statement the estimate of invalidity in part of the debt and of the amount of the bills of the Bank of the State to be funded is an approximation.

INTEREST ON THE DEBT.

The appropriation to meet the interest on the debt for the year 1879-'80 was \$515,508, of which there was paid up to October 31st,

\$348,245.75, leaving a balance unpaid of \$167,262.25. Of this unpaid balance there is due for interest on bonds already funded \$115,650.91, and to meet interest on bonds not yet funded \$51,611.34.

The amount of interest to be provided for 1881 is estimated at \$398,350, being the amount estimated on the basis of a bonded debt of \$6,639,170.

The following is a statement of the receipts of the State Treasury from November 1, 1879, to October 31, 1880:

Forfeited lands.....	\$21,370 83
Taxes previous to 1879.....	161,734 43
Taxes of 1879.....	249,356 40
Railroad assessments.....	248 52
Phosphate royalty.....	65,001 95
Agricultural Bureau.....	9,243 57
Secretary of State's fees.....	2,127 80
Trustees State Orphan Asylum.....	199 65

Net receipts.....	\$509,282 70
Amount in Treasury, November 1, 1879..	243,488 04

Aggregate.....	\$752,770 74
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The expenditures for the same period were as follows:

On old accounts.....	\$26,778 29
Governor, Comptroller, Secretary of State, and Treasurer.....	25,381 50
Adjutant-General's department.....	4,908 28
Educational department.....	5,484 88
Health department.....	5,100 00
Tax department.....	19,338 10
Legislative department.....	65,612 07
Judiciary department.....	58,065 85
Penal and charitable institutions.....	34,458 27
Lunatic Asylum.....	82,000 00
Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute.....	8,800 00
Catawba Indians.....	800 00
Adjustment of debt.....	6,274 95
Salaries of State-House keeper and watchmen..	1,300 00
Publishing Treasurer's statements.....	1,000 00
Civil contingent fund.....	1,697 45
Repairs to Executive Mansion, etc.....	1,115 14
State-House and grounds.....	225 32
Illred convict-labor returned to the Penitentiary	3,354 01
Claims passed by the Legislature.....	3,405 51
Sundry expenses.....	1,771 50
Interest of public debt.....	345,245 75

Aggregate expenditures.....	\$704,511 88
Aggregate receipts.....	752,770 74

Balance in the Treasury November 1, 1880	\$48,258 86
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The uncollected balance of the year's tax levy for general purposes was \$320,644. This amount, with the unreserved balance in the Treasury of \$27,761.44, would make \$348,405.44 available for unpaid balances of 1878-'79, amounting in the aggregate to \$231,229.51, leaving a balance in the Treasury of \$117,175.93. Deducting about \$7,000 of appropriations against this balance, surplus to be carried to the fiscal year 1880-'81 is, in round numbers, \$110,000.

The value of all the real and personal property in the State is as follows:

Real property returned.....	\$59,978,998
Counties not yet reported, estimated.....	17,680,668
Total value of real estate.....	\$77,609,666
Personal property returned.....	35,892,790
Counties not yet reported.....	6,892,973
Total personal property.....	\$42,785,763
Railroad property.....	13,767,400
Total assessment.....	\$134,162,824

The estimates of the amount to be provided for the fiscal year 1880-'81 are as follows:

For ordinary current expenses.....	\$270,941 53
For interest on the public debt.....	398,350 00

Total.....	\$669,291 53
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Against this there is to be set off the phosphate royalty, based on the returns of the last year.....	\$65,000
Probable surplus from taxes of 1879.....	110,000
	\$175,000 00

Leaving to be provided.....	\$494,291 53
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Which amount can be raised by a tax levy of $4\frac{1}{4}$ mills, as against $4\frac{1}{4}$ mills in 1879.

The State Railroad Board of Equalization was governed in their action in raising the valuation of the railroads by the sale of the Greenville Railroad, which road brought at auction more than twice what it had been previously assessed at by the board, which was compelled by the law, therefore, to raise the assessment 100 per cent., and the valuation of the other roads was increased in the same proportion.

The enforcement of the collection of the poll-tax was stopped by the decision of one of the Circuit Judges to the effect that the penalty enacted was unconstitutional. For 1878-'79 the collections were \$111,415.57; for the previous year they were \$13,818.15 less.

The Comptroller states that the lands forfeited to the State for non-payment of taxes have been repeatedly offered at public sale and not sold for want of bidders, and suggests that the words "at public sale" be stricken from the act of 1879.

The insurance statistics show that fifteen new fire and three new life companies have entered the State, and seven fire and three life companies discontinued business here during the year. There are now licensed seventy fire companies with a paid-up capital of \$46,000,000, and nine life companies with a paid-up capital of \$800,000, not including mutual companies.

The royalty paid into the State from September 1, 1879, to September 1, 1880, was \$65,313.98, as against \$97,002.77 for the preceding year, a falling off of \$31,688.79, or about 33 per cent.

Reports show the amount of the school fund, the school attendance, and the number of schools and teachers, to be greater than at any previous time. The number of educational institutions in the State was as follows: Colleges, male and female, 12; professional schools, 2; industrial training-schools, 3; private academies or high-schools, 81; public academies or high-schools, 49; elementary evening-schools, 3; private elementary schools, 208; public schools, 2,793.

At the last session of the General Assembly the agricultural fund, which had been lost, was restored, and vested in the trustees of the South Carolina University, who are authorized to open the agricultural and mechanical school in connection with the university. The fund is deemed sufficient to establish a technical school of the best class. The Institute for the

Deaf, Dumb, and Blind admitted during the year fifty-six pupils.

The Penitentiary reports show a decrease of thirty-five. The death rate was less than two per cent. Important improvements have been made in the buildings and walls. The Penitentiary farms have been successful, the estimated clear profits being between \$9,000 and \$10,000.

In the Department of Agriculture the offices of Phosphate Inspector and Phosphate Agent have been abolished, and the duties transferred to a special assistant of the Agricultural Bureau. The amount of phosphate rock mined and shipped, upon which the State receives a royalty of \$1 per ton, was 53,054 tons. According to the report of the Fish Commission, 30,000 California salmon, 15,000 landlocked salmon, 2,230,000 shad, and 3,500 California trout have been distributed in the waters of the State.

The passage of the stock law has resulted in bringing under cultivation thousands of acres which were almost valueless for want of timber for fencing them. The report of the Land Commission estimates the lands unsold at 56,371 acres; total value, \$158,076.04; balance of purchase-money due, \$47,493.87.

The report of the Superintendent of the Lunatic Asylum shows that at the beginning of the year there were 375 patients—181 males and 184 females. Of these 252 were white, and 123 colored patients. During the year 166 were admitted, making the whole number treated 541; of this number 31 recovered, 3 escaped, 55 died, and 31 were released, leaving 420 patients in the asylum—268 white and 152 colored. Of this number 29 were paying patients. The expenses have been less than the appropriation, leaving a balance of \$7,691, which has been transferred to the building fund. The receipts for the year were \$94,355.08, and the disbursements \$86,753.90. A farm of about fifty acres has been purchased. A lodge has been erected for the colored women, with wards to accommodate forty patients. It is already full, and an extension has been put under contract. The gross earnings of all the railroads in the State in 1879 were \$1,008,802.87; the expenses were \$3,098,346.79; net earnings, \$910,456.08; the gross earnings in 1880 amounted to \$4,943,074.39; expenses, \$3,585,766.61; net earnings, \$1,357,307.78; increase of gross earnings, \$934,271.52; increase of expenses, \$488,419.82; increase in net earnings, \$446,851.70, or nearly 50 per cent.

The mineral wealth of the State is not yet appreciated. Gold, iron, lead, manganese, bismuth, plumbago, soapstone, coal, black-lead, and asbestos are to be found in abundance, and granite of the finest grain, as well as burr-stone and materials for pottery and porcelain.

The total production of the phosphate rock since its discovery in 1866 amounts to 1,500,000 tons, worth \$9,000,000. The accessible de-

posits cover 10,000 acres, estimated to contain 8,000,000 tons of rock, worth at present prices \$30,000,000. The factories for the manufacture of this fertilizer have a capital of between \$600,000 and \$800,000.

The port of Charleston during the year was visited by 1,090 vessels—249 foreign and 841 domestic. In the fleet were 31 foreign steamships which came for cotton cargoes. The total tonnage was 600,059—127,095 foreign, and 472,964 domestic, not including vessels of under 100 tons burden.

At no time since the war has South Carolina been so prosperous. Lands have slowly but steadily improved in value. The people are generally out of debt, and have learned to work successfully under the new system. There are seventeen cotton-factories in operation, with 95,938 spindles and 1,933 looms, producing 101,338 yards of cloth and 17,438 pounds of yarn, and consuming 54,394 pounds of cotton each working day. They employ 2,612 operatives, who support 8,143 persons. The capital employed amounted to \$2,293,600, on which the profits are from 18 to 50 per cent. per annum. The water-power unutilized in the middle and upper counties of the State is enough to turn the spindles of all the cotton-mills in the United States.

The sea-islands of South Carolina, which were apparently ruined through the war, are so improved by the new system of subsoil drainage and heavy manuring that their land ranges in value from \$40 to \$200 an acre. A net profit of \$100 an acre on an expenditure of \$80 for fertilizers, labor, and ginning was realized by a planter on James Island, near Charleston. The State possesses an almost inexhaustible supply of pine, hickory, walnut, maple, cedar, poplar, and other timber. Cotton is grown in every part of the State. The cultivation of South Carolina rice, which is preferred in the markets to any other sort, is exceedingly profitable. Grain can be produced in abundance, and every variety is cultivated, though the yield is usually small, owing to imperfect tillage. Tobacco, sorghum, hemp, flax, indigo, and hops have become common crops. Good wine is made in some of the counties. The culture of fruits and vegetables for market is extending rapidly. Governor Hagood, in his inaugural address, dwelt upon the improved condition of agriculture in the State, attributable to the improved methods of culture and to the hopeful energy and increased thrift of all classes of the people. One field of 350 acres had yielded for two years 350 bales of cotton. Over a large area of the same county the crops upon the uplands were as luxuriant as upon the finest alluvial soil, and these uplands were of the character usual throughout the middle belt of the State, which in their unimproved condition would require three or more acres to produce a bale. Much more attention is paid to live-stock by the farmers, and the results in small grains are four or five times as great as were for-

merly obtained; four and a half tons per acre of Bermuda-grass hay have been grown on light, sandy lands, specially fertilized, near Charleston; while in other parts of the State, on alluvial lands not fertilized, a meadow had yielded for three years an average of two and a half tons to the acre of the same valuable hay, which is sold in the adjacent markets at from \$20 to \$25 a ton.

The returns of the census give the total number of acres cultivated in cotton, corn, and small grains, as 3,090,972, which is 80,442 more than all the "improved land" in the State in 1870. The product of cotton is 516,490 bales, against 224,500 in 1870, a gain of about 130 per cent. In corn the increase is from 7,614,207 bushels in 1870 to 11,763,729 bushels in 1880, or more than 50 per cent. In oats the tables show 2,715,443 bushels, against 613,593 bushels in 1870. In wheat the increase is from 783,610 bushels in 1870 to 962,431 bushels in 1880, or nearly 20 per cent.

The United States Agricultural Report, for 1879, shows that the average yield of cotton per acre for all the cotton States in that year was 188 pounds. The smallest yield in any county in South Carolina for 1880 is in Beaufort, where it is reported at 362, and that was long-staple cotton. The average yield of corn per acre is reported as only nine bushels, against an average yield in the United States in 1879 of twenty-nine bushels. The average yield of wheat is given at 5.6 bushels, the crop of the whole country in 1879 having averaged 13.8 bushels. The average yield of oats is given at 13 bushels as against 28.7 bushels average per acre in the United States in 1879.

The greatest aggregate yield of cotton, 34,907 bales, is in Edgefield County; of corn, in York, 626,305 bushels; of oats, in Edgefield, 415,243 bushels; and of wheat, 107,608 bushels in Abbeville County. The greatest yield of cotton per acre is in Marlboro', where it is 857 pounds; of corn the largest yield is 13.3 bushels in Kershaw County; of oats, 18.2 bushels in Georgetown County; and of wheat, 12 bushels in Charleston County, the result of experimental farming.

The returns of the census, showing an increase in population of about 43 per cent. since 1870, were much questioned upon their first publication, in the latter part of the summer, and suspicions that the count had been falsified for political purposes were freely expressed. Superintendent Walker, while confident that the work had been honestly performed, ordered a new enumeration in certain districts showing the largest gains, in order to satisfy the public mind. The investigation substantially corroborated the first returns. The recount was taken in eighteen districts in all, and the returns were subjected to examination by United States officials and by citizens, the latter being persons of acknowledged reputation and standing, and in nearly every case members of the

Republican party. The investigation revealed no evidence of fraud, but left no doubt of the defective character of the ninth census in this State.

The Republican Convention met at Columbia, April 27th. Of the delegates attending, forty were white and eighty colored. The Convention instructed its delegates to the National Convention to support Grant for President.

The Democratic Convention assembled at Columbia, June 1st, to choose delegates to the National Convention, Presidential electors, and State officers. The following platform was adopted:

The Democratic party of the State of South Carolina, in convention assembled, reiterates its adhesion to the doctrines of the great National Democratic party of the United States, and renews the declaration of the principles laid down in its platforms of 1876 and 1878. It has redeemed its pledges to reform the abuses of the State government, to reduce expenditures, and to use the people's money for the benefit of the people only.

It confidently appeals to the general sense of the country upon its records, and challenges the comparison of the present happy and prosperous condition of the State with the bitterness, venality, and suspicion, which under Republican misrule distracted our people and sapped the foundations of their prosperity.

It calls upon all good citizens who favor an honest, economical, and liberal administration to rally to the standard of the Democracy and to lead it to victory.

The State ticket was nominated as follows: For Governor, General Johnson Hagood; Lieutenant-Governor, John D. Kenedy; Secretary of State, R. M. Sims; Comptroller-General, J. C. Coit; Attorney-General, Leroy F. Youmans; Superintendent of Education, Hugh S. Thompson; Adjutant and Inspector-General, A. M. Manigault; and State Treasurer, J. P. Richardson.

In the State election Hagood received 117,432 votes, and Blair, the Republican candidate, 4,277. The other Democratic candidates were elected also by large majorities. In the new Legislature, out of 34 Senators and 124 Representatives, the Democrats had a majority on joint ballot of 152.

SPAIN, a kingdom of Southern Europe. King, Alfonso XII, born November 28, 1857; proclaimed king December 30, 1874. He was married on January 23, 1878, to Maria de las Mercedes, who died June 26, 1878; and next to Maria Christina, daughter of the Archduke Charles Ferdinand of Austria, born July 21, 1858. Daughter, Maria de las Mercedes, Princess of Asturias, born September 12, 1880.

The area of Spain, inclusive of the Balearic Islands and Canaries, is 508,066.9 square kilometres; the population, according to the census of 1877, was 16,623,384. There were also 2,476 inhabitants of the Spanish possessions in Northern Africa, making a total of 16,625,860.

The area and population of the foreign colonies are as follows:

COLONIES.	Area in sq. kilometres.	Population.
1. AMERICA :		
Cuba	118,883	1,894,516
Porto Rico	9,315	661,494
Total	128,148	2,056,010
2. ASIA AND OCEANICA :		
Philippines	300,000	6,300,000
Carolines	700	14,800
Palaos	750	14,000
Ladrones or Marianas	1,140	8,200
Total	302,590	6,337,000
3. AFRICA :		
Guinea Islands	2,208	85,000
Total colonies	432,941	8,428,010

The following cities of Spain and the Spanish colonies have more than 100,000 inhabitants:

Madrid	397,690
Barcelona	249,106
Havana (Cuba)	230,000
Manila (Philippines)	160,000
Valencia	143,856
Seville	133,938
Malaga	113,832

The revenue was estimated in the budget of 1879-'80 at 812,363,790 pesetas (1 peseta=19.3 cents), and the expenditures at 828,237,108 pesetas. The public debt on June 30, 1879, amounted to 12,916,046,162 pesetas.

According to the law of May 14, 1879, the army in Spain is to consist, in time of peace, of 90,000 men, of whom 59,993 will belong to the infantry, 12,783 to the cavalry, 9,955 to the artillery, and 4,168 to the corps of engineers. In time of war the army is to comprise 450,000 men. The same law fixes the strength of the army in Cuba at 38,000 men, in the Philippines at 10,500 men, and in Porto Rico at 3,346 men.

The fleet in 1879 consisted of 121 steamers, of 21,576 horse-power, with 525 guns.

The imports in 1878 amounted to 397,800,000, and the exports to 431,300,000 pesetas.

The political situation at the opening of the year was regarded as critical. General Martinez Campos was seeking, by interviews with Señor Sagasta and others, to strengthen the Constitutional party through fresh alliances. The senators and deputies from Navarre had demanded the reestablishment of the constitutional guarantee in that province, but the Government had refused to accede to their request. The opposition deputies had absented themselves from the Chamber since December 10th, having taken offense at the course of the Prime Minister during the sittings of that day, and would not return until Señor Canovas del Castillo had made apologies to them.

The Cortes assembled after the Christmas holidays, on January 11th. The members of both Houses on the next day resolved, after a long debate, to resume their seats in the Cortes. Count Toreno, who resigned the office of Minister of Foreign Affairs, was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies, January 21st, in

place of Señor Lopez de Ayala, who had died on the 30th of December previous. Señor Canovas del Castillo took the portfolio of Foreign Affairs as a temporary measure. The discussion of the bill for the gradual abolition of slavery in Cuba was begun in the Chamber of Deputies January 14th. The bill was passed by the Chamber, January 21st, by a vote of 230 to 10, the members of the minority and the friends of General Martinez Campos abstaining from voting; was passed by the Senate, after it had received some modifications at the hands of a mixed committee of the two Houses, January 30th, by a vote of 156 to 28, and was promulgated as a law in the "Official Gazette," February 18th. A motion made in the Senate for the establishment of two schools for apprentices to the profession of *toreadors* was opposed by the Minister of Public Instruction, who said that he hoped that, in a short time, the manners of the people would be so changed as to permit the suppression of the barbarous spectacle of bull-fighting. The motion was then withdrawn.

At the sitting of the Senate, March 9th, Marshal Martinez Campos declared himself to be the adversary of Señor Canovas del Castillo, adding that he was anxious to promote the unity of the Liberal party. The Premier replied that he himself was no adversary of Marshal Martinez Campos, since they had both great interests to defend in common.

Stormy debates, extending over several days, took place in the Chambers in June, on a motion for a vote of confidence in the Government. In the Senate, Marshal Martinez Campos denounced the conduct of the Ministry vehemently. Señor Canovas del Castillo replied, maintaining the correctness of the course followed by his Cabinet, and protesting against what he described as the threatening language of Marshal Campos. The vote was taken on the 12th, by a division of 170 to 22, after further speeches by Marshal Campos and the Premier. A vigorous discussion took place on the same motion in the Chamber, ending in the adoption of the resolution by a vote of 246 to 13. The opposition abstained from voting in both Houses. The Cortes was prorogued June 23d. The provincial elections resulted in large majorities for the ministerial candidates all over the kingdom. The dynastic Liberals, however, abstained from voting, except at about fifty polls. The Cortes was opened December 30th by King Alfonso, who said in the speech from the throne that, actuated by no ambition abroad, and fettered by no fears at home, Spanish diplomacy was endeavoring to extend the commercial relations of the country with America and Europe, and would neglect no effort to obtain from foreign nations equal advantages with those which Spain granted to them by treaties of commerce. His Majesty also stated that it was necessary to increase the naval forces and strengthen the national defenses.

The Premier made a speech before a private meeting of his supporters, in which he declared that, having consolidated the monarchy and pacified the country and its principal colony, the Government would continue the same policy it had pursued, and would in the forthcoming session give special attention to finance and the promotion of the material interests of the nation.

A democratic manifesto was published in Madrid, April 6th, signed by 279 former deputies and senators, and 21 journalists. It demanded religious liberty, liberty of the press and of public meeting, association and education, universal suffrage, decentralization, obligatory military service for all, economy in the public service, respect for the rights of individuals, improved control over the finances, assimilation of Cuba to the mother-country, and the irremovability of the judges.

An arrangement was made known during May which had been effected between Señors Sagasta de Posada Herrera and Alonzo Martinez, as the respective leaders of every shade of dynastic Liberalism in the country, with Marshal Martinez Campos, for the coalescence of all their factions into one party against the Conservative Administration that had now been in office for six years. This movement, which was regarded as one of great importance to the realm, since it would give it two parties supporting the monarchy, was embraced in a few days by 131 Monarchist senators and deputies, 3 marshals, and 115 generals. A meeting of the leaders of the party was held at San Sebastian, in August, when very strong language was used against the Conservative Cabinet of Señor Canovas del Castillo. On the 7th of November, Marshal Martinez Campos had an interview with Marshal Serrano, in the course of which it was shown that both statesmen shared the opinions of dynastic Liberalism and of Señor Sagasta. Marshal Serrano, however, expressed himself determined not to issue from the voluntary retirement which he had maintained for six years.

Señor Castelar, speaking at Alcira, October 8th, said that his principal wish was to see order maintained in the army and in the Church, the tenure of property guaranteed, and the principle of administrative decentralization carried out, and that he would support any Government which could maintain order.

The Minister of the Interior was given a dinner, late in November, by 450 members of the Liberal-Conservative party in Seville, when he said, in his speech that Señor Canovas del Castillo had made Spain one of the freest nations in Europe, and described the King as the symbol of the happiness, welfare, and progress of the nation.

The budget for 1880-'81 was presented in the Chamber of Deputies, February 17th, by the Marquis de Orovio, Minister of Finance, who estimated the revenue for the coming year at 792,000,000 pesetas, and the expenditure at

829,000,000 pesetas. The maximum amount of the floating debt for the year would be one fourth of the estimated receipts, and the Minister asked for authorization to borrow money to that amount. He pointed out that it might be necessary to exceed the maximum named in the event of the outbreak of war or serious disturbances. The Minister also demanded leave to procure the sum destined for the service of the floating debt by means of bonds, anticipating the receipts of the present budget. The Government furthermore wished to be able to obtain funds, in exchange for pagares or drafts on the Imperial Treasury, at a rate to be fixed by the Minister of Finance. The pagares would be drawn at three, six, or nine months.

The budget for Cuba was presented by the Minister for the Colonies, February 19th. The ordinary expenditure was set down at 37,500,000 pesetas, and the extraordinary expenditure at 10,000,000 pesetas. Various new taxes would have to be imposed during the continuance of the war. Authorization was asked to contract a loan, in order to repay the advance made by the Hispano-Colonial Bank, cover the deficit, and unify the debts. In the discussion of these estimates, April 5th, Señor Laiglesia said, in behalf of the Budget Committee, that it was imperatively necessary to borrow a sufficient sum to pay off 50,000,000 pesetas, which were owing to the army, and 67,000,000 pesetas that were owing to the military contractors. The entire budget was finally adopted. The floating debt of the island was limited to 6,000,000 pesetas, except in the event of unforeseen circumstances. The strength of the permanent army in Cuba was fixed at 40,000 men.

Affairs continued to be disturbed in Cuba, with insurrectionary movements and occasional skirmishes. At the beginning of April applications for amnesty had been made by 382 persons, including several leaders and subordinate officers. Five persons out of a number who were condemned to death for complicity in a conspiracy were shot in May, and the sentences of the other leaders of the movement were commuted. Calisto Garcia, the leader of the former insurrection, disembarked in May, near Santiago de Cuba, with fifteen men. Troops were immediately sent in pursuit of him. The insurgent leader in the district of Cinco Villas and the remnant of his band surrendered themselves in September. Measures were adopted for withdrawing a part of the forces from the island, and in November the commander-in-chief had disarmed several war-vessels, and was disbanding one thousand men of the army weekly, and perfect tranquillity was said to prevail throughout the island. A plot to create disturbances among the creoles in Cuba, to which, however, the semi-official press in Madrid attached but little importance, was discovered in December. A general rising of the free blacks and mulattoes in the mountains and jungle around Santiago de Cuba was planned to

take place on the 15th, and assistance was expected from expeditions of filibusters. Arrests were made in eleven towns, 350 colored men being implicated in Santiago de Cuba alone.

The activity of the Carlists and Ultramontanes, under the impunity accorded to them by the Government, began to attract attention in August. The press of the party openly proclaimed Carlist views, discussed the prospects of the cause, and published letters from the Pretender; and the Carlist candidates in the elections of the Councils-General were canvassing with confidence, for the first time in thirty years, that they would be able to secure a majority. The Council of Ministers finally decided to take preventive measures against the further development of the strength of the party. It was determined to institute proceedings against all priests who should introduce political subjects into their sermons, and to dismiss from their posts all mayors who were notorious Carlists. Directions were given by the Minister of the Interior to the governors of the Basque provinces to observe the sermons of the local clergy, and immediately report the name of any priest who should use the pulpit to preach against the Government.

The Government, having received many petitions from religious orders about to be expelled from France with reference to establishing themselves in northern Spain, issued a circular to the civil authorities, in June, giving instructions that no order, college, or establishment belonging to religious houses leaving France, should be permitted in any province near the French frontier, or in the rest of the Peninsula, except after having received due authorization from the Government.

The anniversary of St. Ignatius Loyola, the founder of the order of Jesuits, was celebrated, August 3d, at the monastery of Loyola, in the province of Guipuzcoa, with great ceremony. More than fifty thousand Basque peasants and mariners, and several hundred members of aristocratic families in the neighborhood, assembled to witness the festivals and religious ceremonies. About three hundred Jesuit fathers were present, and many visitors attended from France. The "Correspondencia de España," semi-official, announced in November that the members of religious orders expelled from France, who had taken refuge in Spain, were at liberty to establish themselves separately in any part of the country they might see fit, but that they would not be allowed to form themselves into religious associations or wear publicly the habit of their order.

The trial of Otero for the attempt to assassinate the King on December 30, 1879, was concluded in the Court of First Instance, February 9th. It was urged for the defense that the accused was of weak intellect and not responsible for his actions. The prisoner was sentenced to death. An appeal was taken to the Court of Cassation, and denied by it. The counsel of the prisoner then appealed to the

King to exercise his clemency toward the regicide, and asked the Queen and the Princess of the Asturias to intercede in his behalf. The King replied, "As King I have pardoned Otero, but I must submit the question to my responsible Ministers." The sentence was finally confirmed by the Council of Ministers, and Otero was executed April 14th. A paper purporting to be a confession of the regicide was afterward published in a newspaper of Madrid, which represented that Otero had been ordered at a secret meeting of masked men to kill Señor Canovas del Castillo, and was paid for the work and supplied with a weapon for the purpose, but that afterward the order was changed, and he was told to kill the King, under pain of being killed himself if he refused.

SPRAGUE, PELEG, was born in Duxbury, Massachusetts, April 27, 1793, and died in Boston, October 13, 1880, in the eighty-eighth year of his age. He graduated at Harvard College in 1812, studied law at the Litchfield Law-School, was admitted to the Plymouth County bar in August, 1815, practiced two years in Augusta, Maine, and then settled in Hallowell, where he speedily acquired distinction. He was a member of the Maine Legislature in 1820-'21; member of Congress, 1825-'29; United States Senator, 1829-'35; and United States District Judge from 1841 to 1865. In 1835 he became a resident of Boston; in 1858 he published "Speeches and Addresses," and "Decisions" in 1841-'68. He began public life as a Whig, and, though never an extreme partisan, was always identified with the Republican party. In 1840 he was Presidential elector on the Harrison and Tyler ticket; in 1847 he received the degree of LL. D. from Harvard College. He was the last surviving member of the memorable United States Senate of 1830-'32, in which the illustrious names of Webster, Clay, Calhoun, Benton, Hayne, and others were enrolled. As a lawyer and judge he was greatly esteemed by clientage and bar, and in the National Assembly he was regarded as a fine debater.

ST. JOHN, ISAAC MUNROE, was born in Georgia, and died on the 7th of April, 1880, at Greenbrier, Sulphur Springs, in West Virginia. He graduated at Yale College, and entered his professional life as civil engineer on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, where he soon attracted the attention of eminent engineers. At the breaking out of the civil war he was living in South Carolina, and joined fortunes with the Confederacy. Soon after his enlistment as a soldier in the army at Richmond, he was placed in the engineer corps, and assigned to duty under General Magruder on the Peninsula, where he rendered valuable service in the construction of fortifications during McClellan's first campaign. The ability which St. John displayed in the arduous duties of the field, decided the War Department at Richmond to place him at the head of a bureau even more important than that of engi-

neering. The Niter and Mining Bureau having become the sole reliance of the Confederacy for the production of gunpowder, General St. John was promoted to that branch of the service, with his headquarters at Richmond. In that position he established a high reputation, and rendered great benefits to the Confederacy. When General John C. Breckinridge was appointed Secretary of War, he found the commissariat in such a condition as demanded a change, and he selected General St. John for the place. In this new field his success was greater than ever, and he established a system by which supplies for the army were collected directly from the people and placed in depots ready for transportation. He was with President Davis and his Cabinet in the retreat after the evacuation of Richmond, but became separated from Mr. Davis before the capture. Soon after the war he resumed his profession in Kentucky, and became Chief Engineer of the Louisville, Cincinnati and Lexington Railroad. He built the Short-line to Cincinnati, which was regarded as a great feat in civil engineering. After the completion of the Short-line he became consulting engineer of the city of Louisville, and was afterward elected City Engineer. To him the city is indebted for the first topographical map, and the establishment of its present system of sewerage. He declined a reelection to the office of City Engineer, and became Consulting Engineer of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad, and Chief Engineer of the Lexington and Big Sandy Railroad, which position he held at the time of his death. He left to posterity a character to be revered for its chivalric tone, its earnest convictions, and its devotion to duty in both military and civil life.

SUNDAY-SCHOOLS. The following is a summary of the statistics of Sunday-schools as they were reported at the Sunday-school Centennial Meeting which was held in London in June, 1880:

COUNTRIES.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Total.
England and Wales.....	422,250	3,800,000	4,222,250
Scotland.....	47,972	494,538	542,505
Ireland.....	32,548	384,627	417,175
Canada.....	41,712	340,170	381,882
Australia.....	3,970	37,915	41,885
New Zealand.....	1,191	9,947	11,048
Total under English Government.....	549,553	5,067,192	5,616,745
Other European countries.....	26,000	40,000	420,000
India, China, and Africa.....	2,000	100,000	102,000
South America.....	3,000	150,000	153,000
Total outside of United States.....	574,553	5,717,192	6,291,745
United States.....	886,328	6,623,124	7,509,452
Total.....	1,460,881	12,340,316	13,801,197

The one hundredth anniversary of the organization of Sunday-schools in England by Robert Raikes was celebrated in England and the United States in June. A general celebration, which was participated in by delegates from the different countries in which Sunday-

schools have been established, was held in London, June 26th, and during the following week. A meeting for the reception of the foreign delegates was held at the rooms of the Sunday-school Union in the Old Bailey, on the evening of June 26th. On Sunday, the 27th, special services, with sermons appropriate to the occasion, were held in the different churches. A general meeting was held at the Guildhall, Monday, June 28th, at which the Lord Mayor presided. Resolutions were adopted acknowledging the benefits which had accrued to the whole of Christendom from the establishment of Sunday-schools, and inviting all Christians to make the present opportunity an occasion for earnest and prayerful effort for the further development and progress of those institutions. Conferences were afterward held, at which papers were read on subjects relating to Sunday-schools and their work, and information was given concerning their condition in different countries. Celebrations were held during the following days under the auspices of the Church of England Sunday-school Institute and the Sunday-school Union (nonconformist), among the exercises of which were children's festivals at the Crystal Palace and the Archbishop's Palace at Lambeth. The latter festival was attended by the Prince of Wales and members of the royal family. Statues of Robert Raikes were unveiled at Gloucester, where Raikes organized his Sunday-schools, and in London, the latter being on the Thames Embankment, near the Egyptian obelisk. A monument was erected in front of the Unitarian chapel in Essex Street, London, in memory of the founders of the first twelve Sunday-schools, beginning with Cardinal Borromeo, 1580, and ending with Theophilus Lindsay and Robert Raikes, 1780.

SUTTER, General JOHN AUGUSTUS, California pioneer, was born at Kandern, Baden, on the Swiss frontier, of a Swiss family, in 1803. He graduated from the military college at Berne in 1823. He entered the French army as an officer of the "Swiss Guard," and served in 1823-'24 through the Spanish campaign. At Grenoble the guard attempted a vain resistance to the Revolution of 1830, which drove out Charles X and upset the Bourbon monarchy. In 1834 he emigrated to the United States and settled in what was then the small frontier town of St. Louis. After being naturalized, he moved to Westport. While employed in the cattle-trade with New Mexico he heard, at Santa Fé, such accounts of the Pacific coast that in 1838 he set out with six men and traveled two thousand miles through regions which no white man's foot had ever before trod. He went first to Oregon, descending the Columbia River to Fort Vancouver. He embarked for the Sandwich Islands, where he purchased a vessel and sailed to Sitka in Russian America. After selling his cargo to great advantage, he brought his vessel to San Francisco Bay, where he landed July 2, 1839.

He called his settlement New Helvetia. He built a mill, tannery, and fort, equipped with two or three small cannon, on the Sacramento River. In 1841 he already owned several thousand head of cattle. He carried on a lucrative fur-trade with the Indians. The Mexican Government invested him with the magistracy, but so many Americans gathered about him, and the project of annexing California was so little concealed, that he fell under the ban of that Government. When the Wilkes Exploring Expedition reached San Francisco, Sutter gave them aid and information. One of the vessels, the *Peacock*, was wrecked on the bar of the Columbia River, and it became necessary to send a party overland under the command of Lieutenant Emmons. Beset with perils, by sea and land, these men were received and entertained by Sutter with unstinted and uncompensated hospitality while resting at his fort. He furnished them with horses and a launch to enable them to rejoin the fleet.

He extended a similar welcome to Fremont and his expedition. The Mexican Government became suspicious. They offered to buy him out. Sutter was the owner of over a hundred thousand acres of land and countless cattle. They then endeavored to drive him out and to incite the Indians to hostility. To protect himself, he gathered a large body of immigrants around him. Castro ordered them to leave the country. Colonel Fremont's second expedition opportunely arrived. It was judged necessary to raise the United States flag, and this was the initial step toward the addition of California to the States. A squadron was on the way round the Horn, and General Kearney began his transcontinental march, but the annexation was practically completed before their arrival. California was ceded to the United States by treaty in February, 1848. In that very month gold was discovered in Sutter's mill-race. This event flooded the Pacific coast with population. General Sutter was elected first Alcalde of his district and delegate to the Convention to make a Constitution. He was also Indian commissioner. Lands became valuable, and his titles were contested. He filed a claim for thirty-three square leagues, eleven of which had been granted him in 1841 by Governor Alvarado, and twenty-two by Micheloreno in 1845, in recompense of his military services. His claim was allowed by the commissioner. It was appealed to the Supreme Court, and decided adversely to Sutter. Deprived of his property and reduced to want, the California Legislature granted him a pension of \$250 a month. In 1864 his homestead was burned out. In 1873 he removed to Pennsylvania. He died in Washington, June 17th, at the age of seventy-seven.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY, two kingdoms of Northern Europe, united under the same dynasty. The King, Oscar II, born January 21, 1829, succeeded to the throne at the death

of his brother, Charles XV, September 18, 1872. He married on June 6, 1857, Sophia, daughter of the Duke of Nassau, born July 9, 1836. Their oldest son is Gustavus, heir-apparent, Duke of Wermland, born June 16, 1858.

SWEDEN.—The executive authority is in the hands of a King who acts under the advice of a Ministry, which at the close of 1880 was composed as follows: Count A. R. F. Posse, Minister of State; Baron C. F. L. Hochschild, Foreign Affairs; Dr. J. H. Lovén; Dr. H. L. Forssell, Justice; Baron C. G. von Otter, Navy; Colonel O. F. Taube, War; F. L. S. Hederstjerna, Interior; and Dr. C. G. Hammarskjöld, Ecclesiastical Affairs.

The area of Sweden, inclusive of inland lakes, is 170,741 square miles; the population on December 31, 1879, was 4,578,901, of which 2,228,855 were males, and 2,350,046 were females. In 1878 there were 29,151 marriages, 138,385 births, 85,339 deaths, and 3,921 stillbirths. The population of Stockholm in 1879 was 173,433.

The budget for 1881 estimates the receipts and expenditures at 74,995,000 crowns each (1 crown = 26·8 cents). The public debt of Sweden on December 31, 1879, amounted to 220,296,130 crowns. The Swedish army in 1879 numbered 183,063 men. The navy consisted of 43 steamers, of 20,271 horse-power and 155 guns; 10 sailing-vessels of 105 guns, and 87 smaller vessels of 113 guns. The imports in 1878 amounted to 239,518,000 crowns, the exports to 184,320,000 crowns.

NORWAY.—In Norway the executive is represented by the King, who exercises his authority through a Council of State, composed of two ministers of state and nine councillors. Two of the councillors, who are changed every year, together with one of the ministers, form a delegation of the Council of State, residing at Stockholm near the King.

The area of Norway is 122,280 square miles, and the population, according to the census of 1875, was 1,806,900. The receipts for 1879 amounted to 40,724,200 crowns (1 crown = 26·8 cents), and the expenditures to 48,571,600 crowns. The public debt on June 30, 1879, amounted to 99,632,000 crowns. The imports in 1879 were valued at 132,226,000 crowns, and the exports at 89,222,000 crowns.

The King, in opening the Swedish Rigsdag, January 17th, announced that, inasmuch as a committee on taxation had been appointed in the previous year, all the schemes for a thorough reform of the system would, for the present, be postponed.

In considering the army bill, the First Chamber adopted a paragraph extending the age at which men shall be liable to military service to forty years. The bill was rejected by the Second Chamber, and the Ministry in consequence resigned, April 13th. A new Cabinet was formed, in which Count Posse, who held the office of Minister of State and Councilor of

State, was also temporarily assigned the duties of Minister for Foreign Affairs. In November the King accepted the resignation of Dr. Forsell, the Minister of Finance, and Count Posse was given the portfolio of that office in addition to that of Minister of State. M. Thempander, one of the chiefs of department, was appointed Councilor of State.

The Norwegian Storting was opened on February 11th. A difference with the Government arose on the army question. A Government bill which did not recognize the principle of a general liability to military duty, was rejected by the Chamber.

A more severe conflict arose on the question, whether the members of the Council should be compelled to attend the meetings of the Chamber. According to the Norwegian Constitution, the King has no absolute veto, and when a bill has been passed three times by the Storting it becomes a law. The bill providing for the attendance of the members of the Council had been passed at two previous sessions of the Storting, and had been vetoed by the King on both occasions. The bill passed the Storting for the third time on March 17th, but, as it proposed a change of the Constitution, the King claimed the right of an absolute veto in this case—a claim which was denied by the opposition.

A complete rupture between the King and the popular House was brought about by the passage, on June 9th, of a bill authorizing the army committee to continue its sessions until the next meeting of the Storting. This bill was also vetoed by the King. The Storting was closed on June 23d.

SWITZERLAND, a republic of Central Europe, consisting of twenty-two cantons, three of which are each divided into two independent half-cantons. The President of the Federal Council for 1880 was Dr. E. Welti, of Aargau; and the Vice President, F. Anderwert, of Thurgau. The area is 15,981 square miles, and the population, according to an official estimate of July 1, 1879, 2,808,493. The movement of population in 1879 was—19,447 marriages, 89,692 births, 67,158 deaths, and 3,512 still-births. The total revenue of the Confederation for 1879 amounted to 41,456,213 francs, and the expenditures to 39,525,274 francs. The budget for 1880 estimated the receipts at 40,599,000 francs, and the expenditures at 40,782,000 francs. The liabilities of the republic amounted at the close of 1879 to 32,331,284 francs, as a set-off against which there was Federal property amounting to 43,782,000 francs.

The most important subjects that received attention in the course of the year were the defenses of the Confederation, and propositions for a revision of the Constitution.

The chief of engineers was directed by the Council of State, in January, to draw up a report relative to the strength and condition of the fortifications on the frontier. A meeting held at Thun in February, which was attended

by a considerable number of officers of the army, adopted resolutions declaring—1. That the sacrifices lately made for the development of the armed forces of Switzerland can only benefit the country when the principal avenues leading into it have been so secured as to render it impossible for an enemy to advance suddenly into the interior, and before the mobilization of the militia can have been accomplished; 2. That the fortification of the frontiers of Switzerland is therefore a precaution necessary for self-preservation; 3. That, if this step be neglected, a grave responsibility will devolve, in case of disaster, upon those to whom the country has confided the care of its interests, and especially of its independence; 4. That the meeting trusts that the Federal Assembly will vote the sums necessary for completing an efficient system of defensive works, and for arming them with suitable ordnance, and expresses its own readiness to make the necessary sacrifices. The subject engaged almost universal interest. Addresses were made upon it in the larger towns and in the villages, and it was discussed in the daily papers as well as in the journals devoted to the interests of the military service. The people were reminded that, whenever in olden times their small and comparatively insignificant state successfully defended itself against the onslaughts of its more powerful neighbors, it always relied largely upon the artificial defenses which in those days existed in large numbers throughout the country. So it would most likely be in the future. It was further shown that it would not be enough to erect fortifications designed to oppose an army coming from France only, for the country was exposed also on its northern frontier, and might be invaded from that direction.

The Council of State in September adopted the proposals of the National Council for a revision of the Constitution, and the question was submitted to a popular vote on the 31st of October. The revision was generally opposed by the Catholic cantons; the Liberals were not decided upon it, and no great popular interest was excited in it. The *plébiscite* resulted in the rejection of the proposed revision by a majority of two thirds.

The Landgemeinde of the Canton of Appenzel, at its annual meeting in May, decided by a large majority in favor of the restoration of capital punishment for the crimes of murder and incendiarism resulting in death. The Canton of Schwytz reëstablished capital punishment in July, and ordered that executions should take place in public. This was the fourth canton that had restored the penalty of death.

A bill for the separation of Church and state was submitted in July by the Great Council of the Canton of Geneva to a popular vote. It was intended to take effect from the beginning of 1882, and provided that, while the Protestant and Old Catholic congregations might use the churches, as they had previously done, for re-

igious services, the property of them should be vested in the communes in which they are situated. The measure was rejected, July 5th, by a vote of 9,306 against it to 4,064 in favor of it, more than a majority of the whole number of registered voters in the canton (17,451) voting against it. A new Great Council was elected at Geneva, November 14th, in which a majority was returned of the anti-Catholic extreme radical party.

A controversy between the Canton of Thurgau and the Grand Duchy of Baden respecting boundaries, which has been going on since the fifteenth century, has been finally adjusted. The dispute was marked by armed conflicts; two treaties which were made with the object of settling it, in 1687 and 1786, failed to accomplish the object. The controversy was reopened in 1816, and carried on again for fifteen years. At last an international commission was appointed in 1878, to deal with the whole subject amicably. Its report was adopted by the two states, and, the boundary-stones having been planted by the duly appointed commissioners and geometers, the final treaty was signed on the first day of May.

The committee of the National Council, appointed to examine questions of Federal administration, requested the Federal Council, in May, to take measures to prevent the Jesuits expelled from France from establishing themselves on Swiss territory.

The Federal Council decided in August, at the request of Don Carlos, to annul the decree of 1873 respecting the internment of the Duchess of Madrid, and further to restore the cannon which had been sequestered at her residence in Geneva.

The contractors of the St. Gothard Tunnel in October applied to the Federal Tribunal for a prolongation by seven hundred days of the time originally fixed for the completion of their undertaking, the effect of which would be to delay the opening of the tunnel for traffic till late in 1882. The Federal Council in November arranged for the immediate conveyance of the mails through the tunnel, while passengers will still have to follow the old route. It is expected that, after the line is opened, express trains will run from Basle to Milan in thirteen hours, and from Lucerne to Milan in ten hours.

The elections for the executive office in December resulted in the choice of M. Anderwert, of Thurgau, as President, and M. Droz, of Neuchâtel, as Vice-President, of the Confederation. Both officers were of the Extreme Democratic party. M. Anderwert committed suicide, December 25th, on the public promenade at Berne, by shooting himself with a revolver. He had for some days before his death been in a state of melancholy, and imagined himself to be surrounded by enemies who were plotting to take his life. The small majority by which he was elected to the Presidency is also said to have preyed on his spirits.

The Conference of the International Association for the reform and codification of international law was opened at Berne, August 25th, by M. Welti, President of the Swiss Confederation, and M. Koenig, President of the Society of Swiss Jurists. About sixty members were present, including the Japanese Minister in London. Papers were read on "Consular Jurisdiction in the Levant," by Sir Travers Twiss; "Consular Jurisdiction in Japan," by Mr. Tyre, a Japanese gentleman; the "Protection of Submarine Telegraph Cables," by Sir James Carmichael; "Literary Copyright," by Sir Travers Twiss; "General Average," by Dr. Wendt; "Limited Partnership," by Mr. Jenkins; "Marriage Laws," by Mr. Alexander; "Testamentary Lands and Matrimonial Rights," by Mr. Tristram. The subject of bankruptcy was also considered, and reports were made by committees on bills of exchange and negotiable securities.

The country was disturbed by earthquakes to an unusual extent; a shock felt at Schaffhausen, in December, was said to be the eighteenth recorded during the year. The scientific societies have begun a systematic investigation of earthquakes, with observers in all parts of the republic who will take notice of all the phenomena of the shocks and the circumstances attendant upon them, whenever they occur.

The East Swiss Geographical Commercial Society of St. Gall has decided to fit out a small exploring party to investigate the special nature of the trade at various points on both coasts of the Red Sea, in order to obtain information respecting the imports of the shore countries with a view to the development of Swiss trade.

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TENNESSEE. The Republicans of Tennessee assembled in State Convention at Nashville, on May 6th, to select twenty-four delegates to the National Republican Convention, and to nominate a candidate for Governor and two Presidential electors for the State at large, with the following results: For Governor, Alvin Hawkins was nominated. The selection of delegates to the Chicago Convention was made as usual. The Presidential

electors nominated for the State at large were George Maney and A. A. Taylor. The following platform was unanimously adopted:

The Republican party of Tennessee, in convention assembled, at Nashville, May 6, 1880, do declare as follows:

Resolved, That we hereby reaffirm our devotion to the national Republican party and its principles, as heretofore declared, believing those principles to be founded in political wisdom, and essential to the prosperity and equality of every citizen, and to the main-

tenance of the Union of the States under the Constitution.

Resolved, That the bonds of Tennessee, heretofore deliberately recognized by both the Republican and Democratic parties as legally issued, are a valid indebtedness, binding in law and in morals upon the property and conscience of the State, and that any attempt to impair the obligations of that indebtedness, or to readjust or scale it, or in any other manner to change the letter and spirit of the contract, without the voluntary consent of the bondholders previously, fairly, and understandingly obtained, is downright repudiation and an act of high-handed dishonesty.

Resolved, That any voluntary proposition from our creditors to take less than the face value of their bonds, in consequence of losses incurred by our citizens during the war of the rebellion, should be thankfully and unhesitatingly accepted, and the new contract faithfully and promptly complied with; and we denounce the refusal of the Democratic party to accept the sixty-and-six proposition as the refusal of a liberal and voluntary reduction; and we recognize in said refusal overwhelming evidence that a large majority of the Democratic party intends to repudiate the bonded debt of the State, and thereby to subject our State to the opprobrium of all peoples who regard the contracts of a State with her creditors as of sacred inviolability.

Resolved, That the reasons prompting the Democratic party of Tennessee, and of other States of the South, to repudiate the debts of their respective States, will, when logically carried out, prompt them also to repudiate the entire war debt of the United States; and we hereby declare our solemn judgment to be that, as soon as the repudiating element of the Democratic party has wiped out the debts of their respective States, they will declare in favor of repudiating the debt incurred by the nation in preserving the Union.

Resolved, That we renew our declarations in favor of free common schools for the education of all the children of the State, we believing that schoolhouses are cheaper than court-houses, and that intelligence is the mother of morality and liberty.

Resolved, That we recognize the rights of the laboring men and women of Tennessee as deserving of our most tender parental solicitude; and we denounce all legislation that discriminates against the poor and in favor of the rich, believing that the poor should be protected, that labor is the creator of all our wealth, and that there can be no permanent public or private prosperity except it be based upon perfect harmony between labor and capital.

Resolved, That we are opposed to bringing convict-labor into unnecessary competition with free labor, and, as one means of preventing this, we favor the employment of Penitentiary convicts, below a certain grade, on public works and in improving the public roads throughout the State.

Resolved, That we are in favor of law and order, and opposed to mob violence; that we demand the impartial enforcement of the laws everywhere and at all times; that we denounce social ostracism because of political opinion as a standing reproach to a free government, as calculated to discourage the incoming of capital and labor, and as destructive to the business prosperity of the people; that we advocate all measures that promote peace, protect industry, encourage temperance, and advance morality; and we pledge the voices and votes of the Republican party to every good work that will benefit the individual, build up the State, and strengthen the nation.

The Greenback-Labor party, represented by sixty delegates, five among them being colored, held its State Convention at Nashville, on May 22d, when they appointed delegates to the National Greenback Convention, meeting at Chicago on June 9th, and nominated their candidates for Governor and Presidential elec-

tors, as follows: For Governor, R. M. Edwards was nominated by acclamation. As Presidential electors for the State at large were nominated R. M. McKee, of East Tennessee, and H. M. Hill, of West Tennessee.

To instruct these delegates how they should act with their fellow-Greenbackers at the general meeting in Chicago, the following resolutions were offered by different members, and adopted by the Convention:

Resolved, That the delegates to the Chicago Convention of June 9th are hereby instructed to vote for no man for Presidential or Vice-Presidential nominee unless he be an unconditional, uncompromising, outspoken Greenbacker—one who has given unmistakable evidence of having cast his lot with the Greenback party.

Whereas, The dissensions heretofore existing between the two portions of the Greenback party, viz., the Greenback clubs and the National party, ought to be, and for the benefit of the entire party should be, healed, in order to more effectually turn our weapons against our common foe: therefore,

Resolved, That our delegates to Chicago be instructed to use every honorable means to effect a reconciliation between the two, in accordance with the old motto, "United we stand, divided we fall."

The Secretary of the Committee on Platform and Resolutions reported the following, which was adopted:

Resolved, We adopt the following as our platform of principles:

1. We oppose all banks of issue.
2. We are in favor of the General Government furnishing the currency of the country.
3. We are in favor of paying the national debt now due and to become due according to the terms of the original contracts.
4. We are opposed to the creation of a bonded indebtedness in any form.
5. We affirm and adopt as part of our platform the resolutions known as the "Weaver resolutions," lately introduced in Congress as follows:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this House that all currency, whether metallic or paper, necessary for the use and convenience of the people, should be issued and its volume controlled by the Government, and not by, or through, the bank corporations of the country; and, when so issued, should be a full legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private.

Resolved, That, in the judgment of this House, that portion of the interest-bearing debt of the United States which shall become redeemable in the year 1881, or prior thereto, being in amount \$782,000,000, should not be refunded beyond the power of the Government to call in said obligations and pay them at any time, but should be paid as rapidly as possible and according to contract. To enable the Government to meet these obligations, the mints of the United States should be operated to their fullest capacity in the coinage of standard silver dollars, and such other coinage as the business interests of the country may require.

6. We demand a graduated tax on all incomes above one thousand dollars a year.
7. We favor the regulation of inter-State commerce by Congress, and transportation charges by the State Legislatures.
8. We are in favor of equal taxation of all property owned by individuals or corporations.
9. We favor a thorough system of public-school education; that the Legislature prescribe the textbooks to be used in the schools, prohibit frequent changes of the same, and prevent a monopoly of the sale of the same.

And in relation to the State debt, we declare:

Believing that the railroad bonds were issued with-

out authority of law; that they were paid over to railroad companies in violation of the conditions governing their issuance; that the debt in law and in equity is a railroad debt, which the railroads alone should pay: therefore, with these views as to the nature and validity of the debt, we oppose any measure whatever looking to the payment of the same in whole or in any amount whatever, principal or interest.

1. That neither the State of Tennessee nor its citizens are bound in law or morals to pay the bonds issued in aid of the railroads, amounting to \$25,000,000, and that such bonds are no part of the State debt.

2. That we are opposed to scaling the railroad bonds, and to any other act recognizing them, because the people of Tennessee do not owe them.

3. That the railroad companies have persistently disregarded the law under which the bonds were issued, and have no grounds of equity to ask the people to aid them, by taxation, to pay for the property and franchises of corporations controlled for private benefit and gain.

4. That the State debt proper should be paid, but, that there may be no misapprehension what the State debt is, we adopt the description of it from the report of S. W. Hatchett, the State Comptroller, made in October, 1865, and substantially adhered to by his successors, and which at present embraces the following items, to wit:

Capitol bonds.....	\$493,000
Union Bank bonds.....	125,000
Bank of Tennessee bonds.....	214,000
Hermitage bonds.....	35,000
Agricultural Bureau bonds.....	18,000
Stock in turnpike bonds.....	728,000
Stock in railroad bonds.....	412,000
Total.....	\$2,025,000

That in the work of sifting the false from the true, and the illegal from the legal, the leaders of the Democratic and Republican parties have stood in the way, and united or coöperated to deceive the people by one funding act after another, the aim of which was to wipe out and destroy or conceal the evidence of wrong done, and finally to allure the voters into approval of the crimes of the funding schemers, at the ballot-box, under the cry of a compromise of a debt that the State does not owe.

Resolved, That the members of the State Executive Committee for the respective Congressional districts be urged to call a Congressional Convention, not later than the 4th of July, to select Presidential electors, and in default of such assembly and selection, the members of the State Executive Committee for such district shall be empowered to appoint such elector.

The following preamble and resolution, subsequently offered by a member, were also adopted by the Convention:

Whereas, The antagonism of the Republican and Democratic parties keeps alive the passions, prejudices, and hatred of the past, renewing from year to year the sectional idea of a North and South, ever conducive to panic and disorder, to the great neglect of the present distress and suffering of the people, and unmindful in their party pride and ambition of the purposes of the glorious future that awaits a harmonious and undivided whole country: therefore,

Resolved, That we have forever severed our connection therewith, and pledge ourselves to the building up of a true national party, in pursuance of the principles embraced in the foregoing platform and resolutions, and that we cordially invite all men, of whatever party affiliation heretofore sustained by them, to join with us in securing to themselves and the whole people their inalienable rights.

The Democrats of Tennessee assembled in State Convention at Nashville, on June 8th, to select delegates to the National Democratic

Convention and to nominate Presidential electors, and accomplished their object.

The Democrats met in State Convention again on August 11th, to nominate their candidate for Governor, and determine the policy of the party in the administration of State affairs, the number of delegates in attendance being so great that the hall of the House of Representatives, where the meeting was held, could not contain them, some of the delegations occupying the galleries. The Committee on the Basis of Representation reported to give to each county one delegate for every one hundred votes, and every fraction of fifty or more, which gave for all the ninety-four counties 1,349 delegates, the numerical proportions of these ranging from one in Scott County to eighty-six in Shelby County. This Convention is considered to have been the most numerous of any ever assembled in the city of Nashville, and at the same time the most earnest, though divided in purpose. The contrariety of sentiments severally advocated and adhered to by large numbers among the delegates regarded almost exclusively the State debt, as to its validity, its amount, and the mode of its settlement. Within the Committee on Resolutions, composed of thirty members, three from each Congressional district, the disagreement on the State debt, while they were deliberating on the draught of a platform, was such that three distinct platforms were reported from that body, and submitted to the Convention for its exclusive adoption—a majority report, signed by twenty-one members, with the chairman at the head of the list, and two minority reports, each signed by four members, and commonly styled the Garner and Johnson reports, from the names of their first subscribers. Each of the three platforms was read to the Convention, the majority one being as follows:

The Democratic party of Tennessee in convention assembled do declare:

1. Our unabated allegiance to the national Democracy, and an unflinching faith in and devotion to its traditions and principles.

2. That we endorse the action of the late National Democratic Convention at Cincinnati, and reaffirm the principles enunciated in the Cincinnati platform; and pledge our earnest and undivided support to the Democratic nominees as presented to the country by the Cincinnati Convention.

3. That in the nomination of Winfield Scott Hancock, of Pennsylvania, and William H. English, of Indiana, for President and Vice-President of the United States, we recognize the complete restoration of fraternal feelings to all sections of our common country.

4. We reassert our opposition to the repudiation of any of the public obligations of the State or Federal Government, and declare that the repudiation of either under any pretext or disguise would be the most direful of evils, moral, financial, and political, and, in the patriotic language of the national Democratic platform, we pledge ourselves to the strict maintenance of the public faith, State or national.

5. We recognize a disposition upon the part of the creditors of the State, in view of the great losses entailed by the late war, the great depression of business, and the general shrinkage in values, to make a liberal reduction in both the principal and interest of our

bonded indebtedness, and we declare that we favor a prompt settlement by the Legislature with our creditors upon the best terms that can be agreed upon as a result of negotiation.

6. *Resolved*, That we demand the most rigid economy in the administration of all the public affairs of the State and national Government, the suppression of any and all extravagances in public expenditure, the reduction of all salaries and fees of office, so far as can be done consistently with the proper discharge of public offices, and the strictest honesty in the management and application of all public revenues.

7. *Resolved*, That we regard a thoroughly organized system of public instruction as a matter of the utmost importance to the people of our State, and pledge our united support to its institutions of learning and to the maintenance and better perfection and development of our system of public schools.

8. *Resolved*, That we are unalterably opposed to the usurpations of the Republican party, and we recognize the fact that the administration of the Government, both State and Federal, by that party, will, under its rapid strides to centralization, soon result in the destruction of our republican form of government.

9. That, in view of the complaints coming up from every part of the State against the policy of the railroads discriminating against local freight and passengers, and in favor of through freight and passengers, it is the sense of this Convention that the coming Legislature shall pass a law requiring the railroads to do justice to the trade and business of the State.

The two minority reports, agreeing generally with the majority on other points, dissent from it in regard to the State debt by making its settlement, and consequently its amount, ultimately depend on the people's judgment expressed for that purpose by a direct vote, though in different ways, as follows: The Garner report says, in section 4:

We are unalterably opposed to any settlement of the State debt by the Legislature until the same has been first submitted to the people, at a separate election, and ratified by their free voices at the ballot-box.

The Johnson report, in the ninth and last section or paragraph:

We favor a compromise and settlement of the State's indebtedness upon the most favorable terms that can be honorably obtained; and we favor the inauguration by the next Legislature of measures for a just and honorable settlement with the creditors of the State; and that any settlement proposed to the Legislature by the creditors lie over for action thereon by the succeeding Legislature, to the end that such settlement may be fully discussed before the people in the Legislative canvass, and such settlement, when effected, shall be final.

The final result of the very warm debate which was held was as follows:

The Johnson minority report was first put to vote on a motion to lay it on the table, which passed—yeas 740, nays 580. A motion made on the following day to take this report from the table was, after another long-protracted discussion, lost—nays 751, yeas 578.

The Garner minority report was put upon the question whether it should be substituted for the majority report, and it was voted down—nays 849, yeas 470.

The majority report was adopted—yeas 825, nays 455.

On the day previous to the adoption of the majority report, a delegate proposed, as an ad-

dition and amendment to it, the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That we are opposed to making coupons receivable for dues to the State, and we demand that no settlement be made which embodies such a feature.

Upon the adoption of the majority report being announced, and the motion made by a member that the Convention proceed to nominate a candidate for Governor, about one hundred and sixty delegates left the hall in a body, organized themselves elsewhere into a State Convention of the Democracy of Tennessee, observing all the usual forms of convention proceedings, and nominated S. F. Wilson as the Democratic candidate for Governor, by acclamation, and, by acclamation also, adopted the following platform:

The Democratic party of Tennessee, represented in convention by its delegates, who have been elsewhere denied the right to reflect the will of the party and the people, by the opposition of men assuming to be the managers and masters of the Democratic party, by the combination of its enemies and the mistakes of its friends, by the manipulation and fraud of the vast railroad corporations who have their iron grasp upon the liberty of the people, and are determined to destroy it, and who, to perpetuate their power, have labored assiduously in every manner, even to the furnishing of free tickets and free passes to many delegates to the State Convention, and are determined to uphold them and their action, and deny to the people not only their rights, but to take from them also the privilege of voting upon them; and they brought here all the power which they could secure to capture the State Convention in their interest, and override the expressed will of the State, and this power has united with the small element of the Democratic minority of the State Convention, and in such unholy combination have been able to stifle the voice of the people, in the rejection of Democratic doctrine, and in denial of the only right the people have been able to secure after years of struggle and contest, the right to settle for themselves by direct vote their alleged indebtedness. And that combination have asserted in unequivocal terms their determination to have the debt of the railroads paid by the people of the State, while the holders of the bonds are claiming that the railroads owe the debt, and are now, by suit, trying to enforce its collection against them.

Regarding, as we do, such combinations as destructive of the liberty and prosperity of the people, and such doctrines as monstrous subversions of every principle of Democracy and of justice, we refuse to surrender to them the sovereignty of the masses we represent, and, in justice to our people, we stand with them—the Democracy of Tennessee—and decline to abandon their principles at the behest of such an alliance; and, therefore,

We denounce the action of such combination, pretending to be a State Democratic Convention, as undemocratic; and, as a platform of Democratic principles, on which we invite the support of the Democratic party and all friends of true Democracy, we declare

We approve the national platform adopted at Cincinnati, and heartily endorse the nomination of Hancock and English.

We declare our allegiance to the time-honored principles of the Democratic party; the right of the majority to rule; the subordination of the military to the civil authority; opposition to fraud and violence, and the supremacy of law and order, and the economical administration of the State and national Governments.

We favor the adjustment and speedy payment of the State debt proper.

We deny the validity against the State of all that part of our alleged indebtedness represented by bonds issued for or on account of railroads, and declare they shall be left for settlement where they belong, in the judicial controversy between the bondholders and the railroads.

We deny the validity of bonds issued for war interest, and assert that the demand for such interest and its concession by men pretending to represent the State at a time when we were disfranchised, is a crime against the people, and no part of such debt shall be recognized in any settlement to be made.

We declare that in no event, upon any settlement, shall the coupons be made receivable for taxes.

We recognize the sovereignty and supremacy of the people, and declare that no settlement of any part of our alleged indebtedness shall be made which is not first submitted to them for ratification or rejection at the ballot-box at a special election to be held for that purpose only.

We favor the widest dissemination of intelligence among the masses, and will encourage and promote the most liberal and efficient free-school system.

We oppose the competition of convict with free labor, and favor the enactment of such wise and salutary laws as shall restrain it, so far as the best interests of the free laboring people shall require.

We favor such regulation of the taxes as shall lift a part of the burden from the shoulders of the laboring land-owners and place it on railroads, capitalists, incomes, and salaries.

We favor the enactment of such laws as will secure the collection of railroad taxes, and as will compel the railroads to deal justly with the people of the State, and prevent unjust discrimination between through and local freights.

On this platform of principles we invite the co-operation of the honest men of all parties.

Before the final adjournment of this Convention, commonly called that of the Repudiators, its president appointed a State Executive Committee, consisting of fifteen members, chosen in equal numbers from the three grand divisions of the State—East, Middle, and West Tennessee.

The regular State Convention, in the Hall of Representatives, after the majority report on the platform had been adopted, on the third day of its session proceeded to nominate a candidate for Governor. John W. Wright, of Shelby, was unanimously declared the nominee.

The Republican nominee was elected by an exceedingly great majority over either of his two Democratic competitors. The aggregate number of votes polled in the State for Governor at this election was 243,396, of which Mr. Hawkins had 103,964; Mr. Wright, 78,783; Mr. Wilson, 57,188; Mr. Edwards, 3,459. Two votes were reckoned scattering.

The Legislature was divided as follows: In the Senate—Democrats 15, Republicans 10; in the House of Representatives—Democrats 36, Republicans 37, Greenbackers 1.

As to Congressmen, the Republicans had three of their candidates elected—in the first, second, and tenth Congressional districts; the Democrats seven of theirs—in the third and following districts to the ninth, inclusive.

The Forty-second General Assembly of Tennessee met at Nashville, on January 3, 1881, and the two Houses were duly organized.

By prudent legislation the expenses of the State government have been steadily reduced, while the population has largely increased. The census of 1880 returns it at 1,542,469.

The literary education of youth is well cared for, and progressing. The State University is reported to be in a flourishing condition, and the common-school system as accomplishing the best results. The summaries presented show an increase in enrollment and average attendance, and a larger number of schools taught and of teachers employed. The reports of county superintendents, with a few exceptions, indicate also a better class of instruction, a higher standard of teaching, and a spirit of improvement in all the details of school management. The school population in Tennessee, white and colored, the number of her free schools, and of pupils enrolled, are given in the subjoined official statement, embracing six years—1875 to 1880:

SCHOOL POPULATION.

YEARS.	White.	Colored.	Total.
1875.....	310,745	106,241	426,612
1876.....	325,812	108,519	434,131
1877.....	330,935	111,523	442,458
1878.....	336,817	112,100	448,917
1879.....	388,355	126,288	514,643
1880.....	403,353	141,509	544,862

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

YEARS.	White.	Colored.	Total.
1875.....	3,127	770	3,942
1876.....	3,070	827	3,897
1877.....	3,640	964	4,604
1878.....	4,205	1,141	5,346
1879.....	4,386	1,227	5,612
1880.....	4,334	1,188	5,522

PUPILS ENROLLED.

YEARS.	White.	Colored.	Total.
1875.....	(not classified)	(not classified)	199,058
1876.....	(not classified)	(not classified)	194,150
1877.....	171,535	43,043	227,643
1878.....	206,810	54,342	261,152
1879.....	208,558	55,829	264,687
1880.....	209,290	60,551	290,141

The charitable and other public institutions in the State are generally under excellent management in all respects, realizing the purposes of their existence.

There is no reform school in Tennessee for the correction and education of wayward youth, the offending ones among them, who are not few, being committed to the State Prison, mixed up, as it were, with the adult hardened convicts under sentence. There are at present in the Penitentiary 308 State prisoners, whose ages range between twelve and twenty years, and 637 between twenty and thirty years.

The whole number of convicts in the Penitentiary on December 1, 1880, and at the same date in 1878, as well as of those discharged, pardoned, and deceased during the interval of the said two years, with other particulars,

appears from the following statistical tables, officially published:

Number of convicts December 1, 1878.....	1,153
Number of convicts received since December 1, 1878..	1,104
Number of escaped convicts recaptured	29

Total..... 2,286

Number of convicts December 1, 1880.....	1,241
Discharged under the acts of 1866 and 1870.....	651
Discharged at expiration of sentence.....	85
Died.....	185
Pardoned.....	81
Escaped.....	86
Released by order of Court.....	8
Remanded for new trial and released.....	4

Total..... 2,286

The convicts are now confined at the following places:

At main prison, Nashville.....	663
At Tracy mines, Grundy County.....	302
At Coal Creek mines, Anderson County.....	112
At Ensey's farm, Shelby County.....	189
At Spence's farm, Davidson County.....	25

Total..... 1,241

Of these 1,241 convicts, the number of white persons is 420—males 409, females 11; colored 821—males 790, females 31. Among them there are 507 married persons and 734 single.

TEXAS. The opposite political parties of Texas, besides holding their conventions to select delegates to the National Conventions that were to assemble in June at Chicago and Cincinnati respectively, also assembled in State Conventions, to choose their nominees for State officers and Presidential electors.

The Greenbackers, so called, convened at Austin, on June 23d, and continued in session two days, one hundred and forty-eight delegates from all sections of the State being present. About twenty among the delegates were colored. The nominations were as follows: For Governor, W. H. Hamman; Lieutenant-Governor, George W. Givens; Attorney-General, — Jenkins; Comptroller, Ward Taylor; State Treasurer, — Guffin; Commissioner of the General Land-Office, R. T. Kennedy; Presidential electors for the State at large, H. L. Bentley and Andrew Young.

The following platform was adopted:

We, the representatives of the Greenback party of Texas, in convention assembled, view with pride the action of the National Greenback-Labor party of the United States, in convention at Chicago, and most cordially and heartily ratify and endorse the platform of principles adopted, and candidates nominated by said convention.

SECTION 1. Realizing the fact that there exist great abuses and wrongs in the administration of the State government, under the control and management of the party in power, we condemn the Democratic party of Texas for its wasteful and extravagant expenditure of money in the administration of the government, and demand a reduction in governmental expenditures.

SEC. 2. We demand a reduction in the rate of taxation from 50 to 33½ cents on the one hundred dollars' worth of property.

SEC. 3. We demand the repeal of the occupation-tax and the substitution thereof of a graduated income-tax.

SEC. 4. We demand the prompt abolishment of all

useless offices, and a general and radical decrease of all public salaries, and that county officers shall not be allowed to receive exceeding \$1,500 per annum for their services, and, whenever practicable, especially in judicial offices, compensation should be fixed by special salaries; and, further, that in future the government of Texas shall be conducted on the strictest business principles and on the most economical plan.

SEC. 5. We favor a radical change in our cumbersome and expensive judicial system, and demand a more economical and effective system.

SEC. 6. We demand the repeal of the iniquitous road law, poll-tax law, and law for the collection of *ad valorem* taxes from delinquents.

SEC. 7. We demand the repeal of the present pretense of a school law, and the establishment of an efficient system of public free schools, and demand the appropriation by the Legislature of the full constitutional limit of one fourth of the general revenue for that purpose.

SEC. 8. Believing it to be the part of wisdom to preserve the public-school lands of Texas as the basis of a grand school fund, we demand the immediate repeal of all laws providing for the sale of the same, other than to actual settlers, in quantities of not more than one hundred and sixty acres to any one purchaser.

SEC. 9. We demand that the public domain of Texas be reserved for a permanent school fund, and for the benefit of actual settlers under the homestead laws, and a repeal of the law providing for the sale thereof.

SEC. 10. Believing that labor is the basis of all wealth and prosperity, and that an increase in population will add to the material wealth of Texas, inducements should be offered to all honest and intelligent immigrants to come to assist in the development of the resources of the great State of Texas.

SEC. 11. We demand a modification of the Sunday law.

SEC. 12. We demand the immediate and unconditional repeal of the bell-punch law.

SEC. 13. We demand a perfect and positive protection that will guarantee safety both to the settler and the vast interest of our herdsmen.

SEC. 14. We denounce all laws restricting the right of suffrage, or impairing the secrecy of the ballot-box, and any legislative interference with the free exercise of religious opinion by the people of this State. The Greenback party everywhere denounces the attempted disfranchisement of citizens as a crime, whether committed by Republicans or Bourbon Democrats in Texas.

SEC. 15. That we are unqualifiedly opposed to convict-labor coming in conflict with honest labor, and demand the repeal of all laws permitting the same.

SEC. 16. The heroes whose valor wrested this State from the Government of Mexico deserve the profoundest gratitude of a generous people, and we demand payment of an annual pension to the survivors of that memorable struggle.

SEC. 17. We remember with profound gratitude the struggle of the fathers of Texas in defense of the right of themselves and their fellow-citizens, and, viewing the government which they consecrated with their sufferings and cemented with their blood as a rich and inestimable boon handed down by them to us, we are pledged to aid in every way possible in securing its prosperity, and will oppose with all the earnestness of our nature every step looking to the destruction or the impairing of its integrity.

Finally, having thus set forth our distinctive principles and views, we most cordially invite the coöperation of all men in Texas, regardless of their antecedents and political affiliations, who love the weal of their State and the prosperity of her people more than party, however differing with us on other questions, substantially agreeing with us in their affirmation and support.

The Democrats assembled in State Convention, at Dallas, on the 11th of August, and

nominated a full ticket, as follows: For Governor, Oran M. Roberts; Lieutenant-Governor, L. J. Storey; Treasurer, Francis R. Lubbock; Comptroller, W. M. Brown; Attorney-General, J. H. McLeary; Commissioner of the General Land-Office, W. C. Walsh; Judge of the Court of Appeals, J. M. Hurt; Presidential electors (State at large), J. W. Throckmorton and R. B. Hubbard.

In deliberating upon the platform, there was disagreement among the members of the Committee on Resolutions, in consequence of which two platforms were submitted to the Convention, the one signed by twenty-four, the other by seven members of the said committee. After the reading of both documents, the Convention adopted the majority report, which was as follows:

The Democratic party of Texas, in convention assembled, declare:

1. We heartily approve the declarations of principles made by the Democratic National State Convention at Cincinnati, and cordially endorse its nominees, pledging them the united and enthusiastic support of the Democracy of Texas.

2. We favor the free coinage and full remonetization of silver.

3. We favor such action by Congress, within its constitutional power, as will prevent unjust discriminations and extortionate rates of charges for the transportation of inter-State commerce.

4. We regard the maintenance of a practical system of public free schools of the utmost importance, and to this end favor the largest appropriation, within constitutional limits, justified by the financial condition of the State. And we favor the adoption by the next Legislature of appropriate measures looking to the fulfillment of the constitutional requirements for the organization and maintenance of "the University of Texas."

5. We repudiate as false the charge that the Democratic party of Texas has been opposed to immigration, and, while the Constitution prohibits the use of public money for the support of a bureau of immigration, we urge the next Legislature to make ample provision for the collection and dissemination of statistics pertaining to our agricultural and other resources, to the end that all seeking new homes, knowing our great advantages, may settle in our midst, extending to them a most cordial welcome.

6. The suffering and losses of our people on the frontier enlist our deepest sympathy, and we pledge our most energetic efforts to afford them adequate protection in person and in property, and demand of the General Government that protection for our people thus exposed to which they are entitled under the Constitution of the United States, and which they have never yet received.

7. We enjoin upon the next Legislature the duty of proposing such constitutional amendments as will secure a more efficient judiciary system.

8. We favor the most vigorous enforcement of the law for the suppression of all lawlessness and crime, and pledge the Democratic party of Texas to hold all officers to the fullest measure of duty and responsibility in that behalf.

9. We demand the most rigid economy, consistent with efficiency, in all the departments of the government, and favor the reduction of taxation as soon as the same can be safely done.

The disagreement between the two reports related chiefly to the system of public free schools in the State; to the sale of the State school lands, in regard to the terms of purchase and quantity sold to each purchaser; to

the encouragement to immigration of foreigners into Texas for settlement; and to the protection of the sparsely-settled, unorganized counties in the State. On these points the minority report seemed to express more defined views in detail, and to require a more energetic action on the part of the Legislature and the Executive for the successful carrying out of the respective measures.

The Republican party assembled in State Convention at Hearne, on the 25th of August, when the nominations of their candidates were as follows: For Governor, E. J. Davis; Lieutenant-Governor, A. Siemering; State Treasurer, — Thomas; State Comptroller, S. D. Wood; Attorney-General, W. O. Hutcheson; Commissioner of the General Land-Office, Jacob Heuchler; Judge of the Court of Appeals, J. W. Williamson.

The sheriffs of Texas held their annual convention at Dallas early in August. In his official address to the meeting, Sheriff Corwin stated that a larger number of fugitives from justice had been captured and brought to trial by the State constabulary during the year than in the preceding one. He pointed to the great difficulties met with by a peace-officer in the discharge of his duty, owing to the numberless ways of escape open to criminals in the vastness of the unsettled portions of Texas, and to such facilities for evading arrest when pursued, or conviction when arrested and held to trial, as were afforded them by the criminal laws and criminal procedure, both of which he averred to be exceedingly defective. As the practical discharge of a sheriff's duty, when pursuing malefactors for arrest, and when holding them for trial and punishment, gives him the best means and opportunities for ascertaining the defects of the penal law or procedure, with a view chiefly to have these defects fully set forth and presented to the Legislature, and thereby to secure a thorough correction of them, the following resolutions were adopted by the Convention:

1. We disclaim all effort or inclination upon the part of this association to increase the fees now allowed by law to sheriffs, but we rely upon the wisdom of our Legislature to so regulate them as to justly compensate us for services rendered and money expended.

2. We believe that the peculiar relations which sheriffs sustain to the execution of the criminal law in this State discover to them many defects therein which would escape the attention of the most careful and conscientious legislator, and that it is our duty as well as privilege, as sheriffs, to call the attention of our Legislature to such defects, to the end that in its wisdom it may make such changes and corrections as will promote the prompt and faithful execution of every provision of our penal code and code of criminal procedure.

3. Believing that the proper preparation of such suggestions to the Legislature would require more time and deliberation than this association can at present bestow; and believing it to be all-important that such suggestions be so formulated as to present fully and particularly the views of the sheriffs of Texas:

4. We, therefore, suggest that this association appoint a committee of five to prepare a bill, or bills, fully embodying the changes or corrections in the

law which this association deems necessary to be made.

5. That the members of this body who are present, as well as our brethren who are absent, and the executive officers of the State generally, be requested to correspond with the chairman of said committee, before the first day of November next, giving fully their views upon the needed changes and corrections in our criminal laws.

6. That said committee, at some convenient time and place, after November 1st, meet and formulate for the Legislature such bill, or bills, as will fully express the wishes and suggestions of the association.

7. That said committee be also charged with the duty of having said bill, or bills, properly presented and referred at the next session of our Legislature, thus bringing our suggestions squarely before them, and preventing the silent evasion which alone was accorded us at its last session.

8. It is believed that each sheriff in Texas should be supplied with printed copies of the work of said committee as soon as the same is completed, to the end that he may secure the support of his immediate representative in securing the passage of such bills.

9. Whether the last suggestion is the will of the association, or not, still we urge upon every sheriff in the State the supreme necessity, by himself and through his friends, of securing the earnest support of his representative in effecting these needed reforms, and it is believed that, if we can bring our representatives to fully understand the difficulties in the way of a prompt and efficient administration of our criminal laws, they can but be with us in this attempt to protect the fair name and fame of our beloved State.

The State election of November 2d resulted in favor of the Democratic party, whose nominees were generally elected. The aggregate number of votes polled in the State for Governor was 264,343, of which the Democratic candidate received 166,102; the Republican, 64,382; the Greenback, 33,721; the remaining 139 votes were reckoned scattering. In 1878 the distribution of the votes for Governor among the competing parties was—Democratic candidate, 158,933; Republican, 23,402; Greenback, 55,002.

In regard to the election of members of the Legislature, the political complexion of that body is as follows: In the Senate—twenty-nine Democrats, two Republicans; in the House of Representatives—sixty-nine Democrats, six Independent Democrats, seven Republicans, three Greenbackers. The Democrats claimed for their party, as the result of the election, a gain of one Senator and four Representatives. Among the members returned for either House, the number of persons engaged in the law profession is twenty-three of the thirty-one Senators and thirty-seven of the eighty-five Representatives.

The members-elect of the Seventeenth Legislature of the State assembled at Austin on January 11, 1881, when both Houses were organized by the election of their respective officers.

The State census, taken in 1880, shows the population of Texas to be above one million and a half, or nearly twice as numerous as it was in 1870.

The State tax paid by the people on their property of all kinds is assessed at the rate of fifty cents for every hundred dollars; the ag-

gregate sum annually received into the public Treasury from this source being somewhat more than \$1,500,000, as the entire value of taxable property in the State amounts to \$300,-525,427. The summary table of totals hereto subjoined represents the various kinds of such property, as classified and valued in the tax-rolls for 1879:

Land, 88,166,029 acres, valued at.....	\$139,634,101
Town lots.....	46,608,894
Railroads, 1,769 miles.....	14,471,198
Telegraph lines, 2,008 miles.....	122,870
Land certificates.....	83,141
Steamboats, sailing-vessels, etc.....	121,300
Carrriages, wagons, etc., 134,452.....	4,742,404
Manufacturers' tools, etc.....	3,709,688
Materials and manufactured articles.....	475,939
Horses and mules, 966,760 head.....	18,561,569
Cattle, 3,552,198 head.....	19,866,679
Jacks and jennets, 4,982 head.....	159,074
Sheep, 2,546,582 head.....	8,354,515
Goats, 255,759 head.....	196,364
Hogs, 1,596,686 head.....	2,028,168
Goods, wares, and merchandise.....	14,921,408
Miscellaneous.....	24,544,108

Total (on which the State *ad valorem* tax of 50 cents on the \$100 is \$1,502,668.67).... \$300,525,407

The poll-tax assessed for the same year on 260,294 polls, two dollars *per caput*, adds \$520,-588 to the amount of the aforesaid tax on property; the public revenue from these two sources for 1879 being \$2,023,256.67.

The annual expenditures of the State government for all purposes, ordinary and extraordinary, are less than the receipts from the said two taxes by above a hundred thousand dollars, as appears from the following statement of such expenditures embodied by the State Comptroller in his report for the two fiscal years ended March 1, 1879, and March 1, 1880:

EXPENDITURES.	1878-'79.	1879-'80.
Actual current expenses.....	\$1,411,709 80	\$1,111,255 00
Expenses for permanent public improvements, buildings, etc.....	59,998 29	95,588 27
Extraordinary and occasional expenses.....	90,698 91	142,548 09
Expense on account of public debt.....	868,846 70	567,842 06
Total expenses of government for all purposes from taxation.....	\$1,920,753 70	\$1,916,989 42

The charitable institutions in Texas are well provided for by the State. The appropriations for the maintenance of the Lunatic Asylum, the Deaf-Mutes, and the Blind, during the last two years, were \$77,433.89, \$34,607.13, \$34,-592.87 respectively; the sum expended on each of these institutions in the second year was by several thousands greater than in the first.

For the public schools, the State's expenditure during the same period of time was \$1,-020,092.49; of which total \$640,000 were paid in the first year, \$380,092.49 in the second. For payments made on account of schools the year is reckoned from August 31st. The total amount expended on them for all purposes within that period was \$1,632,485. The total school expense for 1880 was \$717,485; for the previous year, \$915,000.

The number of public free schools in operation in 1879 was 5,804 in 145 counties; and for 1880, 111 counties, heard from up to March 1st, had 4,648 schools in operation, estimating their total number in the State at 6,500. The average school-term for each year has been four months. The children of school age in the State numbered about 230,000.

In the Sam Houston Normal School, at Huntsville, the number of students in attendance in April, 1880, was 109; thirty among whom graduated in June, to be employed as teachers in the public free schools, having received a thorough training for that purpose within their own State. The principal of this school estimates that the number of its students hereafter will be double what it has been.

The Prairie View Normal School, established in Waller County for colored students, and first opened on October 6, 1879, with twelve State and four local students, has grown up so rapidly within a few months that on March 1, 1880, the number of students attending it was forty-nine.

The condition of public instruction in Harris County, and probably in the other districts of Texas, during the four years last past, has steadily gained in the lengthened time of tuition and in the lessened cost of maintaining the schools, especially with regard to the compensation paid to teachers.

As a public endowment and permanent fund for educational and charitable purposes, the subjoined quantities of State lands were for sale in Texas at the close of the year 1880, the proceeds to be funded and the income applied exclusively to the advancement of the above-named objects:

School lands (acres)	30,000,000
University lands	219,906
Asylum lands	407,615

The condition of the State Penitentiary in Texas, as officially represented, is improved in many respects, and generally better than it had been for a number of years. The number and employment of the State prisoners have been as follows: "In February, 1881, the total number of convicts, including 31 United States convicts, was 1,982, an increase of 242 since the last report, in November, 1878. The increase has been gradual. The total number of pardons delivered during that period was 84. . . . During the same period there were 522 discharged, 174 deaths, and 244 escapes. . . . As to the employment of the convicts, there were 333 of them at regular prison work in Huntsville; 233 building the new brick penitentiary; 127 at the iron-foundry in Marion County; 146 on the Texas Pacific and International and Great Northern Railways; 174 cutting wood on the line of the first-named road; 933 at work on plantations in Brazos River Valley; 15 at saw-mills; and 21 hired out as servants in Huntsville."

TURKEY, an empire in Eastern Europe, Western Asia, and Northern Africa. The

reigning sovereign is Sultan Abdul-Hamid II, born September 22, 1842. He succeeded his older brother, Sultan Murad V, August 31, 1876. The heir-presumptive to the throne is his brother, Mehemet Reshad Effendi, born November 3, 1844. The total area of Turkey, inclusive of all dependencies, was estimated in 1880 at 2,119,800 square miles, with a population of 45,578,000. (For other statistics, see "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1879.)

The British ambassador at Constantinople had suspended official relations with the Porte two days before the new year began, although a kind of semi-official intercourse was still maintained, because a demand which he had made for the release of a Turkish priest who had been condemned to death for translating parts of the Bible into the Turkish language had not been complied with. The case arose out of the arrest of a German missionary named Köller, an agent of an English missionary society, for distributing Christian tracts among Mussulman subjects. A Turkish ulema, Ahmed Tevfik, had taken part in the preparation of the tracts, and was condemned as a Mohammeden who had published matter contrary to the faith. Sir Henry Layard had sent a communication to the Government, demanding the restitution of Mr. Köller's papers, the release of Ahmed Tevfik, and the dismissal from their posts of the chief of police, Hafiz Pasha, who was said to have ordered Ahmed Tevfik's arrest, and of the military commandant of Van, who had used insulting language toward England and the British consular agents in Turkey. The Porte replied that Mr. Köller was a German subject, and denied that Ahmed Tevfik had been sentenced to death. The German Government interested itself in the matter, out of regard to the nationality of Mr. Köller; and at length the Sultan, with his own hands, delivered to the British ambassador the papers of the missionary, which had been confiscated. An assurance was given that Ahmed Tevfik should be released and treated well. The dismissal of Hafiz Pasha was waived, upon his statement that he was ignorant of the arrest till it had taken place; and he was shortly afterward invested with the grand cordon of the order of the Medjidie.

Sir Henry Layard resumed official relations with the Porte on the 2d of January. The Sultan promised to assist the family of Ahmed Tevfik; but, in reply to a demand that the sentence passed upon him should be annulled, the Turkish Government pointed out that the religious *Fetna* condemning the mollah did not constitute a judgment, and that, therefore, there was no necessity for canceling it. A few days later, a note, addressed by the Porte to Sir Henry Layard, reviewing and replying to the three points of the demand which he had made concerning this affair, was published. It argued that the proceedings of Mr. Köller justified the seizure of his papers, which were only returned to him out of regard for Eng-

land; that Ahmed Tefvik deserved the punishment awarded to him, in conformity with the religious laws of the country, and that he was liberated only by the clemency of the Sultan; and expressed satisfaction at the resumption of official relations with Sir Henry Layard. Hafiz Pasha gave an explanation of his part in the affair, which was accepted as satisfactory; and it was agreed that Ahmed Tefvik should be removed to an island having a Christian population. The exchange of notes on the subject, however, still continued. Sir Henry Layard refused to accept the principle laid down by the Turkish officers that a foreigner might be arrested, provided his ambassador were informed of the fact within twenty-four hours of the events. The aspect of the case in view of the Treaty of Berlin was reviewed. Sawas Pasha insisted that the seizure of Mr. Köller's papers was justified, and that the release of Ahmed Tefvik was an act of grace on the part of the Sultan. Sir Henry Layard recognized the good intentions of the Sultan, and was disposed to consider the matter settled. Negotiations were continued in January and February between Sir Henry Layard and Sawas Pasha for the constitution of a Protestant community in Turkey, under the direction of a chief ecclesiastic, for whom the British ambassador claimed the privileges of a Patriarch. The Porte, however, insisted upon certain restrictions in respect to these privileges.

The Council of Ministers concluded the discussion of the budget in March. It was resolved to introduce the gold standard with the Turkish pound as the monetary basis, its value being fixed at one hundred piasters. The revenue from all sources was required to be paid into the Treasury in gold, but provision was made for the acceptance of the debased metallic currency in payment of arrears due the Government at the rate of two hundred piasters to the Turkish pound. Reductions of nearly thirty per cent., which it was proposed to realize from the abolition of certain of the Ottoman embassies abroad, were decided upon in the estimates of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. Other retrenchments included reductions in the salaries of many of the state officers. The Government also resolved to double the land-tax, in order to balance the budget.

A decree fixing the value of the medjidie at nineteen instead of twenty piasters, the effect of which involved a depreciation of the currency and a loss to the public of six or seven million pounds, was the occasion of great discontent and some serious disturbances. Business was suspended in Crete. In Aleppo, the Mussulmans denounced the Christians as the cause of the poverty of the Government. At Damascus, the traders refused to accept the metallic money with which the soldiers had been paid, and trouble arose. Similar scenes took place in other towns in Asia; and Midhat Pasha, Governor of Syria, declared that he

could not guarantee the carrying out of the measure, and that it was likely to be attended with grave consequences. The Austrian *chargé d'affaires* remonstrated against the depreciation of the currency, because it involved a change in the construction of the treaty with Austria. Sir Henry Layard informed the Government that the payment of customs, light-house, and sanitary dues would be made under protest, because the depreciation was equivalent to an increase of those duties. Sir Henry Layard also formally protested against an arrangement which had been entered into by the Porte with the Galata bankers, declaring that the indirect taxes had already been hypotheated to the English bondholders.

The budget was criticised by the Minister of the Interior, Mahmoud Nedim Pasha, who declared that the estimates of revenue were illusory. He refused to give the proof of his allegations when asked to do so by the officers whom the Sultan had designated to examine his objections, saying it was the duty of the Council to point out the inaccuracies of the estimates. The Sultan then referred the budget to the Council, which proceeded to examine the details in the presence of Khereddin and Safvet Pashas. On the conclusion of the examination and discussion, Said Pasha proposed that, in view of the opposition it had met with, the budget should be signed afresh by all the Ministers, notwithstanding that it had been already signed. All the Ministers who were present assented to the proposition and attached their names to the document, except Mahmoud Nedim Pasha, who left the Council. The budget was approved by the Sultan. The Government suffered great stringency for the want of money. A reduction in the number of departments of the Imperial Council was ordered as a measure of economy; the telegraph service was impeded on account of the want of means to pay the operatives. When, in the latter part of April, the Sultan ordered three battalions to Yemen to subdue the recalcitrant tribes of southwestern Arabia, the small sum required for transport and maintenance could not be raised. All the principal bankers of Galata were applied to in vain, and his Majesty had finally to content himself with dispatching three engineers to try to protect the scanty garrisons on the spot by constructing earthworks.

The Ottoman Bank in September made an advance to the Government of £50,000 Turkish. Early in October the British and French Governments, having claimed from the Porte the payment of the funds for the coupon of the loan of 1855, the Porte applied to the bankers who farmed the indirect taxes to advance the amount required out of the sum which had been set apart for the foreign bondholders. The bankers declined to accede to the request until the Government had come to an arrangement on the matter with the holders of bonds of all the other loans. The Government a few

days afterward issued a notice inviting the bondholders to appoint delegates to represent them at Constantinople in the arrangement of a thorough and practical solution of the question of the debt, stating that the questions of the floating debt and the Russian war indemnity would be taken into consideration in connection with the new arrangement. The British and Italian ambassadors objected to the proposal of the Porte to enter into direct negotiations with the bondholders, and signified a demand for the appointment of an International Commission in accordance with the eighteenth protocol of the Treaty of Berlin. Their suggestion was declined, on the ground that the Sultan was opposed to European interference with the internal affairs of the empire. In answer to a question by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, whether the International Commission would imply any guardianship of Turkish finance, Mr. Goschen replied that executive functions were not contemplated. In the mean time, the credit of the Government was gradually depreciating, and it was with great difficulty that it succeeded in getting from the bankers in November half the amount of the advance it asked, with which to make the customary payment of arrears to the civil officers and troops. The amounts paid were considerably short of what was due, and nothing was paid to the navy. The Stock Exchange Committees of London and Paris, according to the "Vakit" of Constantinople, signified their willingness in December to accept the Porte's proposal for a financial arrangement as the basis of negotiations. The London "Morning Post," with a view of showing that the financial situation of the empire was not so desperate as it seemed, published a statement in December that the Porte had, during the past year, paid one million pounds of its floating debt in cash, and would have by the end of the year five hundred thousand pounds in the Ottoman Bank at the disposal of its bondholders.

Trouble arose with the Albanians during the negotiations for the rectification of the Montenegrin frontiers, on account of their opposition to the surrender of any Albanian territory. In April a proclamation was issued by the leaders of the Albanian League, declaring that Europe had created a principality for the Bulgarians, had delivered Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria, had endowed Serbia and Montenegro with increased territory and independence, and had given Roumelia autonomy; but Albania had received nothing. The Albanians, it added, must claim the right to create a state for themselves. The paper was signed by Ali Pasha and the secular and ecclesiastical chiefs of the Mohammedan and Roman Catholic tribes. A conference was held at Scutari, May 29th, when the party which was adverse to offensive action, and willing to await the decision of the powers, proved to be predominant, and it was decided to address another memorandum to

the consular corps. The result of the conference was said to be to widen still more the breach that already existed between the Mohammedan and Roman Catholic chieftains. The representatives of the Albanian League sent a dispatch to Mr. Gladstone congratulating him on his appointment as First Minister of the Crown, and invoking "the exalted protection of the English nation for the cause of their territorial integrity and the preservation of their rights, to which they had devoted their efforts and their life."

The attitude of the Porte toward the powers, in view of the proceedings that were taken with reference to securing the enforcement of the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, was, in the mean time, becoming more equivocal. A conference of the powers had been called to meet at Berlin, June 16th, to consider the question of the rectification of the Greek and Montenegrin frontiers, and reforms in Armenia, and the Porte seemed to be acting under a policy of resistance. Excitement prevailed at Constantinople, and European residents began to be anxious about their personal safety. A council of the ulemas, called to consider whether Veli Mohammed, the assassin of the Russian Colonel Commeroff, should be executed, and whether European intervention in Turkish affairs should be accepted, decided both questions in the negative. The Sheik-ul-Islam refused to sign the order for the execution of Veli Mohammed. The Ministers cultivated the fanatical party. A part, however, including even some of the officers, were pleased with the idea of a European intervention; and Musurus Pasha, at a Cabinet council, endeavored to reassure the Ministers respecting the course of the English Government, and the mission of Mr. Goschen. Said Pasha was, however, notoriously opposed to any concession being made to English representations, and the Ministry had not yet been brought to believe that any united action of Europe with regard to their dominions was possible.

Mr. Goschen arrived at Therapia, the headquarters of the embassy on the Bosphorus, on the special mission on which he had been dispatched by the new British Government, May 28th, and Sir Henry Layard left Constantinople on the 2d of June. Mr. Goschen was given an audience with the Sultan on the 3d of June, when, having presented his credentials, he said it was his first duty to fulfill his mission to the satisfaction of the Queen, who had confided it to him. At the same time, he should be happy if during his stay, which would be limited, he could assist in bringing about an amelioration of the condition of the Sultan's subjects, without distinction of race or religion, which he was convinced his Majesty ardently desired. Mr. Goschen afterward had a private interview with the Sultan, which lasted half an hour. The Sultan, in his reply to Mr. Goschen, said that his most lively desire was to promote prosperity and order in the em-

pire, and develop the well-being of his people, in accordance with the necessities of the times. All his efforts were directed to that end. He also expressed his confidence that the personal qualities of the ambassador afforded a sure guarantee that his Excellency would serve as a means of realizing the benevolent dispositions with which the British Government, the old friend of Turkey, was animated, and that these personal qualities would help to consolidate the ties of friendship uniting the two governments.

A change of Ministry was announced June 9th, when Said Pasha and Sawas Pasha were dismissed, and replaced by Cadri Pasha, hitherto Minister of Commerce, as Prime Minister, and Abeddin Pasha as Minister of Foreign Affairs; Cadri Pasha retained the office of Minister of Commerce. The Prime Minister was instructed, in the imperial *hatt* containing the nominations, to introduce necessary reforms without delay, and to preserve such good relations with the powers as were consistent with the interests of the empire. The change in the Ministry was generally believed to be due to Mr. Goschen's private communication to the Sultan; but it was thought by many persons that the new Ministers were the creatures of Said Pasha, whom the Sultan had dismissed in order to please England, with the appearance of discharging him, while he virtually retained him in power. In July, Osman Pasha was dismissed from the Ministry of War, and was succeeded by Hussein Husni Pasha, formerly Governor of Scutari.

The spirit of the Albanian League was not weakened by the dissensions which had arisen between the Mussulmans and the Roman Catholics; and the body sent a message to the conference at Berlin, saying that its members would never consent to the dismemberment of their country, or to an exchange by which they might be subjected to foreign rule. The decision of the conference to assign Dulcigno to Montenegro was received by them with indignation, and bodies of men were promptly stationed at points commanding that place to prevent its occupation. New levies were also called for. The final cession of Dulcigno had the effect of disheartening the Albanian Mohammedans. Desertions took place among the Turkish reserves, and many Mohammedan notables manifested a disposition to come to an understanding with Greece, and accept the special privileges which that country offered them. The Porte having resolved to send the Prince of the Miridites and the chiefs of the Albanian League for trial before a council of war, the Austrian ambassador presented a note pointing out the privileges which were assigned to the Prince under the Treaty of Berlin, and demanding that he be released from arrest and reinstated in his rank. A conciliatory reply was made to these representations. The suppression of the Albanian League was ordered in December. Agitation again broke out in

northern Albania near the end of that month, when the men liable to military service refused to obey the conscription regulations, and the order to call out the reserves remained without effect. Turkish functionaries at Prisrend, Uskup, and Ipek were dismissed and replaced by Albanians, and the League issued a summons calling the male population to arms. The year ended with the authority of the Porte seriously compromised. The proceedings of the conference at Berlin, and the action of the powers with reference to it, were watched by the Porte with strict attention, and an evident disposition to make the most of every defect in form or substance of its decisions, and to take advantage of any sign that might appear of disagreement or of interruption to the European concert. The conference adopted a note to be presented by the powers as a collective one, describing the territory that should be allotted to Montenegro, defining the line which should be followed as the boundary of Greece, so as to give it a large part of Thessaly and Epirus, and insisting upon the execution of reforms in Armenia. This note was presented to the Porte, July 15th, by Count Hatzfeld, the German ambassador. Great excitement had prevailed on the subject among the Turkish population of Constantinople and in court circles, but it had begun to calm down, and the disposition of the Sultan and his Ministers was more conciliatory than when the conference first met. Still, the communication was far from being a pleasant one, and many of its demands were extremely disagreeable. The Porte replied that it objected to ceding Janina, Metzovo, and Larissa to Greece, as well for strategical reasons as on the ground of nationality, but was willing to make concession to the Hellenic kingdom; and it hoped that the powers would not deny its right to take part in the settlement of the Greek frontier, as it had done in those of Servia and Montenegro, and that they would authorize their representatives at Constantinople to treat with it concerning these and other questions. A second collective note was addressed to the Porte, declining to reopen the discussion, and insisting upon the resolutions of the conference, but expressing the willingness of the powers to receive the proposals of the Porte as to the manner in which the territory should be evacuated and handed over. Before a reply to this note was received, the powers had instituted a grand naval demonstration in the waters of the Adriatic, to enforce the surrender of Dulcigno to Montenegro. On the 17th of September the Porte addressed a note to its representatives abroad, explaining what it had done to overcome the objections of its Mussulman population to the cession of territory and to secure the execution of the demands of the powers, and complaining of their urgency and uncompromising attitude. On the 4th of October, the Turkish Government presented a note to the ambassadors, undertaking to induce the local population of Dulcigno to con-

sent to the cession to Montenegro, but disavowing all complications that might arise from the failure of the attempt; declaring it impossible to give to Greece the territory designated by the conference, and suggesting another boundary which it would establish within a hundred days; promising certain reforms in districts inhabited by Armenians, which should be made effective within three months; demanding that all means of pressure "be both now and for the future absolutely and finally renounced," and claiming the rights reverting to it under the Treaty of Berlin in relation to the demolition of the Danubian fortresses and the occupation of the Balkans by Ottoman troops. The powers presented their ultimatum on the next day, and on the 11th the Porte made a positive agreement to deliver Dulcigno to Montenegro. The fleets of the powers separated after the surrender was effected, November 26th. The debates respecting the territory to be ceded to Greece were protracted into 1881.

The Porte, at the beginning of July, had prepared a scheme for the government of Armenia, the principal points of which were—a Christian governor; the division of the provinces into small districts, the governors of which should be Christian or Moslem according to the faith of the majority of the population; the governor to be assisted by two Moslems if a Christian, by two Christians if a Mussulman; stringent courts of law for the several districts, and a police force in each district, to consist of six men, four of whom should be Christians if a majority of the population were Christian—four Moslem if the majority were Mussulmans.

The Governor of Beyrout came to Constantinople at about the same time with a scheme of reforms proposed for Asia Minor by Midhat Pasha, asking that the latter should be given the same power over the army that he had when Governor of Bagdad and Bulgaria, when he had entire command; that he have the sole right to appoint the *caimakans* and *mutasarriffs* to superintend the law courts, to suspend the judges, and stop the execution of judgments; that the gendarmerie be put at his service exclusively; that he be authorized to raise the salaries of the public officers to the old rates, and to guarantee their payment on certain revenues; that he be allowed to collect the tithes and other taxes in any way he might think best, and through officers of his own choice; that he might divide Syria for purposes of government as he should think best; that he should be permitted to control municipal matters through his agents, and the functions of the municipal councils be limited to a consultative voice; and that he be authorized to suppress the allowance of fifty thousand pounds from Syria for the annual expenses on account of the pilgrimages to Mecca.

A collective note on the Armenian question
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was presented by Mr. Goschen in September. It refuted the statement of Abeddin Pasha that the Government had already begun the work of reform, and, after criticising the projected reforms, declared that they were inadequate to the object in view, and that a much greater development of the principles of decentralization and religious equality, the organization of a better police force, more energetic protection against the Kurds, and more definite provisions concerning the functions of governors-general could alone satisfy the rights and expectations created by the sixty-first article of the Treaty of Berlin.

The British vice-consul at Van in December reported that the working of the new arrondissements created in Armenia had greatly disappointed the Armenians, inasmuch as the districts were divided in such a manner as to give the Mussulmans a majority. He added, in his report, that European supervision was an indispensable condition for carrying out the desired reforms.

The International Commission for Reform in the European provinces completed its work, and signed the organic law for those provinces, August 24th. It was considered a very complete code, containing, it was said, everything essential for good government. It is modeled upon the organic law of Crete, defines the attributes of the Wali, principal officers, and general council, makes provision for the appointment in each province of a director of education and agriculture, stipulates for the assignment of a portion of the surplus revenue to public works, and gives the councils power to raise taxes for expenditure upon local objects.

Reports were published in August of a condition of general uneasiness among the Mohammedan people. A movement was believed to be on foot to excite discontent among the Indian Mohammedans, which was to be aroused by publications showing that the British Government was pursuing an unfriendly policy toward the Sultan, the representative of the Caliphs. Great agitation at Damascus and Diarbekir, which had the appearance of being of a political character and not a mere outbreak of fanaticism, excited the anxiety of the Porte. The Sultan was represented as being unpopular with his people, in consequence of the ills which had befallen Turkey ever since his accession to the throne. A prince, who conveyed an order to the Bey of Tunis, was said to have instruction to confer with prominent Arabs in Algeria in the interest of his sovereign. The Sultan, however, denied that any pamphlets had been sent to India, with his knowledge, with the object of stirring up the Mohammedan population against England.

Suffering from scarcity of food prevailed in many parts of the empire from the beginning of the year. Apprehensions that a famine would be general on the eastern frontier, which

were expressed early in January, were realized long before the summer. Great distress prevailed in European Turkey, especially among the refugees, in the winter. Dreadful accounts began to be made in the spring of distress in Armenia. The winter wheat had been frozen out, the price of breadstuffs was advancing, and the people were dying from the effects of bad food, while their cattle and sheep were also perishing. The distress grew as the season advanced, and was aggravated by the depredations which were committed by the insurgent Kurds in Turkey and Persia. The writer of a letter published in the London "Daily News," in June, describing the scenes he witnessed during a journey from Diarbekir to Bagdad, said that people were continually dying in the streets at Mosul, and it was common to see them lying there in the last stages of weakness and destitution. On the 15th of June about three thousand starving people pillaged the Government grain-depot and other stores at Diarbekir. Order was restored in this and a subsequent attack at the expense of several persons killed and wounded. The ravages of the famine continued to increase through July, and the depredations of the Kurds were added to them. The Bishop of Van asserted that all the money in the world could not prevent the total destruction of the Armenians if pillage and murder under these fearful circumstances continued, and supplicated the Sultan for redress. Dr. Parsons, an American missionary, and his American servant, were murdered, August 1st, a short distance from Ismidt, while on the road to distribute relief to the famished population. The murderers, who belonged to a nomad tribe, were arrested and confessed the crime on examination. The Government of the United States instructed its *chargé d'affaires* to impress upon the Porte the necessity of taking prompt and energetic steps to punish the murderers; and Mr. Heap, the *chargé*, delivered a note demanding that they be immediately brought to Constantinople and put upon their trial. The disturbances among the Kurds assumed a more general character in September, when new troubles were reported in the district south of New Bajazid in the sandjak of Musch, and in other parts of the same region. Incendiary proclamations were addressed to the Armenians by the insurgent chiefs, and the Governor-General of Van applied to Constantinople for reinforcements, but was answered that none could be spared. On the 20th of September the Kurds had destroyed thirteen Armenian villages. The British consul-general at Bagdad reported, about the 1st of October,

that the measures taken by the Turkish authorities, for the protection of life and property on the Tigris, were wholly inadequate. The consul in Kurdistan also commented on the inactivity shown by the Governor, in face of the lawless proceedings of the Kurds.

A proposition was submitted by Midhat Pasha, in September, for the suppression of brigandage in the vilayet of Smyrna, by the organization of a force of gendarmerie and the institution of extraordinary commissions to try criminals.

Tribal disturbances broke out, in the latter part of May, in the pashalik of Bassora. Four battalions of Turkish troops, sent to Ilha, were surrounded by Arabs, and telegraphic communication was cut. Works were thrown up along the course of the Tigris, preventing the passage of the English steamers on that river.

The Grand Shereef of Mecca was stabbed, March 19th, as he was entering the town of Jiddah, by a man in the dress of a dervish, and died from the effects of his wound on the following Sunday. An attempt was made in June on the life of his successor, who, however, escaped unhurt.

A fearful state of anarchy and brigandage prevailed in Thessaly and Epirus in the latter months of the year. Colonel Synge, who had been sent by Sir Henry Layard to distribute relief to the Mussulman refugees in Eastern Roumelia, was captured near Salonica, in February, by the notorious Greek brigand Niko, who demanded a heavy ransom for his release, and threatened to kill him if any armed force was sent to deliver him. The captured man sent a message to the British consul-general, earnestly requesting that no troops might be sent in pursuit; and the Turkish Government cautioned its officers against adopting a course that might exasperate the brigands to execute their threat. A small guard was, however, sent in search of the brigands, and this, it was said, had the effect of delaying the negotiations for the payment of the ransom of twelve thousand lira and various presents which they demanded, and for the release of the prisoner. Their demands were finally satisfied, and Colonel Synge was set free, after having been held a prisoner for about a month. He was kept, during the whole period of his captivity, in a cave guarded by five men. He had to put up with indifferent fare, but received no bad treatment. Once, however, when the brigands heard that another band had proposed to the British consul to capture Niko and hold him in exchange for Colonel Synge, they threatened to roast him alive.

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UNITARIANS. *The National Conference of the Unitarian and other Liberal Christian Churches* met in its biennial session at Saratoga Springs, New York, September 21st. The Hon. E. R. Hoar presided. The Council of the Conference reported that it had saved the Church of the Messiah, in New York City, from a forced sale; had raised \$115,000 to endow two new professorships in Harvard Divinity School; and had secured funds for the Channing Memorial Church at Newport, Rhode Island. The report recommended that steps be taken, without infringing on the independence of the churches, to organize the forces of the denomination for united work; that delegates to the Conference be authorized to pledge the churches for certain amounts; and that funds be raised for a business building in Boston, to be called the Channing Memorial Building. The American Unitarian Association reported that its average annual receipts were \$25,000, and that larger contributions were needed to increase its work in America, India, and Hungary; and recommended that \$50,000 be raised for the next year. The Western Conference reported that fifty active societies were supplied by thirty-five preachers, and that in the last two years church debts amounting to \$95,000 had been paid, and thirteen new churches had been built. Favorable reports were made of the condition of the churches in New Orleans, Charleston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. Reports were made of the condition of 250 Unitarian Sunday-schools, with 5,000 teachers and 25,000 pupils. The Conference recommended that \$5,000 be raised for the Sunday-school Association, and \$10,000 for the school at Hampton, Virginia, for colored children; that an annual tax of one dollar be assessed on each pew-holder, for the care of aged and disabled clergymen. Delegates were appointed to carry the greetings of the Conference to the next General Convention of the Universalists. Pledges of \$30,000 were obtained during the meeting of the Conference for the Divinity School at Meadville, Pennsylvania. A report was made from a Committee on Woman's Associations, which had been appointed at the previous Conference, relating to the organization of a Woman's Auxiliary Conference to promote local organizations for Christian work, and to bring all such organizations into the Association, which should hold a biennial business meeting in connection with the National Conference.

UNITED BRETHREN CHURCH. The following is a summary of the organized churches, and number of ministers and members of this Church, as they are given in the "United Brethren Almanac" for 1881:

CONFERENCES.	Organized churches.	Number of ministers.	Number of members.
Alleghany.....	167	53	6,674
Auglaize.....	157	67	6,116
California.....	23	29	684
Central Illinois.....	78	45	2,671
Central Ohio.....	70	51	3,692
Colorado.....	14	11	232
Dakota.....	27	21	510
Eastern.....	99	47	4,596
East Des Moines.....	62	32	1,468
East Nebraska.....	118	50	2,160
East Pennsylvania.....	67	61	4,883
Erie.....	126	62	3,460
Fox River.....	22	10	399
Illinois.....	85	51	3,128
Indiana.....	188	80	6,098
Iowa.....	98	78	3,162
Kansas.....	174	49	2,164
Kentucky.....	19	12	544
Lower Wabash.....	182	70	5,685
Miami.....	88	65	6,566
Michigan.....	98	42	2,640
Minnesota.....	57	25	1,251
Missouri.....	99	48	2,162
Muskegon.....	74	39	4,249
North Ohio.....	126	62	5,308
Ohio German.....	46	27	1,806
Ontario.....	32	20	1,100
Oregon.....	46	22	918
Osage.....	175	60	2,999
Parkersburg.....	190	57	6,950
Pennsylvania.....	154	65	7,701
Rock River.....	65	52	1,998
Saginaw.....	144	54	2,261
Sandusky.....	183	93	6,873
Scioto.....	171	90	6,602
St. Joseph.....	189	67	7,045
Southern Illinois.....	27	8	768
Tennessee.....	80	16	741
Upper Wabash.....	134	73	5,915
Virginia.....	186	69	8,368
Walla Walla.....	13	7	267
West Des Moines.....	112	52	2,706
West Kansas.....	81	23	1,859
West Nebraska.....	60	19	862
Western Reserve.....	79	44	3,188
White River.....	111	79	6,006
Wisconsin.....	76	39	2,150
Total.....	4,524	2,196	157,585

Number of Sunday-schools, 3,043, with 26,819 officers and teachers, and 159,141 children; number of meeting-houses, 2,168; of parsonages, 318. Amount of collections for salaries of ministers, \$345,169; for ministerial aid, \$2,755; for missions, \$41,592; for bishops, \$6,225; for church-erection, \$1,831; for church building and expenses, \$234,117; for the educational fund, \$20,882; for ministerial education, \$1,244; Sunday-school collections, \$45,066; collections for the general Sunday-school fund, \$1,646; total amount of collections, \$700,531. The returns show an increase of 3,039 members from the previous year.

The bishops of the United Brethren Church are: Rev. J. J. Glossbrenner, Churchville, Virginia; Rev. Jonathan Weaver, D. D., Dayton, Ohio; Rev. John Dickson, D. D., Westerville, Ohio; Rev. Nicholas Castle, Philomath, Oregon; Rev. Milton Wright, D. D., Cedar Rapids, Iowa. The general publishing-house is in Dayton, Ohio. The periodicals include one

English religious weekly newspaper, five publications in the interest and for the purposes of Sunday-schools and children, one paper in the interest of missions, a German religious weekly newspaper, and a youth's paper in the German language. The educational institutions are: Lebanon Valley College, Annville, Pennsylvania; Otterbein University, Westerville, Ohio; Hartsville University, Hartsville, Indiana; Westfield College, Westfield, Illinois; Lane University, Lecompton, Kansas; Western College, Western, Iowa; Philomath College, Philomath, Oregon; Green Hill Seminary, Green Hill, Indiana; Avalon Academy, Avalon, Missouri; Elroy Seminary, Elroy, Wisconsin; Edwards Academy, Greenville, Tennessee; Fostoria Academy, Fostoria, Ohio; and the Union Biblical Seminary, Dayton, Ohio.

UNITED STATES. The tenth census of the United States was taken during the year, but the tables of statistics, excepting those of population, have not been completed. The following shows the population in June compared with that of 1870:

STATES.	1880.	1870.
Alabama.....	1,262,794	996,992
Arkansas.....	802,564	484,471
California.....	864,686	582,081
Colorado.....	194,649	47,164*
Connecticut.....	622,638	537,454
Delaware.....	148,654	125,015
Florida.....	267,351	158,248
Georgia.....	1,539,048	1,164,109
Illinois.....	8,078,709	2,589,491
Indiana.....	1,978,362	1,680,437
Iowa.....	1,624,620	1,192,002
Kansas.....	995,966	873,299
Kentucky.....	1,648,708	1,321,011
Louisiana.....	940,108	726,915
Maine.....	648,945	626,915
Maryland.....	984,632	780,854
Massachusetts.....	1,783,012	1,457,351
Michigan.....	1,686,381	1,187,234
Minnesota.....	780,806	446,056
Mississippi.....	1,131,592	827,922
Missouri.....	2,168,804	1,721,295
Nebraska.....	562,493	129,322
Nevada.....	62,265	58,711
New Hampshire.....	346,984	318,800
New Jersey.....	1,400,047	4,387,464
New York.....	5,058,810	1,071,361
North Carolina.....	8,198,239	2,665,260
Ohio.....	174,767	101,883
Oregon.....	4,282,786	3,521,590
Pennsylvania.....	2,765,828	217,853
Rhode Island.....	595,622	705,606
South Carolina.....	1,542,463	1,255,520
Tennessee.....	1,592,574	818,899
Texas.....	828,286	380,551
Vermont.....	1,512,806	1,225,163
Virginia.....	618,443	442,014
West Virginia.....	1,815,480	1,064,985
Wisconsin.....	49,369,795	38,250,374
District of Columbia.....	177,638	181,700
TERRITORIES.		
Arizona.....	40,441	41,710
Dakota.....	135,180	40,501
Idaho.....	32,611	20,583
Montano.....	39,157	39,895
New Mexico.....	118,430	111,808
Utah.....	143,906	99,581
Washington.....	75,120	37,432
Wyoming.....	20,788	11,518
Total of Territories.....	605,693	402,523
Grand total of the United States, not including Indian Territory and Alaska.....	50,152,866	38,784,507

* Not a State in 1870.

The population of the cities having more than thirty thousand inhabitants, compared with that of 1870, is as follows:

CITIES.	1880.	1870.
1. New York, New York.....	1,206,590	942,292 (1)
2. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.....	546,984	674,022 (2)
3. Brooklyn, New York.....	566,480	396,400 (3)
4. Chicago, Illinois.....	508,304	298,977 (4)
5. Boston, Massachusetts.....	362,585	250,526 (5)
6. St. Louis, Missouri.....	350,522	310,864 (4)
7. Baltimore, Maryland.....	332,190	267,354 (6)
8. Cincinnati, Ohio.....	255,708	216,289 (8)
9. San Francisco, California.....	238,956	149,743 (10)
10. New Orleans, Louisiana.....	216,140	191,418 (9)
11. Cleveland, Ohio.....	160,142	92,829 (15)
12. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.....	156,381	86,076 (16)
13. Buffalo, New York.....	155,187	117,714 (11)
14. Washington, District of Columbia.....	147,307	109,199 (12)
15. Newark, New Jersey.....	136,400	105,059 (13)
16. Louisville, Kentucky.....	125,618	100,733 (14)
17. Jersey City, New Jersey.....	120,728	82,546 (18)
18. Detroit, Michigan.....	116,342	70,577 (18)
19. Milwaukee, Wisconsin.....	115,578	71,440 (19)
20. Providence, Rhode Island.....	104,350	68,904 (21)
21. Albany, New York.....	90,908	60,422 (20)
22. Rochester, New York.....	89,363	62,886 (22)
23. Allegheny, Pennsylvania.....	78,681	56,180 (23)
24. Indianapolis, Indiana.....	75,074	48,244 (27)
25. Richmond, Virginia.....	68,808	51,018 (24)
26. New Haven, Connecticut.....	62,882	50,440 (25)
27. Lowell, Massachusetts.....	59,485	40,928 (31)
28. Worcester, Massachusetts.....	55,295	41,105 (30)
29. Troy, New York.....	56,747	40,568 (28)
30. Kansas City, Missouri.....	52,618	38,440 (26)
31. Cambridge, Massachusetts.....	52,740	39,634 (33)
32. Syracuse, New York.....	51,791	48,051 (29)
33. Columbus, Ohio.....	51,665	31,274 (42)
34. Paterson, New Jersey.....	50,887	38,579 (37)
35. Toledo, Ohio.....	50,143	31,784 (46)
36. Charleston, South Carolina.....	49,999	48,956 (26)
37. Fall River, Massachusetts.....	49,006	26,766 (49)
38. Minneapolis, Minnesota.....	46,887	13,066 (62)
39. Scranton, Pennsylvania.....	45,850	35,192 (35)
40. Nashville, Tennessee.....	43,461	25,805 (51)
41. Reading, Pennsylvania.....	43,280	33,620 (36)
42. Hartford, Connecticut.....	42,553	37,180 (34)
43. Wilmington, Delaware.....	42,490	30,541 (43)
44. Camden, New Jersey.....	41,658	20,045 (56)
45. St. Paul, Minnesota.....	41,498	20,030 (57)
46. Lawrence, Massachusetts.....	39,178	28,291 (45)
47. Dayton, Ohio.....	38,677	30,473 (44)
48. Lynn, Massachusetts.....	38,284	28,238 (48)
49. Atlanta, Georgia.....	37,421	21,759 (54)
50. Denver, Colorado.....	35,680	4,759 (64)
51. Oakland, California.....	34,556	10,500 (63)
52. Utica, New York.....	33,913	28,804 (46)
53. Portland, Maine.....	33,810	31,413 (41)
54. Memphis, Tennessee.....	32,518	40,226 (32)
55. Springfield, Massachusetts.....	32,340	26,708 (50)
56. Manchester, New Hampshire.....	32,630	22,536 (52)
57. St. Joseph, Missouri.....	32,484	19,565 (53)
58. Grand Rapids, Michigan.....	32,015	16,507 (60)
59. Wheeling, West Virginia.....	31,266	19,250 (59)
60. Mobile, Alabama.....	31,205	32,034 (59)
61. Hoboken, New Jersey.....	30,999	20,297 (55)
62. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.....	30,762	28,104 (58)
63. Savannah, Georgia.....	30,681	28,235 (57)
64. Omaha, Nebraska.....	30,518	16,038 (61)

The table on the following page shows the classification of population by race, nativity, and sex.

Few important changes occurred in any part of the administration of the Government during the year. Postmaster-General D. M. Key retired in the month of May, and was appointed District Judge in Tennessee. His successor was Horace Maynard, of Tennessee, previously Minister to Turkey, General James Longstreet taking his place at Constantinople. In January, James Russell Lowell, of Massachusetts, was transferred from Madrid to London, as United States Minister, succeeding John Welsh, of

STATE.	Total population 1890.	White.	Colored.	Native.	Foreign.	Males.	Females.
United States.....	50,152,866	43,404,576	6,577,151	43,475,506	6,677,360	25,520,582	24,632,284
Alabama.....	1,262,794	662,328	600,249	1,258,121	9,768	622,590	639,904
Arizona.....	40,441	35,178	133	24,419	16,022	28,002	12,239
Arkansas.....	892,564	591,611	210,622	792,269	10,295	416,838	856,181
California.....	864,686	767,266	6,168	572,006	292,680	518,271	346,415
Colorado.....	194,649	191,452	2,459	154,869	39,780	129,471	65,178
Connecticut.....	622,638	610,884	11,428	492,879	129,804	305,886	316,797
Dakota.....	135,180	133,177	381	88,887	51,793	82,302	52,818
Delaware.....	146,654	120,193	26,450	137,182	9,472	74,158	72,501
District of Columbia.....	177,038	118,236	59,378	160,628	17,115	88,594	94,044
Florida.....	267,351	141,832	125,464	257,631	9,720	135,393	131,958
Georgia.....	1,589,043	814,251	724,685	1,028,733	10,815	761,184	777,864
Iaho.....	32,511	29,011	28	22,629	9,982	21,818	10,793
Illinois.....	3,078,709	3,032,174	46,248	2,495,177	583,532	1,587,336	1,491,396
Indiana.....	1,978,362	1,930,094	38,993	1,884,597	143,765	1,010,676	967,666
Iowa.....	1,624,620	1,614,666	9,443	1,363,132	261,488	845,234	776,386
Kansas.....	995,966	952,056	43,096	886,261	109,705	536,725	459,241
Kentucky.....	1,048,703	1,377,187	271,461	1,589,237	59,471	832,676	816,933
Louisiana.....	940,103	455,007	483,794	885,964	54,139	468,833	471,270
Maine.....	648,945	616,903	1,418	590,076	58,869	324,084	324,861
Maryland.....	981,632	724,718	209,897	551,984	82,648	462,004	472,628
Massachusetts.....	1,783,012	1,764,004	18,411	1,389,919	443,093	858,475	924,537
Michigan.....	1,636,331	1,614,078	14,986	1,247,985	388,346	562,276	774,055
Minnesota.....	780,806	779,341	1,553	618,107	267,699	419,202	361,544
Mississippi.....	1,181,592	479,371	650,897	1,122,424	9,168	567,187	564,555
Missouri.....	2,163,049	2,153,668	143,046	1,957,564	211,285	1,127,424	1,041,380
Montana.....	39,157	38,446	288	28,446	11,515	28,100	10,957
Nebraska.....	452,433	449,506	2,376	353,043	97,390	249,275	209,158
Nevada.....	62,265	58,574	465	36,623	25,642	42,018	20,252
New Hampshire.....	346,984	346,264	646	300,961	46,023	170,575	176,409
New Jersey.....	1,130,983	1,091,947	38,796	908,398	221,555	559,828	571,100
New Mexico.....	118,430	108,127	648	108,498	9,932	68,751	54,679
New York.....	5,983,810	5,017,116	64,909	3,872,372	1,211,438	2,506,238	2,577,527
North Carolina.....	1,400,047	867,473	531,351	1,396,363	8,679	688,208	711,844
Ohio.....	3,198,239	3,113,344	79,665	2,808,496	384,748	1,614,165	1,584,074
Oregon.....	174,767	163,057	486	144,327	30,440	103,388	71,279
Pennsylvania.....	4,232,756	4,197,106	83,342	3,693,233	587,533	2,136,635	2,146,151
Rhode Island.....	276,523	269,931	6,593	202,598	73,930	138,093	149,495
South Carolina.....	908,622	391,224	694,275	957,951	7,641	490,469	506,153
Tennessee.....	1,542,463	1,139,120	402,991	1,523,881	16,582	769,874	773,089
Texas.....	1,592,574	1,197,499	394,001	1,475,085	114,516	838,719	759,855
Utah.....	143,906	142,330	204	99,974	43,932	74,470	69,456
Vermont.....	332,286	331,243	1,032	291,340	40,946	166,838	165,398
Virginia.....	1,512,806	880,981	631,754	1,498,139	14,667	745,839	766,967
Washington.....	75,120	67,349	357	59,259	15,861	45,977	29,143
West Virginia.....	618,443	592,606	25,806	600,214	18,229	314,479	303,964
Wisconsin.....	1,315,480	1,309,622	2,724	1,101,063	405,417	680,106	635,374
Wyoming.....	20,788	19,436	299	14,943	5,845	14,151	6,637

Pennsylvania, and being succeeded by Lucius Fairchild, of Wisconsin, previously vice-consul at Paris. The vacant mission at St. Petersburg was filled, near the beginning of the year, by the appointment of John W. Foster, of Indiana. In December, Justice William Strong, of the Supreme Court, retired from the bench, and Judge William B. Woods, of the Fifth Circuit, was appointed his successor. Justice Hunt continued unable to perform his judicial duties, and toward the close of the year Justice Clifford became incapacitated by sickness and age. The bench was further weakened early in 1881 by the resignation of Justice Swayne, and a prolonged vacancy in the position formerly occupied by him.

The attention of the people of the country was largely taken up during the year by the canvass for the Presidential election. General Grant, who had returned late in 1879 from his tour around the world, which had occupied most of the interval since he left the Executive chair in March, 1877, and during which he had received extraordinary attentions and honors in most of the countries of Europe and of Southern and Eastern Asia, was much

talked of as the candidate of the Republican party. The call for the National Convention was issued by the Executive Committee of the party, J. D. Cameron, of Pennsylvania, chairman, on the last day of 1879. The State Conventions of Pennsylvania and New York were held in February, and, under the lead of Senators Cameron and Conkling respectively, declared for the candidacy of General Grant, and instructed their delegates to the National Convention to support it unitedly. Their action was followed later in the canvass by the party in Illinois under the lead of Senator Logan. In each of these States more or less division of sentiment was developed among the delegates, and, in Illinois, contesting delegates were chosen from the Chicago district. (See articles on ILLINOIS, NEW YORK, and PENNSYLVANIA.)

A considerable independent and anti-third-term sentiment had in the mean time been worked up throughout the country, and, on the 6th of May, a Republican Anti-Third-Term Convention was held at St. Louis, which was presided over by General J. B. Henderson, and which adopted the following resolutions:

1. In pursuance of the demand, and representing the convictions of what we believe to be a majority of the Republican party throughout the Union, this Convention of Republicans has assembled for the purpose of declaring those convictions with reference to the present aspect of political affairs. This action is necessary in view of the determined efforts to force upon the party the nomination of a candidate for the Presidency for a third term, in defiance not only of the traditions of the Government, but also of the solemn declarations of the Republican party through its conventions in the largest and controlling Republican States, reaffirmed by its representatives in the popular branch of Congress, and adopted by the entire party in the declarations of its latest Presidential candidate.

2. We reaffirm our adhesion to the principles of the Republican party as heretofore set forth by its authorized representatives, especially the declarations of the State Republican Convention of New York in 1875, opposing a third term for the President; of Pennsylvania in 1875, and reaffirmed in 1876, to the same effect; of Ohio in 1875; Massachusetts the same year; and of Minnesota and other Republican States, all to the same effect; also by the House of Representatives, in December, 1875, by an overwhelming majority.

3. We declare that the nomination of a third-term candidate will put the party on the defensive by reviving the memory of the public scandals and official corruptions which brought the party to the verge of ruin. We believe the questions now at issue—finance, tariff, etc.—require a trained statesman for President; and we find additional objection to a third-term candidate in that it would substitute a dangerous tendency to personal government for an unwearied effort for the true reform of civil service, which is vital to the welfare and safety of the republic.

4. As Republicans, we can not be hero-worshippers, and we demand from a party without a master the nomination of a candidate without a stain.

5. *Resolved*, That a National Committee of One Hundred be appointed and instructed, in the event of the nomination of General Grant, to meet in the city of New York, at the call of the chairman of this committee, and there to act in such a manner as they shall then deem best to carry out the spirit and purpose of these resolutions, the said committee to be selected by a committee of thirteen, and published at its earliest convenience.

The prominent candidates for the Republican nomination, besides General Grant, were Senator James G. Blaine, of Maine, and John Sherman, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; and there was some talk among the anti-third-term and independent Republicans of Senator George F. Edmunds, of Vermont.

The Republican National Convention gathered at Chicago, in accordance with the terms of the call, on Wednesday, the 2d of June, and was called to order by J. D. Cameron, chairman of the Executive Committee, at one o'clock. Senator George F. Hoar, of Massachusetts, was chosen temporary chairman, and the committees were constituted, after which an adjournment was taken until the next day. On the second day a permanent organization was effected, Mr. Hoar being continued in the chair, but the time was taken up by the consideration of contested cases by the Committee on Credentials. The main source of controversy was the question of the power of State Conventions to name delegates from Congressional districts, and to bind their action by instructions. The third and fourth days of the

Convention were spent mainly in settling contests, but the platform was adopted on the fourth day, Saturday, June 5th. At the beginning of the discussion on Friday, Mr. Conkling, of New York, offered a resolution in these terms:

Resolved, As the sense of this Convention, that every member of it is bound in honor to support its nominee, whoever that nominee may be, and no man should hold a seat here who is not ready to so agree.

This was carried by a vote of 719 to 3, the latter being cast by delegates from West Virginia. Mr. Conkling then offered a resolution "that the delegates who, on this roll-call, have voted No on this resolution, do not deserve to have, and have forfeited their votes in this Convention." After some warm discussion, in which General Garfield, of Ohio, took a conciliatory part, this resolution was withdrawn. The contested cases were settled in accordance with the principle that Congressional districts have the right to choose their own delegates, and that instructions of State Conventions for united action are not binding. The platform, as reported, was as follows:

The Republican party, in National Convention assembled, at the end of twenty years since the Federal Government was first committed to its charge, submits to the people of the United States this brief report of its administration.

It suppressed a rebellion which had armed nearly a million of men to subvert the national authority. It reconstructed the Union of the States with freedom instead of slavery as its corner-stone. It transformed 4,000,000 human beings from the likeness of things to the rank of citizens. It relieved Congress from the infamous work of hunting fugitive slaves, and charged it to see that slavery does not exist. It has raised the value of our paper currency from 38 per cent. to the par of gold. It has restored upon a solid basis payment in coin for all the national obligations, and has given us a currency absolutely good and equal in every part of our extended country. It has lifted the credit of the nation from the point where 6 per cent. bonds sold at 86 to that where 4 per cent. bonds are eagerly sought at a premium. Under its administration, railways have increased from 31,000 miles in 1860, to more than 82,000 miles in 1879. Our foreign trade has increased from \$700,000,000 to \$1,150,000,000 in the same time, and our exports, which were \$20,000,000 less than our imports in 1860, were \$264,000,000 more than our imports in 1879. Without resorting to loans, it has, since the war closed, defrayed the ordinary expenses of Government, besides the accruing interest on the public debt, and has annually disbursed more than \$30,000,000 for soldiers' pensions. It has paid \$888,000,000 of the public debt, and by refunding the balance at lower rates, has reduced the annual interest-charge from nearly \$151,000,000 to less than \$89,000,000. All the industries of the country have revived; labor is in demand; wages have increased, and throughout the entire country there is evidence of a coming prosperity greater than we have ever enjoyed.

Upon this record the Republican party asks for the continued confidence and support of the people, and this Convention submits for their approval the following statements of the principles and purposes which will continue to guide and inspire its efforts:

1. We affirm that the work of the last twenty-one years has been such as to commend itself to the favor of the nation, and that the fruits of the costly victories which we have achieved through immense difficulties should be preserved; that the peace regained should be cherished; that the dissevered Union, now happily restored, should be perpetuated; and that the liber-

ties secured to this generation should be transmitted undiminished to future generations; that the order established and the credit acquired should never be impaired; that the pensions promised should be extinguished by the full payment of every dollar thereof; that the reviving industries should be further promoted, and that the commerce already so great should be steadily encouraged.

2. The Constitution of the United States is a supreme law, and not a mere contract. Out of confederated States it made a sovereign nation. Some powers are denied to the nation, while others are denied to the States; but the boundary between the powers delegated and those reserved is to be determined by the national, and not by the State, tribunals.

3. The work of popular education is one left to the care of the several States, but it is the duty of the national Government to aid that work to the extent of its constitutional power. The intelligence of the nation is but the aggregate of the intelligence in the several States, and the destiny of the nation must not be guided by the genius of any one State, but by the average genius of all.

4. The Constitution wisely forbids Congress to make any law respecting an establishment of religion, but it is idle to hope that the nation can be protected against the influence of sectarianism while each State is exposed to its domination. We therefore recommend that the Constitution be so amended as to lay the same prohibition upon the Legislature of each State, and to forbid the appropriation of public funds to the support of sectarian schools.

5. We affirm the belief, avowed in 1876, that the duties levied for the purpose of revenue should so discriminate as to favor American labor; that no further grant of the public domain should be made to any railway or other corporation; that slavery having perished in the States, its twin barbarity, polygamy, must die in the Territories; that everywhere the protection accorded to citizens of American birth must be secured to citizens by American adoption; and that we esteem it the duty of Congress to develop and improve our watercourses and harbors, but insist that further subsidies to private persons or corporations must cease. That the obligations of the republic to the men who preserved its integrity in the hour of battle are undiminished by the lapse of the fifteen years since their final victory. To do them perpetual honor is, and shall for ever be, the grateful privilege and sacred duty of the American people.

6. Since the authority to regulate immigration and intercourse between the United States and foreign nations rests with Congress, or with the United States and its treaty-making power, the Republican party, regarding the unrestricted immigration of the Chinese as an evil of great magnitude, invokes the exercise of those powers to restrain and limit that immigration by the enactment of such just, humane, and reasonable provisions as will produce that result.

7. That the purity and patriotism which characterized the earlier career of Rutherford B. Hayes, in peace and war, and which guided the thoughts of our immediate predecessors to him for a Presidential candidate, have continued to inspire him in his career as Chief Executive, and that history will accord to his Administration the honors which are due to an efficient, just, and courteous discharge of the public business, and will honor his interpositions between the people and proposed partisan laws.

8. We charge upon the Democratic party the habitual sacrifice of patriotism and justice to a supreme and insatiable lust of office and patronage; that to obtain possession of the national and State governments, and the control of place and position, they have obstructed all efforts to promote the purity and to conserve the freedom of suffrage, and have devised fraudulent certifications and returns; have labored to unseat lawfully-elected members of Congress; to secure, at all hazards, the vote of a majority of the States in the House of Representatives; have endeavored to

occupy, by force and fraud, the places of trust given to others by the people of Maine, and rescued by the courageous action of Maine's patriotic sons; have, by methods vicious in principle and tyrannical in practice, attached partisan legislation to appropriation bills, upon whose passage the very movement of the Government depends, and have crushed the rights of individuals; have advocated the principles and sought the favor of rebellion against the nation, and have endeavored to obliterate the sacred memories of the war, and to overcome its inestimably valuable results of nationality, personal freedom, and individual equality. The equal, steady, and complete enforcement of laws, and the protection of all our citizens in the enjoyment of all privileges and immunities guaranteed by the Constitution, are the first duties of the nation. The dangers of a solid South can only be averted by a faithful performance of every promise which the nation has made to the citizen. The execution of the laws and the punishment of all those who violate them are the only safe methods by which an enduring peace can be secured, and genuine prosperity established throughout the South. Whatever promises the nation makes the nation must perform, and the nation can not with safety relegate this duty to the States. The solid South must be divided by the peaceful agencies of the ballot, and all opinions must there find free expression, and to this end the honest voter must be protected against terrorism, violence, or fraud. And we affirm it to be the duty and the purpose of the Republican party to use every legitimate means to restore all the States of this Union to the most perfect harmony that may be practicable; and we submit it to the practical, sensible people of the United States to say whether it would not be dangerous to the dearest interests of our country at this time to surrender the administration of the national Government to the party which seeks to overthrow the existing policy under which we are so prosperous, and thus bring distrust and confusion where there are now order, confidence, and hope.

The following, offered by a delegate from Massachusetts, was added after some debate, and the whole adopted:

The Republican party, adhering to the principles affirmed by its last National Convention, of respect for the constitutional rules governing appointment to office, adopts the declaration of President Hayes, that the reform in the civil service shall be thorough, radical, and complete. To that end it demands the co-operation of the legislative with the executive department of the Government, and that Congress shall so legislate that fitness, ascertained by proper practical tests, shall admit to the public service; that the tenure of administrative offices (except those through which distinctive policy of the party in power shall be carried out) shall be made permanent during good behavior, and that the power of removal for cause, with due responsibility for the good conduct of subordinates, shall accompany the power of appointment.

The first ballot was taken on Monday, June 7th, the fifth day of the Convention, and resulted in 304 votes for General U. S. Grant, of Illinois; 284 for James G. Blaine, of Maine; 93 for John Sherman, of Ohio; 34 for George F. Edmunds, of Vermont; 30 for Elihu B. Washburne, of Illinois; and 10 for William Windom, of Minnesota. The balloting continued during two days, thirty six votes being taken in all, and resulted finally in the nomination of General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, as the candidate of the Republican party for the office of President of the United States. The following table exhibits the result of the several ballotings:

BALLOTS.	Grant.	Blaine.	Sherman.	Edmunds.	Washburne.	Windom.	Garfield.	McCray.	Hayes.	Harrison.	Dawson.	Hartman.	Total.
I.....	304	284	98	34	30	10	755
II.....	305	284	94	32	31	10	1	756
III.....	305	282	93	32	31	10	1	1	755
IV.....	305	281	95	32	31	10	1	755
V.....	305	281	95	32	31	10	1	755
VI.....	305	281	95	31	31	10	1	755
VII.....	305	281	94	32	31	10	2	755
VIII.....	306	284	91	32	31	10	1	755
IX.....	308	282	90	31	32	10	2	755
X.....	305	282	92	31	32	10	2	..	1	755
XI.....	305	281	93	31	32	10	2	..	1	755
XII.....	304	288	92	31	33	10	1	..	1	755
XIII.....	305	285	89	31	33	10	1	1	755
XIV.....	305	285	89	31	35	10	755
XV.....	309	281	88	31	36	10	755
XVI.....	306	288	88	31	36	10	754
XVII.....	308	284	90	31	36	10	1	..	755
XVIII.....	305	283	91	31	35	10	755
XIX.....	305	279	96	31	32	10	1	1	755
XX.....	305	275	93	31	35	10	1	755
XXI.....	305	276	96	31	35	10	1	755
XXII.....	305	275	97	31	35	10	1	1	755
XXIII.....	304	275	97	31	36	10	2	755
XXIV.....	305	279	98	31	35	10	2	755
XXV.....	302	281	94	31	35	10	2	755
XXVI.....	308	280	93	31	36	10	2	755
XXVII.....	306	277	98	31	36	10	2	755
XXVIII.....	307	279	91	31	35	10	2	755
XXIX.....	305	278	116	12	35	7	2	755
XXX.....	307	279	118	11	33	4	1	*754
XXXI.....	308	276	118	11	37	3	1	+755
XXXII.....	309	270	119	11	35	3	1	748
XXXIII.....	309	276	110	11	44	4	1	755
XXXIV.....	312	275	107	11	30	4	17	756
XXXV.....	213	257	99	11	23	3	50	756
XXXVI.....	307	42	3	..	5	..	899	756

The nomination of General Garfield was made unanimous on motion of Mr. Conkling, of New York. General Chester A. Arthur, of New York, was nominated for Vice-President on the first ballot, the vote being 468 for Arthur; 193 for E. B. Washburne, of Illinois; 44 for Marshall Jewell, of Connecticut; 30 for Horace Maynard, of Tennessee; 8 for B. K. Bruce, of Mississippi; 2 for E. J. Davis, of Texas; 4 for J. L. Alcorn, of Mississippi; 1 for Thomas Settle, of North Carolina; and 1 for Stewart L. Woodford, of New York.

The Greenback or National Greenback-Labor party took an active part in the canvass. Early in the year its Executive Committee called a National Convention to be held at Chicago on the 9th of June. On that day there were two separate factions gathered in that city, but they succeeded in effecting a union, and the business of the Convention was disposed of on the day following. The following platform was adopted:

Civil government should guarantee the divine right of every laborer to the results of his toil, thus enabling the producers of wealth to provide themselves with the means for physical comfort, and the facilities for mental, social, and moral culture; and we condemn as unworthy of our civilization the barbarism which imposes upon the wealth-producers a state of perpetual drudgery as the price of bare animal existence. Notwithstanding the enormous increase of productive power, the universal introduction of labor-saving machinery, and the discovery of new agents for the increase of wealth, the task of the laborer is scarcely lightened, the hours of toil are but little short-

ened, and few producers are lifted from poverty into comfort and pecuniary independence. The associated monopolies, the international syndicates, and other income classes demand dear money and cheap labor; a "strong government," and hence a weak people.

Corporate control of the volume of money has been the means of dividing society into hostile classes, of the unjust distribution of the products of labor, and of building up monopolies of associated capital endowed with power to confiscate private property. It has kept money scarce, and scarcity of money enforces debt, trade, and public and corporate loans. Debt engenders usury, and usury ends in the bankruptcy of the borrower. Other results are deranged markets, uncertainty in manufacturing enterprise and agriculture, precarious and intermittent employment for the laborers, industrial war, increasing pauperism and crime, and the consequent intimidation and disfranchisement of the producer, and a rapid declension into corporate feudalism; therefore, we declare—

1. That the right to make and issue money is a sovereign power, to be maintained by the people for the common benefit. The delegation of this right to corporations is a surrender of the central attribute of sovereignty, void of constitutional sanction, conferring upon a subordinate, irresponsible power absolute dominion over industry and commerce. All money, whether metallic or paper, should be issued and its volume controlled by the Government, and not by or through banking corporations, and, when so issued, should be a full legal tender for all debts public and private.

2. That the bonds of the United States should not be refunded, but paid as rapidly as is practicable, according to contract. To enable the Government to meet these obligations, legal-tender currency should be substituted for the notes of the national banks, the national banking system abolished, and the unlimited coinage of silver, as well as gold, established by law.

3. That labor should be so protected by national and State authority as to equalize its burdens and insure a just distribution of its results. The eight-hour law of Congress should be enforced, the sanitary con-

* One vote for Philip H. Sheridan.

† One vote for Roscoe Conkling.

dition of industrial establishments placed under rigid control, the competition of contract convict-labor abolished, a bureau of labor statistics established, factories, mines, and workshops inspected, the employment of children under fourteen years of age forbidden, and wages paid in cash.

4. Slavery being simply cheap labor, and cheap labor being simply slavery, the importation and presence of Chinese serfs necessarily tends to brutalize and degrade American labor; therefore immediate steps should be taken to abrogate the Burlingame treaty.

5. Railroad land-grants forfeited by reason of non-fulfillment of contract should be immediately reclaimed by the Government, and henceforth the public domain reserved exclusively as homes for actual settlers.

6. It is the duty of Congress to regulate inter-State commerce. All lines of communication and transportation should be brought under such legislative control as shall secure moderate, fair, and uniform rates for passenger and freight traffic.

7. We denounce as destructive to prosperity and dangerous to liberty the action of the old parties in fostering and sustaining gigantic land, railroad, and money corporations and monopolies, invested with and exercising powers belonging to the Government, and yet not responsible to it for the manner of their exercise.

8. That the Constitution, in giving Congress the power to borrow money, to declare war, to raise and support armies, to provide and maintain a nation, never intended that the men who loaned their money for an interest consideration should be preferred to the soldier and sailor who periled their lives and shed their blood on land and sea in defense of their country; and we condemn the cruel class legislation of the Republican party, which, while professing great gratitude to the soldier, has most unjustly discriminated against him and in favor of the bondholder.

9. All property should bear its just proportion of taxation, and we demand a graduated income-tax.

10. We denounce as most dangerous the efforts everywhere manifested to restrict the right of suffrage.

11. We are opposed to an increase of the standing army in time of peace, and the insidious scheme to establish an enormous military power under the guise of militia laws.

12. We demand absolute democratic rules for the government of Congress, placing all representatives of the people upon an equal footing, and taking away from committees a veto power greater than that of the President.

13. We demand a government of the people, by the people, and for the people, instead of a government of the bondholder, by the bondholder, and for the bondholder; and we denounce every attempt to stir up sectional strife as an effort to conceal monstrous crimes against the people.

14. In the furtherance of these ends we ask the coöperation of all fair-minded people. We have no quarrel with individuals, wage no war upon classes, but only against vicious institutions. We are not content to endure further discipline from our present actual rulers, who, having dominion over money, over transportation, over land and labor, and largely over the press and the machinery of government, wield unwarrantable power over our institutions and over life and property.

The proceedings of the Convention ran through the night of June 10th, and in the early morning of the 11th the nominations for President and Vice-President were made. The first ballot for candidate for President was informal, and resulted in 224½ votes for General J. B. Weaver, of Iowa; 126½ for Hendrick B. Wright, of Pennsylvania; 119 for Stephen B. Dillaye, of New Jersey; 95 for Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts; 89 for Solon Chase,

of Maine; 41 for E. P. Alhs, of Wisconsin; and 21 for Alexander Campbell, of Illinois. By changes in the votes before the result was declared, General Weaver was unanimously nominated. General B. J. Chambers, of Texas, was nominated for Vice-President on the first ballot.

The Prohibition party held a National Convention at Cleveland, Ohio, on the 17th of June. There were 142 delegates present from twelve States. Neal Dow, of Maine, was nominated by acclamation as the candidate for President, and A. M. Thompson, of Ohio, was made the candidate for Vice-President. A platform was adopted setting forth the well-known principles of the party in regard to the manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquors. It declared in favor of a national prohibition law for the District of Columbia and the Territories, condemned both the Republican and Democratic parties for their attitude on the liquor question, demanded the right of suffrage for women, and asserted that the experience of nations shows no loss of revenue following the abolition of liquor-taxes.

Nominations were also made by the "American Antimason" party. The candidates were General John W. Phelps, of Vermont, for President, and the Hon. Samuel C. Pomeroy, of Kansas, for Vice-President. The declared object of this party was to "expose, withstand, and remove secret societies, Freemasonry in particular, and other anti-Christian movements, in order to save the churches of Christ from being depraved; to redeem the administration of justice from perversion, and our republican government from corruption."

On the 23d of February the National Executive Committee of the Democratic party held a meeting in Washington, and determined on Cincinnati as the place, and June 22d the time for holding the National Convention. The question of the candidacy of Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, was prominent throughout the preliminary canvass in the several States, and was likely to affect somewhat seriously the proceedings of the Convention; but two days before it was organized the following letter was received by the New York delegates in Cincinnati, withdrawing his name:

NEW YORK, June 18, 1880.

To the Delegates from the State of New York to the Democratic National Convention:

Your first assembling is an occasion or which it is proper for me to state to you my relation to the nomination for the Presidency which you and your associates are commissioned to make in behalf of the Democratic party of the United States. Having passed my early years in an atmosphere filled with the traditions of the war which secured our national independence, and of the struggles which made our continental system a government for the people, by the people, I learned to idolize the institutions of my country, and was educated to believe it the duty of a citizen of the republic to take his fair allotment of care and trouble in public affairs. I fulfilled that duty to the best of my ability for forty years as a private citizen. Although during all my life giving at least as much thought and effort to public affairs as to all other ob-

jects, I have never accepted official service except for brief periods for a special purpose, and only when the occasion seemed to require of me that sacrifice of private preferences to public interests.

My life has been substantially that of a private citizen. It was, I presume, the success of efforts in which, as a private citizen, I had shared to overthrow a corrupt combination then holding dominion in our metropolis, and to purify the judiciary, which had become its tool, that induced the Democracy of the State in 1874 to nominate me for Governor. This was done in spite of the protest of a minority that the part I had borne in those reforms had created antagonisms fatal to me as a candidate. I felt constrained to accept the nomination as the most certain means of putting the power of the gubernatorial office on the side of reform, and of removing the impression, wherever it prevailed, that the faithful discharge of one's duty as a citizen is fatal to his usefulness as a public servant.

The breaking up of the canal ring, the better management of our public works, the large reduction of taxes, and other reforms accomplished during my administration, doubtless occasioned my nomination for the Presidency by the Democracy of the Union, in the hope that similar processes would be applied to the Federal Government. From the responsibilities of such an undertaking, appalling as it seemed to me, I did not feel at liberty to shrink.

In the canvass which ensued, the Democratic party represented reform in the administration of the Federal Government, and a restoration of our complex political system to the pure ideas of its founders. Upon these issues the people of the United States, by a majority of more than a quarter of a million, chose a majority of the electors to cast their votes for the Democratic candidates for President and Vice-President. It is my right and privilege here to say that I was nominated and elected to the Presidency absolutely free from any engagement in respect to the exercise of its powers or the disposal of its patronage. Through the whole period of my relation to the Presidency I did everything in my power to elevate and nothing to lower moral standards in the competition of parties.

By what nefarious means the basis for a false count was laid in several of the States I need not recite. These are now matters of history about which, whatever diversity of opinion may have existed in either of the great parties of the country at the time of their consummation, has since practically disappeared. I refused to ransom from the returning boards of Southern States the documentary evidence by the suppression of which and by the substitution of fraudulent and forged papers a pretext was made for the perpetration of a false count. The constitutional duty of the two Houses of Congress to count the electoral votes as cast, and to give effect to the will of the people as expressed by their suffrages, was never fulfilled. An electoral commission, for the existence of which I have no responsibility, was formed, and to it the two Houses of Congress abdicated their duty to make the count by a law enacting that the count of the commission should stand as final unless overruled by the concurrent action of the two Houses. Its false count was not overruled, owing to the complicity of a Republican Senate with the Republican majority of the commission. Controlled by its Republican majority of eight to seven, the Electoral Commission counted out the men elected by the people, and counted in the men not elected by the people.

That subversion of the election created a new issue for the decision of the people of the United States, transcending in importance all questions of administration. It involved the vital principle of self-government through elections by the people. The immense growth of the means of corrupt influence over the ballot-box which is at the disposal of the party having possession of the executive administration, had already become a present evil and a great danger, tending to make elections irresponsible to public opinion, hampering the power of the people to change rulers, and

enabling the men holding the machinery of government to continue and perpetuate their power.

It was my opinion in 1876 that the opposition attempting to change the administration needed to include at least two thirds of the voters at the opening of the canvass in order to retain a majority at the election. If, after such obstacles had been overcome, and a majority of the people had voted to change the administrations of their government, the men in office could still procure a false count founded upon frauds, perjury, and forgeries, furnishing a pretext of documentary evidence on which to base the false count, and if such a transaction were not only successful, but if, after allotments of its benefits were made to its contrivers, abettors, and apologists, by the chief beneficiary of the transactions, it were condoned by the people, a practical destruction of elections by the people would have been accomplished. The failure to install the candidates chosen by the people—a contingency consequent upon no act of omission of mine, and beyond my control—has thus left me for the last three years and until now, when the Democratic party, by its delegates in National Convention assembled, shall choose a new leader, the involuntary but necessary representative of this momentous issue, as such denied the immunities of private life, without the powers conferred by public station, subject to unceasing falsehoods and calumnies from the partisans of an Administration laboring in vain to justify its existence.

I have, nevertheless, steadfastly endeavored to preserve to the Democratic party of the United States the supreme issue before the people for their decision next November, whether this shall be a government by the sovereign people through elections, or a government by discarded servants, holding over by force and fraud, and I have withheld no sacrifice and neglected no opportunity to uphold, organize, and consolidate against the enemies of republican institutions the great party which alone, under God, can effectually resist their overthrow.

Having now borne faithfully my full share of labor and care in the public service, and wearing the marks of its burdens, I desire nothing so much as an honorable discharge. I wish to lay down the honors and toils of even quasi-party leadership, and to seek the repose of private life. In renouncing renomination for the Presidency, I do so with no doubt in my mind as to the vote of the State of New York, or of the United States, but because I believe it is a renunciation of reelection of the Presidency. To those who think my nomination and reelection indispensable to an effectual vindication of the right of the people to elect their rulers, violated in my person, I have accorded as long a reserve of my decision as possible, but I can not overcome my repugnance to enter into a new engagement which involves four years of ceaseless toil.

The dignity of the Presidential office is above a merely personal ambition, but it creates in me no illusion. Its value is as a great power for good to the country. I said four years ago, in accepting the nomination: "Knowing as I do, therefore, from fresh experience, how great the difference is between gliding through an official routine and working out a reform of systems and policies, it is impossible for me to contemplate what needs to be done in the Federal Administration without an anxious sense of the difficulties of the undertaking. If summoned by the suffrages of my countrymen to attempt this work, I shall endeavor, with God's help, to be the efficient instrument of their will."

Such a work of renovation after many years of misrule, such a reform of systems and policies to which I would cheerfully have sacrificed all that remained to me of health and life, is now, I fear, beyond my strength. With unfeigned thanks for the honors bestowed upon me, with a heart swelling with emotions of gratitude to the Democratic masses for the support which they have given to the cause I represented, and their confidence in every emergency, I remain, your fellow-citizen,

SAMUEL J. TILDEN.

The proceedings of the Convention occupied three days, a contesting Tammany delegation from New York being rejected. On Thursday, June 24th, General Winfield Scott Hancock, of Pennsylvania, was nominated for

President on the third ballot taken, and William H. English, of Indiana, was made the candidate for Vice-President by a single ballot. The votes on the three ballots for candidate for President were as follows:

BALLOTS.	Hancock.	Handicks.	Bayard.	Tilden.	Thurman.	Field.	Randall.	J.E. English.	Morrison.	Seymour.	Payne.	Ewing.	McCallan.	Others.	Total.
I.....	171	49½	153½	88	6½	65	6	1	62	8	81	10	3	12	735½
II.....	320	81	111	6	50	65½	128½	19	788
III.....	705	80	2	1	785

The following is the platform adopted:

The Democrats of the United States, in convention assembled, declare:

1. We pledge ourselves anew to the constitutional doctrines and traditions of the Democratic party, as illustrated by the teachings and example of a long line of Democratic statesmen and patriots, and embodied in the platform of the last National Convention of the party.

2. Opposition to centralizationism, and to that dangerous spirit of encroachment which tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever be the form of government, a real despotism; no sumptuary laws; separation of Church and state for the good of each; common schools fostered and protected.

3. Home rule, honest money, consisting of gold and silver, and paper convertible to coin on demand; the strict maintenance of the public faith, State and national, and a tariff for revenue only.

4. The subordination of the military to the civil power, and a general and thorough reform of the civil service.

5. The right to a free ballot is the right preservative of all rights, and must and shall be maintained in every part of the United States.

6. The existing Administration is the representative of conspiracy only, and its claim of right to surround the ballot-boxes with troops and deputy-marshals, to intimidate and obstruct the electors, and the unprecedented use of the veto to maintain its corrupt and despotic power, insults the people and imperils their institutions.

7. The great fraud of 1876-'77, by which, upon a false count of the electoral votes of two States, the candidate defeated at the polls was declared to be President, and, for the first time in American history, the will of the people was set aside under a threat of military violence, struck a deadly blow at our system of representative government. The Democratic party, to preserve the country from the horrors of a civil war, submitted for the time, in firm and patriotic faith that the people would punish this crime in 1880. This issue precedes and dwarfs every other. It imposes a more sacred duty upon the people of the Union than ever addressed the conscience of a nation of freemen.

8. We execrate the course of this Administration in making places in the civil service a reward for political crime, and demand a reform by statute which shall make it for ever impossible for the defeated candidate to bribe his way to the seat of a usurper by billeting villains upon the people.

9. The resolution of Samuel J. Tilden not again to be a candidate for the exalted place to which he was elected by a majority of his countrymen, and from which he was excluded by the leaders of the Republican party, is received by the Democrats of the United States with sensibility, and they declare their confidence in his wisdom, patriotism, and integrity, unshaken by the assaults of a common enemy, and they further assure him that he is followed into the retirement he has chosen for himself by the sympathy and respect of his fellow-citizens, who regard him as one who, by elevating the standards of public morality, and adorning and purifying the public service, merits the lasting gratitude of his country and his party.

10. Free ships and a living chance for American commerce on the seas and on the land. No discrimination in favor of transportation lines, corporations, or monopolies.

11. Amendment of the Burlingame treaty. No more Chinese immigration except for travel, education, and foreign commerce, and therein carefully guarded.

12. Public money and public credit for public purposes solely, and public land for actual settlers.

13. The Democratic party is the friend of labor and the laboring-man, and pledges itself to protect him alike against the cormorants and the Commune.

14. We congratulate the country upon the honesty and thrift of a Democratic Congress, which has reduced the public expenditure \$40,000,000 a year; upon the continuation of prosperity at home and the national honor abroad, and above all upon the promise of such a change in the administration of the Government as shall insure us genuine and lasting reform in every department of the public service.

General Weaver was formally notified of his nomination by the Convention of the National Greenback-Labor party on the 23d of June by a committee appointed for the purpose, and on July 3d signified his acceptance in a long letter, of which the following are the material parts:

It being the duty of man to earn his bread in the sweat of his face, it becomes the first duty of civil government to foster industry. All laws, therefore, which place a premium upon idleness, whether of men or money, unjustly discriminate in favor of capital, or withhold from honest men the full and just reward for their labor, are simply monstrous. Capital should be the servant of labor rather than its master.

This great truth can never be realized until there is an adequate circulating medium. Inasmuch as this circulating medium is for the benefit of all, its issue and volume should be sacredly kept under the control of the people, without the intervention of banking corporations. All money, whether gold, silver, or paper, should be issued by the supreme authority of the nation, and be made a full legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private.

The system which now prevails gives into the hands of banking corporations absolute control over the volume of the currency, and through this they have the power to fix the price of the labor and property of fifty millions of people. By provision of law, the method is clearly defined whereby they may, without limit, inflate or contract the currency at will. Cognate to this and a part of the same scheme, stands the system of funding the public debt. Like national banking, this was borrowed from the English monarchy. By this system an enormous non-taxable, interest-bearing debt is to be perpetuated. The bonds support the banks, and the banks foster the public debt. If you pay off the bonds, the banks must cease to exist. Hence, if the national banks are to continue, we must have a perpetual bonded debt. Both patriotism and sound statesmanship loudly call for the abolition of banks of issue, and the substitution of legal-tender Treasury notes for their circulation. Pay the bonds according to contract, and as rapidly as possible.

Seven hundred millions of the public debt become redeemable, at the option of the Government, during this and the ensuing year. Two funding bills are now pending before Congress—one introduced by the Democratic and the other by the Republican leader of the House, whereby it is proposed to deprive the people for twenty and thirty years of the lawful right to pay said bonds. This is a crime against the laborer and the tax-payer, and should cause widespread alarm among all classes. . . .

The two great agents of commerce are money and transportation. It is undeniable that both of these agents are under absolute control of monopolies. By controlling the volume of money, the banks fix the price of all labor and property; and the railroads, by combination, render competition impossible, and control absolutely the price of transportation. . . .

The Republican and Democratic platforms are either silent with regard to these vital issues, or they have pronounced in favor of the monopolies and against the people. With fifty millions of people looking them in the face and pleading for relief, they utter not one word of promise or hope. Their leaders and platform makers are in the toils of the syndicate, gigantic bank corporations and railroad monopolies, and have neither the disposition nor the courage to strike one generous blow for industrial emancipation.

An area of our public domain larger than the territory occupied by the great German Empire has been wantonly donated to wealthy corporations; while a bill introduced by Hon. Hendrick B. Wright, of Pennsylvania, to enable our poor people to reach and occupy the few acres remaining, has been scouted, ridiculed, and defeated in Congress. In consequence of this stupendous system of land-grabbing, millions of the young men of America, and millions more of industrious people from abroad, seeking homes in the New World, are left homeless and destitute. The public domain must be sacredly reserved to actual settlers, and where corporations have not complied strictly with the terms of their grants, the lands should be at once reclaimed.

The immigration of persons from foreign countries, seeking homes and desiring to become citizens of the United States, should be encouraged, but the importation of Chinese servile laborers should be prohibited by stringent laws. . . .

One of the grand missions of our party is to banish for ever from American politics that deplorable spirit of sectional hatred which for base purposes has been fostered by the leaders of the old parties. This has greatly deceived and embittered the public mind, both North and South.

Our civilization demands a new party, dedicated to the pursuits of peace, and which will not allow the war issues ever to be reopened, and will render the military strictly subordinate to the civil power. The war is over, and the sweet voice of Peace, long neglected, calls us to worship at her altars; let us crowd her temples with willing votaries. Let us have a free ballot, a fair count, and equal rights for all classes—for the laboring-man in Northern manufactories, mines, and workshops, and for the struggling poor, both white and black, in the cotton-fields of the South.

I most earnestly and solemnly invoke united action of all industrial classes, irrespective of party, that we may make a manly struggle for the independence of labor, and to reestablish in the administration of public affairs the old-time Democracy of Jefferson and Jackson, and the pure Republicanism of Abraham Lincoln and Thaddeus Stevens.

General Garfield accepted the nomination of the Chicago Convention in the following letter addressed to its president:

MENTOR, OHIO, July 10, 1880.

DEAR SIR: On the evening of the 8th of June last I had the honor to receive from you, in the presence of the committee of which you were chairman, the

official announcement that the Republican National Convention at Chicago had that day nominated me as their candidate for President of the United States. I accept the nomination, with gratitude for the confidence it implies, and with a deep sense of the responsibilities it imposes. I cordially endorse the principles set forth in the platform adopted by the Convention. On nearly all the subjects of which it treats, my opinions are on record among the published proceedings of Congress. I venture, however, to make special mention of some of the principal topics which are likely to become subjects of discussion.

Without reviewing the controversies which have been settled during the last twenty years, and with no purpose or wish to revive the passions of the late war, it should be said that while the Republicans fully recognize and will strenuously defend all the rights retained by the people, and all the rights reserved to the States, they reject the pernicious doctrine of State supremacy, which so long crippled the functions of the national Government, and at one time brought the Union very near to destruction. They insist that the United States is a nation, with ample power of self-preservation; that its Constitution and the laws made in pursuance thereof are the supreme law of the land; that the right of the nation to determine the method by which its own Legislature shall be created, can not be surrendered without abdicating one of the fundamental powers of government; that the national laws relating to the election of Representatives in Congress shall neither be violated nor evaded; that every elector shall be permitted, freely and without intimidation, to cast his lawful ballot at such election, and have it honestly counted, and that the potency of his vote shall not be destroyed by the fraudulent vote of any other person. The best thoughts and energies of our people should be directed to those great questions of national well-being, in which all have a common interest. Such efforts will soonest restore to perfect peace those who were lately in arms against each other, for justice and good-will will outlast passion. But it is certain that the wounds of the war can not be completely healed, and the spirit of brotherhood can not fully pervade the whole country, until every citizen, rich or poor, white or black, is secure in the free and equal enjoyment of every civil and political right guaranteed by the Constitution and the laws. Wherever the enjoyment of these rights is not assured, discontent will prevail, immigration will cease, and the social and industrial forces will continue to be disturbed by the migration of laborers and the consequent diminution of prosperity. The national Government should exercise all its constitutional authority to put an end to these evils; for all the people and all the States are members of one body, and no member can suffer without injury to all.

The most serious evils which now afflict the South arise from the fact that there is not such freedom and toleration of political opinion and action that the minority party can exercise an effective and wholesome restraint upon the party in power. Without such restraint party rule becomes tyrannical and corrupt. The prosperity which is made possible in the South by its great advantages of soil and climate will never be realized until every voter can freely and safely support any party he pleases.

Next in importance to freedom and justice is popular education, without which neither justice nor freedom can be permanently maintained. Its interests are intrusted to the States and to the voluntary action of the people. Whatever help the nation can justly afford should be generously given to aid the States in supporting common schools, but it would be unjust to our people and dangerous to our institutions to apply any portion of the revenues of the nation or of the States to the support of sectarian schools. The separation of the Church and the State in everything relating to taxation should be absolute.

On the subject of national finances, my views have been so frequently and fully expressed that little is needed in the way of additional statement. The pub-

lio debt is now so well secured, and the rate of annual interest has been so reduced by refunding, that rigid economy in expenditures and the faithful application of our surplus revenues to the payment of the principal of the debt will gradually but certainly free the people from its burdens, and close with honor the financial chapter of the war. At the same time, the Government can provide for all its ordinary expenditures, and discharge its sacred obligations to the soldiers of the Union, and to the widows and orphans of those who fell in its defense. The resumption of specie payments, which the Republican party so courageously and successfully accomplished, has removed from the field of controversy many questions that long and seriously disturbed the credit of the Government and the business of the country. Our paper currency is now as national as the flag, and resumption has not only made it everywhere equal to coin, but has brought into use our store of gold and silver. The circulating medium is more abundant than ever before, and we need only to maintain the equality of all our dollars to insure to labor and capital a measure of value from the use of which no one can suffer loss. The great prosperity which the country is now enjoying should not be endangered by any violent changes or doubtful financial experiments.

In reference to our customs laws, a policy should be pursued which will bring revenue to the Treasury, and will enable the labor and capital employed in our great industries to compete fairly in our own markets with the labor and capital of foreign producers. We legislate for the people of the United States, not for the whole world, and it is our glory that the American laborer is more intelligent and better paid than his foreign competitor. Our country can not be independent unless its people, with their abundant natural resources, possess the requisite skill at any time to clothe, arm, and equip themselves for war, and in time of peace to produce all the necessary implements of labor. It was the manifest intention of the founders of the Government to provide for the common defense, not by standing armies alone, but by raising among the people a greater army of artisans, whose intelligence and skill should powerfully contribute to the safety and glory of the nation. Fortunately for the interests of commerce, there is no longer any formidable opposition to appropriations for the improvement of our harbors and great navigable rivers, provided that the expenditures for that purpose are strictly limited to works of national importance. The Mississippi River, with its great tributaries, is of such vital importance to so many millions of people that the safety of its navigation requires exceptional consideration. In order to secure to the nation the control of all its waters, President Jefferson negotiated the purchase of a vast territory, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean. The wisdom of Congress should be invoked to devise some plan by which that great river shall cease to be a terror to those who dwell upon its banks, and by which its shipping may safely carry the industrial products of twenty-five millions of people. The interests of agriculture, which is the basis of all our material prosperity, and in which seven twelfths of our population are engaged, as well as the interests of manufactures and commerce, demand that the facilities for cheap transportation shall be increased by the use of all our great watercourses.

The material interests of this country, the traditions of its settlement, and the sentiment of our people, have led the Government to offer the widest hospitality to immigrants who seek our shores for new and happier homes, willing to share the burdens as well as the benefits of our society, and intending that their posterity shall become an undistinguishable part of our population. The recent movement of the Chinese to our Pacific coast partakes but little of the qualities of such an immigration, either in its purposes or its result. It is too much like an importation to be welcomed without restrictions; too much like an invasion to be looked upon without solicitude. We can not consent to allow any form of servile labor to be intro-

duced among us under the guise of immigration. Recognizing the gravity of this subject, the present Administration, supported by Congress, has sent to China a commission of distinguished citizens for the purpose of securing such a modification of the existing treaty as will prevent the evils likely to arise from the present situation. It is confidently believed that these diplomatic negotiations will be successful, without the loss of commercial intercourse between the two powers, which promises a great increase of reciprocal trade and the enlargement of our markets. Should these efforts fail, it will be the duty of Congress to mitigate the evils already felt and prevent their increase by such restrictions as, without violence or injustice, will place upon a sure foundation the peace of our communities and the freedom and dignity of labor.

The appointment of citizens to the various executive and judicial offices of the Government is, perhaps, the most difficult of all duties which the Constitution has imposed on the Executive. The Convention wisely demands that Congress shall cooperate with the Executive department in placing the civil service on a better basis. Experience has proved that, with our frequent changes of Administration, no system of reform can be made effective and permanent without the aid of legislation. Appointments to the military and naval service are so regulated by law and custom as to leave but little ground for complaint. It may not be wise to make similar regulations by law for the civil service. But, without invading the authority or necessary discretion of the Executive, Congress should devise a method that will determine the tenure of office and greatly reduce the uncertainty which makes that service so uncertain and unsatisfactory. Without depriving any officer of his rights as a citizen, the Government should require him to discharge all his official duties with intelligence, efficiency, and faithfulness. To select wisely from our vast population those who are best fitted for the many offices to be filled, requires an acquaintance far beyond the range of any one man. The Executive should, therefore, seek and receive the information and assistance of those whose knowledge of the communities in which the duties are to be performed best qualifies them to aid in making the wisest choice.

The doctrines announced by the Chicago Convention are not the temporary devices of a party to attract votes and carry an election; they are deliberate convictions resulting from a careful study of the spirit of our institutions, the events of our history, and the best impulses of our people. In my judgment, these principles should control the legislation and administration of the Government. In any event, they will guide my conduct until experience points out a better way.

If elected, it will be my purpose to enforce strict obedience to the Constitution and the laws, and to promote, as best I may, the interest and honor of the whole country, relying for support upon the wisdom of Congress, the intelligence and patriotism of the people, and the favor of God.

With great respect, I am, very truly, yours,

J. A. GARFIELD.

To the Hon. GEORGE F. HOAR, Chairman of Committee.

The President and Secretary of the Cincinnati Convention formally notified the Democratic candidates of their nomination, by letter, on the 13th of July. The following is General Hancock's letter of acceptance:

GOVERNOR'S ISLAND, NEW YORK, July 29, 1880.

To Hon. JOHN W. STEVENSON, President of the Convention, Hon. JOHN P. STOCKTON, Chairman, and others of the Committee of the National Democratic Convention.

GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of July 13, 1880, apprising me formally of my nomination to the office of President of

the United States, by the National Democratic Convention, lately assembled in Cincinnati. I accept the nomination, with grateful appreciation of the confidence reposed in me. The principles enunciated by the Convention are those I have cherished in the past and shall endeavor to maintain in the future.

The thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States, embodying the result of the war for the Union, are inviolable. If called to the Presidency I shall deem it my duty to resist, with all my power, any attempt to impair or evade the full force and effect of the Constitution, which, in every article, section, and amendment, is the supreme law of the land. The Constitution forms the basis of the Government of the United States. The powers granted by it to the legislative, executive, and judicial departments define and limit the authority of the General Government. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, belong to the States respectively, or to the people. The General and State Governments, each acting in its own sphere without trenching on the lawful jurisdiction of the other, constitute this Union. This Union, comprising a General Government with general powers, and State governments with State powers for purposes local to the States, is a political system, the foundations of which were laid in the profoundest wisdom. This is the Union our fathers made, and which has been so respected abroad and so beneficent at home. Tried by blood and fire, it stands to-day a model form of free popular government, a political system which, if rightly administered, has been, and will continue to be, the admiration of the world. May we not say, nearly in the words of Washington: "The unity of government which constitutes us one people is justly dear to us. It is the main pillar in the edifice of our real independence, the support of our peace, safety, and prosperity, and of that liberty we so highly prize and intend at every hazard to preserve"? But no form of government, however carefully devised, no principles, however sound, will protect the rights of the people unless the Administration is faithful and efficient.

It is a vital principle in our system that neither fraud nor force must be allowed to subvert the rights of the people. When fraud, violence, or incompetence controls, the noblest constitutions and wisest laws are useless. The bayonet is not the fit instrument for collecting the votes of free men. It is only by a full vote, free ballot, and fair count, that the people can rule in fact, as required by the theory of our Government. Take this foundation away, and the whole structure falls. Public office is a trust, not a bounty bestowed upon the holder. No incompetent or dishonest person should ever be intrusted with it, or, if appointed, he should be promptly ejected.

The basis of substantial, practical, civil-service reform must first be established by the people in filling elective offices. If they fix a high standard of qualifications for office, and sternly reject the corrupt and incompetent, the result will be decisive in governing the action of the servants whom they intrust with the appointing power.

The war for the Union was successfully closed more than fifteen years ago. All classes of our people must share alike in the blessings of the Union, and are equally concerned in its perpetuity, and in the proper administration of public affairs. We are in a state of profound peace. Henceforth let it be our purpose to cultivate sentiments of friendship, and no animosity against our fellow-citizens.

Our material interests, varied and progressive, demand our constant and united efforts. A sedulous and scrupulous care of the public credit, together with a wise and economical management of our governmental expenditures, should be maintained, in order that labor may be lightly burdened, and that all persons may be protected in their rights to the fruits of their own industry.

The time has come to enjoy the substantial benefits of reconciliation. As one people we have common

interests. Let us encourage that harmony and generous rivalry among our own industries which will revive our languishing merchant marine, extend our commerce with foreign countries, assist our merchants, manufacturers, and producers to develop our vast natural resources, and increase the prosperity and happiness of our people.

If elected I shall, with the divine favor, labor with what ability I possess to discharge my duties with fidelity according to my convictions, and shall take care to protect and defend the Union, and to see that the laws are faithfully and equally executed in all parts of the country alike. I will assume the responsibility, fully sensible of the fact that to administer rightly the functions of government is to discharge the most sacred duty that can devolve upon an American citizen. I am, very respectfully,

WINFIELD S. HANCOCK.

The canvass was conducted with considerable warmth and activity, although the leading questions of reform or change in administration and policy entered into the contest to only a slight degree. The issues of the past and the contest of sections were still dwelt upon, and the resources of political management were brought into full play to secure the result. Some incidental and confusing use was made of the question of protection of home industry and that of restricting Chinese immigration, but they were not directly in issue. (For the forged "Chinese letter," see New York.)

The election took place on the 2d of November, and the result of the popular vote in the several States was as follows:

STATES.	Garfield (Republican)	Hancock (Democrat)	Weaver (Green.)	Dow (Prohib.)
Alabama.....	56,221	91,185	4,642	...
Arkansas.....	42,436	60,775	4,079	...
California.....	80,378	80,417	8,376	...
Colorado.....	27,450	24,647	1,425	...
Connecticut.....	67,071	64,415	568	409
Delaware.....	14,133	15,275	120	...
Florida.....	23,632	27,922
Georgia.....	54,056	102,470	969	...
Illinois.....	818,037	277,321	26,858	443
Indiana.....	232,164	225,522	12,956	...
Iowa.....	183,927	105,545	32,701	592
Kansas.....	121,549	95,501	19,551	25
Kentucky.....	166,306	149,068	11,499	258
Louisiana.....	88,016	55,067	439	...
Maine.....	74,089	65,171	4,408	98
Maryland.....	78,515	98,706
Massachusetts.....	165,205	111,960	4,548	682
Michigan.....	185,341	131,597	34,890	942
Minnesota.....	98,908	53,815	3,267	286
Mississippi.....	34,554	75,735	5,737	...
Missouri.....	153,567	208,609	35,135	...
Nebraska.....	84,979	23,528	8,950	...
Nevada.....	10,445	11,215
New Hampshire.....	44,852	40,794	628	150
New Jersey.....	120,555	122,565	2,617	191
New York.....	555,544	534,511	12,373	1,517
North Carolina.....	115,574	124,208	1,126	...
Ohio.....	375,048	340,821	6,456	2,616
Oregon.....	20,619	19,555	245	...
Pennsylvania.....	444,704	407,428	20,668	1,839
Rhode Island.....	18,195	10,779	236	20
South Carolina.....	58,071	112,812	566	...
Tennessee.....	107,677	129,569	5,917	43
Texas.....	53,298	136,528	27,405	...
Vermont.....	45,567	18,816	1,215	...
Virginia.....	84,020	128,586
West Virginia.....	4,243	57,391	9,079	...
Wisconsin.....	144,409	114,649	7,986	69
Total.....	4,450,921	4,447,888	307,740	10,305

The plurality of Garfield over Hancock, as shown in these returns, was 3,033; but in the whole vote the majority against the former was

316,708. In addition to the votes summed up in the table, there were 707 for the American or Antimason ticket, and 989 imperfect and scattering. In Louisiana there were two Garfield tickets, the "regular" and the "Beattie" ticket. The former received 27,676 and the latter 10,340 votes. In Maine the Hancock vote was cast for a "Fusion" ticket, consisting of four Greenbackers and three Democrats, but there was also a straight Greenback ticket. In Virginia there were two Hancock tickets, that of the regular Democrats and that of the "Readjusters." The former received 96,912 and the latter 31,674 votes.

The electoral votes of the several States were cast on the 6th of December, with the exception of those of Georgia, which, in accordance with a State law, were cast on the second Wednesday of that month. The votes were as follows:

STATES (38).	PRESIDENT.		VICE-PRESIDENT.		Total.
	Garfield.	Hancock.	Arthur.	Englsh.	
Alabama.....	..	10	..	10	10
Arkansas.....	..	6	..	6	6
California.....	1	5	1	5	6
Colorado.....	3	..	2	..	3
Connecticut....	6	..	6	..	6
Delaware.....	..	3	..	3	3
Florida.....	..	4	..	4	4
Georgia.....	..	11	..	11	11
Illinois.....	21	..	21	..	21
Indiana.....	15	..	15	..	15
Iowa.....	11	..	11	..	11
Kansas.....	5	..	5	..	5
Kentucky.....	..	12	..	12	12
Louisiana.....	..	8	..	8	8
Maine.....	7	..	7	..	7
Maryland.....	..	3	..	3	3
Massachusetts..	13	..	13	..	13
Michigan.....	11	..	11	..	11
Minnesota.....	5	..	5	..	5
Mississippi....	..	8	..	8	8
Missouri.....	..	15	..	15	15
Nebraska.....	3	..	3	..	3
Nevada.....	..	3	..	3	3
N. Hampshire..	5	..	5	..	5
New Jersey....	..	9	..	9	9
New York.....	35	..	35	..	35
North Carolina	..	10	..	10	10
Ohio.....	22	..	22	..	22
Oregon.....	3	..	3	..	3
Pennsylvania..	29	..	29	..	29
Rhode Island..	4	..	4	..	4
South Carolina	..	7	..	7	7
Tennessee.....	..	12	..	12	12
Texas.....	..	8	..	8	8
Vermont.....	5	..	5	..	5
Virginia.....	..	11	..	11	11
West Virginia.	..	5	..	5	5
Wisconsin.....	10	..	10	..	10
Total.....	214	155	214	155	869

A decision of the Supreme Court, rendered in March, upholds the constitutionality of the law under which a State Judge may be indicted and punished for excluding colored citizens from jury-lists. The case arose in Virginia, where Judge Rives, of the United States District Court, had directed his grand jury to find indictments against State Judges charged with this offense. Judge Coles, of the State Court, who had been indicted and placed under arrest, denied the jurisdiction of the Federal Court, and refused to give bail. The case was brought before the Supreme Court, by an

application for a writ of *habeas corpus*, with a view to testing the validity of the act of March 4, 1879. The Court refused the application, and held that the act under which Judge Coles was indicted was authorized by the thirteenth and fourteenth amendments of the Constitution, Justice Strong delivering the opinion. Justices Clifford and Field dissented, the latter arguing that nothing can be found in the Constitution or its amendments which authorizes any interference by Congress with the States in the administration of their government and the enforcement of their laws, with respect to any matter over which jurisdiction was not surrendered to the United States. Nothing, in his judgment, could have a greater tendency to destroy the independence and autonomy of the States, and reduce them to a humiliating and degrading dependence upon the Central Government, engender constant irritation, and destroy that domestic tranquillity which it was one of the objects of the Constitution to insure, than the doctrine asserted in this case—that Congress can exercise coercive authority over the judicial officers of the States in the discharge of their duties under State laws. It will be only another step in the same direction toward consolidation, when it assumes to exercise similar coercive authority over the Governors and legislators of States.

Another decision, rendered on the 8th of March, upheld the validity of the Federal election laws. Certain election officers in Baltimore had been convicted in the United States Circuit Court and imprisoned, for interfering with the Federal supervisors of election and deputy-marshals in the discharge of their duties. The case was brought before the Supreme Court by a petition for writs of *habeas corpus* and *certiorari*, on the ground that the provision of the Federal election laws, under which the State officers were indicted, were unconstitutional. Justice Bradley delivered the opinion of the Court, and held—

1. That the Federal election laws are constitutional and valid.
2. That Circuit Courts have jurisdiction of indictments under these laws.
3. That, under the Constitution, Congress has supervisory power over regulations made by a State for the management of Congressional elections, and may either alter, modify, or add to them entirely new regulations.
4. That in the exercise of such supervisory power Congress may impose new duties on officers of election, or additional penalties for breach of duty, or provide for the attendance of officers to prevent frauds and see that elections are legally and fairly conducted.
5. That the exercise of such power can properly cause no collision of regulations or jurisdiction, because the authority of Congress over the subject is paramount and supersedes all inconsistent regulations of a State.
6. That there is nothing in the relation of the State and national sovereignties to preclude the coöperation of both in the matter of elections of representatives.
7. That Congress has power, under the Constitution, to vest in Circuit Courts the appointment of supervisors of elections.
8. That the provision which authorizes deputy-mar-

shals to keep the peace at elections is not unconstitutional, and that the national Government has the right to use physical force in any part of the United States to compel obedience to its laws.

9. That the supervisory power of Congress includes the power to compel State officers of elections to observe such State laws, with regard to the election of representatives, as Congress may have left unchanged.

Justices Clifford and Field dissented in this case also, the latter submitting an elaborate opinion, in which he maintained that it is not competent for Congress to punish a State officer for the manner in which he discharged the duties imposed upon him by State laws. The judicial power of the Government, he argued, is limited by the Constitution to "cases in law and equity arising under the Constitution and laws of the United States," and to certain other cases which the Constitution enumerates. It can not be enlarged by Congress so as to embrace cases not enumerated by the Constitution. Furthermore, the Federal law to punish a State officer for the manner in which he performs a duty imposed upon him by his State asserts a power inconsistent with and destructive of the independence of the States in matters over which their authority has never been surrendered. If the Federal Government can punish the violation of the laws of a State, it may also punish obedience to them, and graduate the punishment according to its own judgment of their propriety and wisdom. It may thus exercise supervision over the legislation of States, subversive of all their reserved powers. If the Federal Government can do this, the tenth amendment is a delusion, and the States may at any time be degraded to the level of municipal corporations, existing at the will of Congress.

The Commissioners Plenipotentiary sent to China for the purpose of negotiating a treaty which should restrict immigration from that empire to the United States, concluded their negotiations with the signature of two treaties at Peking, on the 17th of November, one of which was of a commercial character only. The most important feature of the latter is a prohibition of all participation by American citizens or American vessels in the opium-traffic. The following is the text of the treaty which relates to immigration :

Whereas, In the eighth year of Heen-fung, Anno Domini 1858, a treaty of peace and friendship was concluded between the United States of America and China, to which were added, in the seventh year of Tung Chih, Anno Domini 1868, certain supplementary articles to the advantage of both parties, which supplementary articles were to be perpetually observed and obeyed ; and

Whereas, The Government of the United States, because of the constantly increasing immigration of Chinese laborers to the territory of the United States, and the embarrassments consequent upon such immigration, now desires to negotiate a modification of the existing treaties, which shall not be in direct contravention of their spirit :

Now, therefore, the President of the United States of America has appointed James B. Angell, of Michigan ; John F. Swift, of California ; and William Henry Trescott, of South Carolina, as his Commissioners

Plenipotentiary, and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China has appointed Pao Chun, a member of his Imperial Majesty's Privy Council, and Superintendent of the Board of Civil Office, and Li Hung Tsao, a member of his Imperial Majesty's Privy Council, as his Commissioners Plenipotentiary ; and the said Commissioners, having conjointly examined their full powers, and having discussed the points of possible modification in existing treaties, have agreed upon the following articles in modification :

ARTICLE I. Whenever, in the opinion of the Government of the United States, the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, affect, or threaten to affect, the interests of that country, to endanger the good order of the said country, or of any locality within the territory thereof, the Government of China agrees that the Government of the United States may regulate, limit, or suspend such coming or residence, but may not absolutely prohibit it. The limitation or suspension shall be reasonable, and shall apply only to Chinese who may go to the United States as laborers, other classes not being included in the limitation. Legislation taken in regard to Chinese laborers will be of such a character only as is necessary to enforce the regulation, limitation, or suspension of immigration, and immigrants shall not be subject to personal maltreatment or abuse.

ART. II. Chinese subjects, whether proceeding to the United States as teachers, students, merchants, or from curiosity, together with body and household servants, and Chinese laborers who are now in the United States, shall be allowed to go and come of their own free-will and accord, and shall be accorded all the rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions which are accorded to the citizens and subjects of the most favored nation.

ART. III. If Chinese laborers or Chinese of any other class, now either permanently or temporarily residing in the territory of the United States, meet with ill-treatment at the hands of any other persons, the Government of the United States will exert all its power to devise measures for their protection, and to secure to them the same rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions as may be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation, and to which they are entitled by treaty.

ART. IV. The high contracting powers having agreed upon the foregoing articles, whenever the Government of the United States shall adopt legislative measures in accordance therewith, such measures will be communicated to the Government of China. If such measures, as enacted, are found to work hardships upon the subjects of China, the Chinese Minister at Washington may bring the matter to the notice of the Secretary of State of the United States, who will consider the subject with him ; and the Chinese Foreign Office may also bring the matter to the notice of the United States Minister at Peking, and consider the subject with him, to the end that mutual and unqualified benefit may result.

In faith whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed the foregoing at Peking, in English and Chinese, being three originals of each text, of even tenor and date, the ratifications of which shall be exchanged at Peking, within one year from the date of its execution.

Done at Peking, this 17th day of November, in the year of our Lord 1880, Kuang Tsu, sixth year, tenth moon, fifteenth day.

JAMES B. ANGELL,

JOHN F. SWIFT,

WILLIAM HENRY TRESCOTT,

Signatures of Chinese Commissioners,

[SEAL.]

[SEAL.]

[SEAL.]

[SEAL.]

Both treaties await ratification by the Senate.

(For matters pertaining to national and international trade, see COMMERCE ; for condition of military and naval forces, see ARMY and NAVY, respectively ; for financial movements

and operations, see FINANCES; for matters of domestic policy and internal affairs, see CONGRESS, PUBLIC DOCUMENTS, and the several States under their respective names.)

UNIVERSALISTS. The Board of Trustees reported to the General Convention in October, 1880, that the statistical returns they had received were more nearly full than ever before; those from New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota were complete, and those from New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Kentucky substantially so. No returns had been received from Missouri or Georgia. The following is the summary of the statistics, the numbers in parishes not reporting being estimated:

STATES.	Parishes.	Families.	Church-members.	Members of Sunday-schools.
Maine.....	72	3,499	1,412	5,041
New Hampshire.....	89	1,821	735	1,758
Vermont.....	66	2,711	1,594	2,749
Massachusetts.....	113	9,904	6,120	15,731
Rhode Island.....	3	591	655	1,418
Connecticut.....	15	1,057	925	1,590
New York.....	187	5,634	6,477	7,734
New Jersey.....	9	345	189	1,300
Pennsylvania.....	36	941	1,558	2,025
Maryland.....	2	149	814	814
District of Columbia.....	1	95	70	...
Georgia.....	13	80	307	163
Alabama.....	12	183	349	...
Ohio.....	110	2,905	5,136	4,265
Michigan.....	32	833	532	1,302
Indiana.....	55	733	2,213	1,603
Illinois.....	65	2,638	2,390	3,151
Wisconsin.....	24	567	445	761
Minnesota.....	9	392	342	601
Iowa.....	34	1,050	665	1,467
Kansas.....	5	127	71	187
Nebraska.....	2	40	...	50
Dakota Territory.....	1	30	...	50
Colorado.....	1	20	...	20
Kentucky.....	8	225	410	65
Province of Quebec.....	5	123	199	67
Nova Scotia.....	1	71	...	100
Oregon.....	10	150	332	...
Wyoming Territory.....	4	100	119	...
Total.....	889	37,209	33,579	53,512

The total amount of property owned by the churches above the amount of indebtedness was \$6,752,100; the total amount of expenditures for church purposes was \$1,180,997. The receipts of the Board of Trustees had been \$15,275. The Murray Centenary Fund amounted to \$121,757. The indebtedness of the Convention had been reduced from \$15,120 to \$11,631. The J. G. Gunn Ministerial Fund amounted to \$8,152. The Woman's Centenary Association had received during the year \$1,329, and had a permanent fund of \$2,150. The Publication and Tract Committee had distributed 587,000 pages of tracts and large numbers of denominational papers and books throughout the United States, and in Scotland, Mexico, Central America, and Australia. The Trustees had obtained a charter under the laws of Massachusetts in

order to gain greater freedom in investments than they enjoyed under their charter from New York. A number of local missions were supported, including one among the Indians. A communication had been received from the Universalist Convention in Scotland asking for the fellowship of the General Convention. The Convention did not contemplate extending formal fellowship to ecclesiastical bodies beyond the limits of America, but made an expression of sympathy and fraternal interest toward the Scottish Convention. The special scholarship fund amounted to \$7,215; forty students had been aided from it.

The *General Convention* of Universalists met at Hudson, N. Y., October 20th. Mr. J. D. W. Joy, of Massachusetts, was reelected President. A report of the Board of Trustees on pastoral settlements showed that a large number of the parishes were idle; that the average length of pastoral terms was short; and that a large amount of church property was suffering through neglect. The action of the Trustees in withholding beneficiary aid from students who use tobacco was approved. A committee appointed by the previous General Convention on the subject of the International Sunday-school Lessons reported that these Lessons were generally approved in Universalist Sunday-schools, that they were received with favor and taught with good results. A minority report, signed by one member, urged that the Lessons were subject to the objection that they were selected by a body in which Universalists were not represented, and that Universalists might make a selection more suitable to themselves. Both reports were accepted. An earnest debate took place over a proposition to modify the Confession of Faith by substituting, instead of the present form, for the words, "will finally restore the whole family," in Article II, words which shall make the sentence read: "We believe there is one God, whose nature is Love, revealed by one Holy Spirit of Grace in one Lord Jesus Christ, through whom the whole family of mankind will finally attain holiness and happiness." The proposition was indefinitely postponed. It was ordered that proceedings for the restoration of clergymen who have been disfellowshipped shall take place on the application of the party himself, but not until after the lapse of three years. Restoration may take place on the concurrence of two thirds of the Board of Trustees of the General Convention with the favorable action of the Committee of Fellowship. It was decided that ordination shall not be conferred within one week of the meeting of the Council ordering it; that the authority to ordain be confined to judicial bodies duly appointed; and that one of the Committee of Fellowship shall at the ordination give fellowship in due form.

V

VERMONT. The Vermont Republicans assembled in State Convention at Montpelier, on February 25th, for the selection of four delegates at large to the National Republican Convention, which was to assemble at Chicago on June 2d. The Convention was numerously attended, above five hundred members being present; and, as soon as it had been organized, the following resolution was adopted by a unanimous vote:

The Republicans of Vermont present to the Republicans of the country George F. Edmunds as a suitable person to be made the candidate of the Republican party for the next President. We do this not wholly or chiefly from our State pride in a man whose public service has been so honorable to the people whom he has represented, but because his pure life, his eminent ability, his valuable public service, and his unflinching Republicanism, have marked him, by a higher title than the accident of birthplace or residence, as a person fit to be President of the United States. Himself a representative of what the Republican party ought to hold as its most precious possession, an unwavering fidelity to the principles upon which the party was built and has won its great reputation, and of the intellectual power and moral sense and courage through which alone it can preserve what it has so worthily achieved, his candidacy would be of itself a declaration of principles and the sign of success.

The four delegates appointed to the Chicago Convention were, John Gregory Smith, of St. Albans; John W. Stewart, of Middlebury; Frederick Billings, of Woodstock; and George W. Hooker, of Brattleboro.

The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the Republican party, organized in the interest of freedom and equal rights, has established its right to live, not only by carrying the nation through the most gigantic civil war in history, but by successful maintenance of the theory that this is a nation and not a mere confederation of independent sovereignties; by the payment of nearly eight hundred millions of the public debt; by the accomplishment of a return to a specie basis of the currency, and by important retrenchments and economies in the administration of the Government.

Resolved, That the developments of the past four years, in the disclosures of plots to subvert the choice of the people in the election of a President by bribery of electors; in the practical overthrow of popular government in seven States of the Union by terrorism and ballot-box frauds, and in the recent desperate attempt to steal the State government of Maine, as part of a scheme to taint the vote of the State in the next electoral college, furnish occasion for just alarm on the part of friends of a republican form of government; and that all honest and patriotic citizens should resist these tendencies to anarchy, and put the stamp of their condemnation on such practices, by their votes at the polls.

Resolved, That the Republican party must be sustained, as the only effective barrier to the success of such treasonable schemes, and as the efficient supporter of the national unity, credit, and honor, until free thought, free speech, a free press, protection of the person, property, and civil rights of the citizen in any part of the Union in which he sees fit to reside, irrespective of color, party, or religion, and the right

of every voter to cast one free, unmolested ballot at each election, and to have it honestly counted, shall be established throughout the length and breadth of the Union.

Resolved, That while we record our firm determination that the results of the war for the Union shall not be lost, we have no hatred toward our brethren of the South. We ask of them only what we hold ourselves bound to render—obedience to law, maintenance of order, equality of rights, and acceptance of the fair rule of the majority in elections; and for all who honestly accept these fundamental principles of democratic government we have only the kindly and fraternal feeling which should animate the citizens of one nation.

Resolved, That we commend the Administration of President Hayes for its successful resistance to the attempts of the Democratic party in Congress to subvert the independence of the constituent departments of the Government, and to coerce the President into the signing of bills making important changes which he could not approve; for its support of honest money and a currency of intrinsic value; and for its efforts to purify and keep clean the public service.

Resolved, That we welcome every well-directed effort to raise the standard of official and personal character in the public servants and representatives, and to elevate the civil service by making the choice and retention of public officials dependent on honesty, capacity, and fidelity, rather than on the caprice of personal favor of Congressmen and heads of departments.

A resolution was offered, "directing the State Committee in the future to call the State Conventions for the selection of the whole delegation from the State."

The Republicans convened at Burlington, on June 23d, to nominate their candidates for State officers and two Presidential electors, for the State at large, which resulted as follows: For Governor, Roswell Farnham, of Bradford; for Lieutenant-Governor, John L. Barstow, of Shelburne; for State Treasurer, John A. Page, of Montpelier. For Presidential electors at large, William W. Wynde, of Brattleboro, and William Y. W. Ripley, of Rutland, were nominated.

The Committee on Resolutions reported the following, which were adopted as the platform of the Convention:

Resolved, That we, the Republicans of Vermont, in State Convention assembled, do hereby adopt as our platform of principles for the coming campaign the platform adopted by the National Republican Convention at Chicago.

Resolved, That with Farnham, Barstow, and Page as our standard-bearers, the State of Vermont hereby pledges to her sister Commonwealths to give her accustomed Republican majority in September, to be followed in November only by a greater and grander victory under the banner of Garfield and Arthur.

The Greenback-Labor party held their State Convention at Essex Junction, on June 24th, about fifty members being in attendance, and nominated the following ticket:

For Governor, Madison O. Heath, of Johnson; for Lieutenant-Governor, Columbus F

Clough, of Waterbury; for State Treasurer, Fletcher Tarbell, of Swanton; for Presidential electors for the State at large, G. J. Stannard, of Burlington, and J. J. Burgess, of St. Albans.

The resolutions adopted by the Convention endorse the platform and nominee of the National Labor Convention held at Chicago; call for the enforcement of the grand list laws, for the equalization of taxes, and for cutting down officers' salaries. They also endorse the nominations previously made for State officers.

The Vermont Democrats assembled in State Convention at Burlington on July 22d, and made the following nominations: For Governor, Edward J. Phelps, of Burlington; for Lieutenant-Governor, George W. Gates, of White River Junction; for State Treasurer, James H. Williams, of Bellows Falls; for Presidential electors at large, Cyrus Jennings, of Hubbardston, and Joseph W. Bliss, of Bradford.

The platform adopted by the Convention endorsed the platform of the National Democratic Convention at Cincinnati, and ratified its nominations; pledged hearty support to the Democratic State ticket, and commended it to the suffrages of the people of Vermont; called for a purer and more economical administration of State affairs, and hailed with satisfaction the wish of the people to get rid of the Republican rule which has so long controlled the State. The resolutions in regard to the specific subjects of State expenditures and taxation were as follows:

Resolved, That we denounce that policy of profligacy in the State government which has increased our State tax from seventeen to forty cents on the dollar of the grand list in the past twenty-five years, and has swollen the strictly current State expenses, which were only \$160,000 in 1856 and only \$279,000 after the war, to nearly or quite \$400,000 since.

Resolved, That all classes should contribute to the expenses of supporting the Government in proportion to their material wealth. We therefore demand such legislation as shall make taxation both equal and effectual.

Resolved, That all property which the law protects ought to bear its just share of the expenses of that protection. Therefore we demand that the corporate wealth of the State be taxed in equal proportion with the property of the farmer, merchant, mechanic, and day-laborer; and that all laws which specially exempt the property of any business interests should be repealed.

A resolution calling for the enactment of an anti-prohibitory law in the State was proposed by some among the members of the Convention, and its insertion in the foregoing platform recommended; but the motion did not prevail.

At the election in September for State officers and Congressmen, as in that of November 2d for Presidential electors afterward, the Republican nominees were generally elected by great majorities. The entire number of votes polled in the State for Governor was 70,684, of which 47,848 were cast for the Republican candidate, 21,245 for the Democratic, 1,578 for the Greenback-Labor, and 13 scattering. At the district elections for Congressmen the

majorities of the Republican candidates over the Democratic exceeded the proportion of two to one, they having been 15,645 to 6,711—15,960 to 6,698—12,253 to 6,191, respectively. As to the members-elect of the State Legislature, the 30 Senators were all Republicans, and of the 236 Representatives 217 were also Republicans. In the previous Legislature, the Democrats had one Senator, and 43 Representatives in the Lower House, where the Greenbackers also had 9, and the Independents 5.

The Legislature assembled at Montpelier on October 6th, when both Houses were speedily organized by the election of their respective officers.

On October 20th George F. Edmunds was reelected a Senator in Congress for the full term of six years from March 4, 1881.

For the election of the seven Judges of the Supreme Court, the two Houses held joint conventions on November 11th and December 3d, when the following persons by a *viva voce* vote, and one by ballot, were elected: For Chief-Justice, John Pierpoint, of Vergennes; for First Assistant Justice, Homer E. Royce, of St. Albans; second, Timothy P. Redfield; third, Jonathan Ross, of St. Johnsbury; fourth, H. Henry Powers, of Morrisville; fifth, Wheelock G. Weazey, of Rutland; sixth, Russell S. Taft, of Burlington.

The State of Vermont is free from debt. Her assets at the close of the last fiscal year amounted to \$235,074.35, made up of \$213,840.82 ready cash in the Treasury and in banks; \$17,375.79 due from savings-bank taxes; and \$3,857.74 due on State tax of 1879. Her aggregate liabilities at the same date were \$185,971.69; of which sum, \$135,500 of the Agricultural College fund will not fall due before 1890, and \$11,519.96 due to towns.

The entire number of depositors in the savings-banks and trust companies within the State on July 1, 1880, was 34,869, or 2,214 more than at the same date in 1879. Their deposits amounted in the aggregate to \$9,075,314.39, showing an increase of \$996,568.58 over the deposits of the previous year. The tax of one half of one per cent., laid on these corporations by an act of the Legislature of 1878, has given the State an income of \$50,126.04 during the eighteen months in which that law has been in force.

The education of youth in the State has continued in about the same condition as previously.

In the University of Vermont and State Agricultural College, the number of undergraduates in the academical department during the year 1878-'79 was 82, and in the medical department 140 students; during the year 1879-'80 the undergraduates numbered 81; the medical students 143. The works among the farmers, executed by the university in connection with the Superintendent of Agriculture, in these two years, have proved successful.

This institution is very economically man-

aged by its trustees, who keep the expenses within the income. They aver in their report that its condition and usefulness are, for want of means, much below the plane on which it might and ought to stand, saying, among other things, "The satisfactory balance-sheet must not be suffered to disguise the fact that the higher education in Vermont is suffering, because the State University has not sufficient means to do its work as that work is done in other States." This is believed to be the chief reason why a large number among the studious youth of Vermont go away from home to seek elsewhere that instruction in various branches of knowledge which they can not receive in their own State. During the academical year 1877-'78 there were in Dartmouth College 98 students from Vermont—60 academical, 14 scientific, and 24 medical students.

The charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions of the State are under good management generally, and accomplish their special objects. The blind, deaf-mutes, and feeble-minded children are kept in neighboring States where institutions for their instruction have been established—the Perkins Institution for the Blind, the American Asylum and Clarke Institute for Deaf-Mutes, the Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Youth. For their support and education, the annual sums of \$4,000, \$5,000, and \$2,000 are respectively appropriated. The officers of the above-mentioned institutions give satisfactory reports on the conduct and proficiency of the Vermont children under their care, and testify that some among them are considerably above the average in comparison with their fellow-pupils.

In the State Reform School for the correction of youth the number of inmates on July 31, 1880, was 122—boys 103, girls 19. At the same date in 1878 they were 122 and 33 respectively, or in all 33 more than in 1880. The commitments during the year were boys 22, girls 3; and all the commitments since the establishment of the school have been 619—the age of the offenders committed ranging from six to nineteen years. The expenses of the school for the two years ended July 31, 1880, amounted to \$39,384.25. The net earnings were \$4,953.32; the total receipts, \$13,647.11; leaving to the State's charge a deficiency of \$25,737.14, which is \$9,262.86 less than the sum appropriated for the school.

The State Prison was personally inspected by Governor Proctor, soon after entering office in October, 1878, and from what he saw, as well as on other evidence, he found it in a very unsatisfactory condition, for lack of discipline, and of system in its management under the superintendent who had it in charge. Seeing the necessity of appointing a new superintendent, possessed of rare experience in such matters, and of other uncommon qualifications in regard to personal character, and finding no such man in Vermont, he appointed one from a neighboring State. The number of convicts

therein detained at the beginning of October, 1880, was 142.

Governor Farnham ascribes the decrease in the number of convicts partly to a proportion of them being received in the House of Correction, "but principally to a great decrease in high crime in the State"; although, while speaking in the same message on the subject of public education, and its necessity as a means of diminishing the number of criminals, he avers that the State does not do her whole duty in that regard, and acknowledges that crime is of native growth in Vermont, and not imported, saying: "In 1878 there were sixty-eight commitments to the State Prison; of these, thirty-one were natives of Vermont, and only thirteen foreigners. I use the statistics of 1878, because I have not those of 1880 at hand. In 1878 there were one hundred and eighty-six convicts in the State Prison; of these, seventy-two were natives of Vermont, and only thirty-nine of foreign birth. Surely, we can not charge the crimes of our State upon the uneducated foreigners who come to our shores."

The militia of Vermont is apparently a small force, consisting of one regiment and a portion of one battery, but in excellent condition as to discipline and presumable efficiency if called upon for active service, while it costs very little to the State.

The number of divorces granted in Vermont during the year 1879 was one hundred and twenty-six, or in the proportion of one to twenty-one marriages, which is less than in any year since 1865, and one third less than in 1878, when they numbered one hundred and ninety-two, in the proportion of one divorce to fourteen marriages. This desirable decrease in the number of divorces is ascribed to the operation of the law enacted at the session of 1878 "in restraint of divorces."

The aggregate population of Vermont in 1880, as appears from the census, is 332,648, showing an increase of 2,097 during the ten previous years, her population in 1870 having been 330,551.

A most noteworthy event of the year for Vermont seems to be the completion of the "Revision of the State Laws," enjoined by an act of the Legislature passed for that purpose at the session of 1878, the mode and objects of the revision being accurately expressed in the first section of the act, as follows:

SECTION 1. The Governor is hereby authorized and directed to appoint two commissioners, whose duty it shall be to revise, redraught, compile, consolidate, and arrange in methodical order, in plain and simple language, the public statutes of this State, upon the basis, plan, and general form of the general statutes, with authority to omit redundant enactments, reject superfluous words, circuitous and ambiguous phraseology, recommend amendments, and condense the whole into as concise and comprehensive form as is consistent with a full and clear expression of the will of the Legislature, and report the same to the General Assembly at its next biennial session.

Governor Proctor appointed, as such Commissioners, Charles W. Willard and Wheelock

G. Weazey. During the work of the revision, Mr. Willard died, yet at a time when the greater part of it had been perfected, and the rest so far advanced that Mr. Weazey, assisted chiefly by Ashton R. Willard, son of the deceased Commissioner, and well acquainted with the whole scope of the revision, and with the views entertained about it by his father, to whom he had been a constant assistant, has in due time completed the work, and reported on it as the act prescribes.

VIRGINIA. The Legislature of this State closed its session of 1879-'80 by final adjournment on March 9th, having passed during its continuance a large number of acts and joint resolutions, mostly of private or local interest.

The most important bill of general interest passed by the Legislature at this session, but prevented from becoming a law by the Governor's veto, was the Senate bill 176, entitled "An act to reestablish the public credit of the State," purporting to repudiate above \$13,000,000 of the hitherto acknowledged principal of the State debt; to cut off one half of the promised interest upon the residue, and to make nearly all of the residue itself depend on the State, city, and county taxation. This bill passed the Senate on February 11th, by a vote of yeas 23, nays 17. The House of Representatives passed it on February 26th, with an amendment, as reported from its Committee on Finance two days before, striking the thirteenth section out of the original bill and inserting a new one instead, which amendment was agreed to by the Senate at the night session of March 1st, upon the motion and remarks made for that purpose by the author of the bill; the vote on agreeing to the House amendment having stood—yeas 24, nays 11.

The Governor, to whom this bill was submitted for his approval, returned it to the Senate, accompanied with a communication setting forth his objections in detail, and concluding as follows:

I can not put my signature in approval to this bill. I respectfully return it to your honorable body in which it originated, because I believe it to be in violation of the Constitution of the State, in violation of the Constitution of the United States, in violation of the spirit which has ever moved and inspired the traditions of the Commonwealth and made her name so honored among men.

The veto was sustained by the Senate on March 8th, as the number of votes for passing the bill over it fell short of the required two thirds—being yeas 19, nays 16. That portion of Governor Holliday's message to the Legislature respecting the said bill in which he officially states the cause and origin of the debt, the benefits accrued, and still accruing, to the State and her people from its having been contracted, and the solemn declarations whereby she has repeatedly recognized it and promised to pay—principal and interest—was as follows:

For many years our Commonwealth enjoyed the rich bounties of her climate and soil, satisfied that her people should live in inherited comfort and refinement,

and that her sons should be the leaders of political thought upon the continent. The time came when activities operating upon other sections of the country impelled her to arouse herself, lest with her great resources she should be left behind in the march of material development. She inaugurated a system of internal improvements, and, for the purpose of effecting them, went into the market and borrowed large sums of money, of which she expended more than \$34,000,000 in their construction within her present borders. For these sums of money so borrowed she executed her bonds, and as the basis of credit as far back as 1838, pledged "the faith of the State to provide sufficient funds, and for that purpose to levy adequate taxes." This was the origin of the debt, the consideration of which survives to this day in our midst, increasing manifold the values of the property; indeed, without which, great portions of Virginia would be a waste. It will not be denied that its origin was most laudable and wise, and worthy of the faith the Commonwealth had pledged. She had no trouble in getting the money, for the part she had always played in peace and in war gave her a name the very synonym of honor.

She fulfilled her promises, and promptly paid the interest as it fell due till the war came, and with it its attendant devastations and woes. While it lasted, she was cut off from numbers of her creditors who were scattered in this country and Europe, and the interest failed to be met. But no sooner was peace proclaimed than a General Assembly, composed of her best citizens—men of the old *regime*—unanimously reaffirmed the obligation. This was repeated in one form or another not less than four times. For several years she was under military rule, but when permitted to vote she adopted by an immense majority, 210,585 for, to 9,136 against—about 23 to 1—a Constitution, which fully admitted the sanctity of the debt, and in many clauses provided for its payment. The earliest General Assembly under that Constitution made provision for it, and passed a funding bill which likewise recognized it in its entirety. This bill, as to one of its features, was repealed at the next session, but without disputing in any way the amount of the debt. So events moved on, with frequent repetition of these views, till the fall of 1877 a General Assembly was elected solely upon this issue. They went diligently to work, and during the first session settled over again, after long, able, and heated discussion, those mooted questions—the war and reconstruction, interest, and the *quantum* of the debt—and at its second session passed, by a large majority, a bill which was based upon the consent of the creditors, and was regarded by the outside world as honorable and fair.

No bill of force ever became a law, and the act of the last Legislature brought the debt within the present rate of taxation. In the annual message sent a few weeks ago to your honorable body I show how the law was working admirably, and but for the impediments thrown in its way would have been a complete success, and with the present revenues would in a short time have discharged the annual expenses of government, and of the public free schools, the interest on the State debt funded in the new bonds, and left a large surplus in the Treasury.

The funding, of course, has ceased in presence of this opposition, and a majority of this General Assembly propose to abrogate its provisions.

The Republican party of Virginia, represented by some 140 delegates, met in State Convention at Staunton on April 22d, to select delegates to the National Republican Convention to be held at Chicago on June 3d, and also to nominate candidates for Presidential electors. The nomination of an electoral ticket at this time was opposed by a large proportion of the delegates in attendance, who would have it remitted to a future Convention called for

that purpose. But no sooner was the Convention organized than a delegate offered three resolutions: the first, endorsing U. S. Grant; the second, instructing the delegation to Chicago to vote as a unit for Grant; the third, declaring the inexpediency of nominating an electoral ticket at that time, and empowering the State Central Committee, hereafter to be appointed, to call a convention for the 28th of July to nominate an electoral ticket. These resolutions were referred for consideration to a committee, who subsequently reported on them, and at the same time presented two minority reports, both advocating the nomination of an electoral ticket now and by this Convention.

This view of the subject finally prevailed, but the apparently irreconcilable opposition of large numbers of delegates upon that point was the cause of very heated and stormy debates, almost uninterruptedly continued for two days and nights, till five o'clock in the morning of April 24th, when the following resolutions were adopted:

1. *Resolved*, That no elector shall be placed upon the Republican electoral ticket who is not pledged to support the Republican nomination made at Chicago.
2. *Resolved*, That the Convention now proceed to nominate and elect our full electoral ticket.

These resolutions had been offered by a delegate on the previous day, and signed also by the President of the Convention, with three more among the most prominent delegates, and the sentiment manifested in the adoption of either was remarkably different. The first resolution was adopted unanimously; the second by a very small majority, the votes on it having been 69 for and 61 against.

The nomination of Presidential electors and the selection of delegates to the Chicago Convention were then successively acted upon, with the following results:

For electors at large: W. C. Wickham, of Hanover, and J. M. Dawson (colored), of Williamsburg, were nominated unanimously.

For district electors: first district, L. R. Stuart, of Richmond County; third, John W. Poindexter, of Louisa; fourth, William P. Austin, of Lunenburg; fifth, Asa T. Whitlock, of Floyd; sixth, Samuel Collier, of Amherst; seventh, E. W. Early, of Albemarle; eighth, A. W. Harris, of Alexandria; ninth, H. H. Flanagan.

The selection of the second district elector was by resolution remitted to a Congressional convention of that district, subject to the conditions imposed by the Convention.

For delegates to the Chicago Convention from the State at large: D. S. Lewis, Peter J. Carter, John W. Poindexter, and Joseph Jorgensen.

The Democrats held their State Convention at Richmond on the 29th of May, the meeting being very numerous attended, and most harmonious in its proceedings. For delegates to the National Democratic Convention which

was to assemble at Cincinnati on June 22d, and for Presidential electors representing the State at large, those were declared appointed or nominated who at the ballots taken for the purpose had received the highest numbers of votes among the competitors.

For Presidential electors at large: John Echols, of Augusta, and P. W. McKinney, of Prince Edward.

For delegates to the Cincinnati Convention from the State at large: John W. Daniel, William Terry, James Barbour, and S. H. Moffett. Alternates: R. B. Berkeley, of Farmville, and Carson Patteson, of Buckingham.

To direct the action of these delegates, a resolution was adopted, instructing them "to oppose the abrogation of the two-thirds rule."

The platform adopted was as follows:

1. *Resolved by the Democratic party of Virginia, in convention assembled*, That we are in affiliation with the national Democracy, and will support its nominees for President and Vice-President of the United States.
2. That party lines in Federal politics should be drawn with sole reference to Federal issues.
3. That it becomes a manly people to demand of candidates for representative positions, and honest aspirants, to decide where they stand as between the two great parties of the country, and we will support for elector no person who does not manifest his adherence to the national Democracy, and its candidates on the presidential ticket.
4. That the national Democracy deserves the confidence and support of the people for its steady adherence to the principles of constitutional liberty upon which the republic was founded, and for cherishing those traditions and customs which tend to purify the public service, and restrain the encroachments of centralized power; that we endorse the general policy, and especially its course in reducing the tax on our great staple product tobacco, in maintaining the independence of the State judiciary, and the supremacy of the civil over the military power, in resisting the prostitution of the army to illegal interference in elections, and the use of a partisan and unscrupulous police to intimidate and corrupt the suffrages of the people, and in advocating liberal measures to wipe out the hostile legislation which belonged to a period of war, and has no fitting use in times of peace and reconciliation.
5. That we hold in abhorrence the high-handed and ever-to-be-remembered fraud by which the Republican party foisted a defeated candidate into the Presidential chair in contempt of a large majority of the votes of the people and of the electoral voice of the States, thereby bringing odium upon the country, and strengthening the hostility of monarchical and autocratic governments to free institutions. The time to rebuke that fraud and to vindicate the outraged sovereignty of the people has come; and without regard to any past differences between us, we invoke the honest, liberty-loving masses of the people to unite with us, and give the sentence of popular condemnation so clear and emphatic an utterance that fraud shall never again prove triumphant in undermining the Constitution and the laws, and trampling down the people's will.

The Virginia Readjusters, who once belonged to the Democratic party, and profess still to act as such, but by reason of their contrariety of sentiments, chiefly on the debt of the State, formally separated from it, and on February 25, 1879, organized themselves into a distinct body, held their State Convention at

Richmond on July 7th, above five hundred delegates being present, and nominated an electoral ticket in favor of the national Democratic nominees for President and Vice-President of the United States.

Electors for the State at large: William E. Cameron, of Petersburg, and H. H. Riddlebarger, of Shenandoah.

The following platform, expressing the unanimous sentiment of all the members of the committee appointed to draught it, was adopted by the Convention:

The Readjusters of Virginia, in convention assembled, renewing their declaration of allegiance to the principles of local self-government, and reaffirming their unalterable purpose to keep them steadily in view—

Resolved, That party lines should be drawn with sole reference to issues born of fundamental principles; and that the highest guarantees for the faithful execution of any public trust are a rigid and resolute adherence to this canon of political liberty, and a free avowal of sincere purpose to promote the welfare and maintain the legal rights of all the people of the State, neither consenting to the subordination of the one nor acquiescing in the postponement of the other, from any considerations of policy or of expediency.

2. That they reassert the right of the people, through their representatives, to exercise sovereign control of the revenues, and protest again against all devices to subordinate the support of government and the maintenance of public institutions to any other claim whatsoever; and solemnly reaffirming the principles and policy laid down by the Convention held at Mozart Hall on February 25, 1879, do hereby approve and endorse the "bill to reestablish the public credit"—upon which the people were denied the privilege of passing judgment by a partisan and arbitrary exercise of the Executive veto—as correctly embodying the same, as fairly meeting the equities of the case and the necessities of the people, and as constituting the extreme limit of legal and moral obligations upon the part of this Commonwealth to the holders of her bonds.

3. That while it is of grave importance to every interest of the Commonwealth that the question of the public debt should be finally and fairly disposed of, no settlement can have the essential feature of finality which shall lack the approval of the people; and consent will never be given by the majority, for whom this Convention is empowered to speak, to any plan which involves an increase of taxation, which creates any lien upon the revenues, which endangers the system of free education ordained by the Constitution, which includes war and reconstruction interest in computation of the debt, which recognizes any liability for that portion set aside to West Virginia, which makes or continues discrimination between different classes of the public creditors, which places the interests of State or bondholder in the keeping of agents other than the financial affairs of the Government, which relieves from taxation any property not specifically exempted by the Constitution, which converts a currency obligation into one payable in gold, or which imposes an interest liability larger than can with certainty be met out of revenues derivable from a rate of taxation not destructive of the industrial interests of the State.

4. That recognizing their obligation, and proclaiming their intention to support and obey the Federal and State Constitutions as the only sure protection of the civil and political rights of the citizen, and the only safe bulwark against encroachment upon the liberties of the residuaries of sovereignty in all popular governments, the Readjusters reiterate their purpose to vindicate and maintain the constitutional rights of the citizen to the exercise of a free and priceless suffrage.

5. That as the voice of the people is the source of all rightful power, so is the first duty of government toward securing and maintaining the popular rights and interests, and we demand at the hands of all departments of the government of Virginia an honest application of constitutional grants to the education of the children of the people, a fostering policy toward the public schools and colleges, and a full and generous recognition of the claims upon public support of the institutions for the insane and unfortunate.

6. That the paramount obligation of the various works of internal improvement is to the people of the State, by whose authority they were created, by whose money they were constructed, and by whose grace they live; and it is enjoined upon our representative and executive officers to enforce the discharge of that duty, to insure to the people of Virginia such rates, facilities, and connections as will protect every industry and interest against discrimination, tend to the development of their agricultural and mineral resources, encourage the investment of active capital in manufactures and the profitable employment of labor in industrial enterprises, grasp for our cities those advantages to which by reason of their geographical position they are entitled, and fulfill all the great public ends for which they were designed.

7. That while looking to the maintenance of the principles and accomplishment of the local objects above set forth as superior to all other considerations with which the Readjusters, as a party, have to deal, there are reasons both of duty and policy why this organization, called into existence by a majority of the people of Virginia, should control as such the voice of this State in national affairs. It is important to a successful issue of the contest in 1881 for supremacy in the Commonwealth that the representatives to and of the Federal Government from and in Virginia should not be found, as hitherto, contesting and obstructing the manifest will of a majority of this people upon domestic questions. To the end, therefore, that power may not fall into the hands of avowed enemies of the cause of readjustment, of liberal government, and of popular sovereignty, this Convention nominates a full ticket of electors, and that it recommends to the party in the several districts of the State to hold conventions and nominate candidates for seats in the Federal Congress.

And believing that the objects hitherto declared, and the interests of all the people of Virginia, are to be best subserved by the election of Hancock and English to the Presidency and Vice-Presidency of the United States, therefore further declare that the electoral ticket nominated by this Convention is instructed in behalf of those candidates, and that they are cordially commended to the earnest support of every member of this organization in Virginia.

8. That the Federal Government in every department should be administered in exact conformity with the Constitution as it is; that it is the duty of the citizen to accept in good faith the results of the war, and that the aim of statesmanship should be to establish peace and good-will between all sections of our common country and all classes of the people; that powers which are granted for the general good can not safely nor rightfully be prostituted to the fostering of classes, and the duties and privileges, the burdens and benefits, of government should be equally distributed; that the tariff and revenue systems of the Government should be reformed to the extent that no interest should be protected at the expense of another; that the Federal tax upon tobacco is an unjust discrimination against the land and labor employed in agriculture, and ought to be repealed.

9. That in the exercise of such powers as the people of Virginia may see fit to bestow upon this party in State or Federal affairs, the Readjusters stand pledged to a faithful observance of the principles and an earnest pursuit of the objects herein set forth.

The simultaneous appearance of two rival electoral tickets in the field, both apparently

Democratic, and both in favor of the national Democratic nominees for President and Vice-President of the United States, being calculated to enable the Republicans to carry the State, the State Executive Committee of the Conservative-Democratic party proposed to the State Executive Committee of the Readjusters the formation of one common electoral ticket, composed of Readjusters and Conservative-Democrats in equal numbers; to be supported by the Conservative-Democrats and Readjusters alike. The plan finally failed of success, by reason, it seems, that the Readjusters insisted on making its ultimate execution depend on conditions which the Conservative-Democracy could not assent to.

The National Democratic Committee, in an address "To the Conservative voters of Virginia," issued late in October, takes notice of the above-mentioned compromise of a fusion ticket proposed by the regular Conservatives to the Readjusters on terms of absolute equality, and defeated by the refusal of the latter to accept it; officially recognizes the electoral ticket nominated by the Conservative-Democratic Convention of May 19th; urges upon the people of the Old Dominion the hearty and united support of the May ticket; and concludes with informing them of the fact that the National Republican Committee, who had previously intended not to make a canvass in Virginia, now, deeming the discord among their political opponents irreconcilable, "announced officially their resolve to make an active and determined campaign." Upon this action of the National Democratic Committee, the chairman of the Readjusters' State Executive Committee, who was also regarded as the chief leader of the party, issued a manifesto which contains, among others, these declarations: "We the Readjusters are fighting for a higher prize than any abstract title to democracy"; and, "We organized to govern this State in our own way."

The Conservative-Democratic ticket was elected by a large majority, the vote having

stood as follows: Whole number of votes polled in the State, 212,693: Conservative-Democratic ticket, 96,912; Readjuster ticket, 81,674; Republican ticket, 84,020. The remaining votes were scattering.

As to the election of State Representatives in Congress, the Conservative-Democratic nominees were elected in the first, third, fifth, sixth, and eighth Congressional districts; the Readjuster nominees in the seventh and ninth districts; the Republican nominees in the second and fourth districts.

By the census of 1880, the population of Virginia is 1,512,203, classified as follows in regard to race, sex, and origin:

Whites.....	880,876	Females.....	766,656
Colored.....	631,827	Natives.....	1,497,565
Males.....	745,547	Foreign.....	14,638

The increase of population within the last decade is about twenty-three per cent.; the aggregate number in 1870 being 1,225,163—whites, 712,089; colored, 513,074.

The population of Richmond, the principal city in Virginia, has been likewise gradually increasing, as appears by the following table:

1830.....	16,060	1870.....	51,088
1840.....	20,159	1874.....	60,705
1850.....	27,570	1879.....	80,000
1860.....	37,707		

Among the foregoing items the last one represents the estimate of the Board of Health.

The growth of Richmond is also steady in reference to her material interests, especially the manufacturing and industrial establishments of all sorts. In 1879 the number of these establishments at work within her limits was 565, employing 14,193 hands, an increase of 2,463 over the previous year; and the sales of their products amounted to \$23,486,640, or \$5,535,590 more than the sales of 1878. In 1880 the increase over 1879 was 137 more establishments, with 2,739 more hands employed, and \$1,218,243 more in the proceeds from sales of their products, although the prices in 1880 were generally lower than in 1879.

W

WEST VIRGINIA. The Republicans of West Virginia met in State Convention at Wheeling on May 12th, for the purpose of choosing a delegate from the State at large to the National Republican Convention that was to assemble at Chicago on June 2d. For the one delegate at large, C. P. Keys (colored) and A. W. Campbell were put in nomination as competitors, and, after a long contest, participated in by large numbers on either side, the decision of it was finally remitted to a vote by counties, which resulted in 933 for Campbell and 530 for Keys. Mr. Campbell was then declared the delegate at large; Mr. Keys was, on motion, declared the alternate.

The following platform was adopted:

The Republicans of West Virginia, in convention assembled, hereby renew their allegiance to the Republican party of the Union, and reaffirm its time-honored principle of free government—a government of the people, by the people, and for the people. Especially do we reaffirm the foundation principle on which our Government rests, and which we hoped the civil war had settled, but now too often called in question, that the United States of America is a nation and not a league or confederacy of States.

We hold to the great saving truth of humanity, that "all men are created equal, and entitled to complete liberty and exact equality in the exercise of all civil, political, and public rights."

We demand the protection of all citizens, native and adopted, wherever the flag of our country floats, at

home or abroad, and that the same protection shall be afforded to the adopted American citizens that is extended to the native-born.

We require that all public officers be held to a rigid responsibility, and the prompt prosecution and punishment of all who betray official trusts or duties.

We regard the public-school system as the bulwark of the American Republic, and safeguard of its citizens, and demand that all public-school funds or property be kept from sectarian control.

We insist that the collection of duties on importations be so adjusted as to promote the best interests of American labor when brought in competition with foreign labor.

We oppose further grants of the public lands to corporations and monopolists, and demand that the national domain be devoted to free homes for the people.

We favor a sound and convertible currency, of which each dollar recognized by the Government shall be the equal of any other dollar recognized by the Government, whether of gold, silver, or paper.

We remember with gratitude the services of those who periled their lives for the country's preservation, and demand that the pledges made to those who died that the country might live, as well as those who survive to enjoy the blessings their valor won, shall be redeemed by pensions and generous emoluments.

We heartily approve the Administration of President Rutherford B. Hayes, and regard him as the highest example of his own declaration that "he serves his party best who serves his country best."

Finally, we deprecate all sectional feelings and tendencies, and, as evidence of our faith and patriotism, hereby pledge our utmost efforts and invite all good citizens of the State to cooperate with us in taking West Virginia out of the solid South, and placing her in the roll of Republican States, her honored birthplace and rightful heritage.

Resolved, That the delegates selected by this Convention to the Chicago Convention be, and they are hereby, instructed to vote for James G. Blaine, and to use all honorable means for his nomination.

The Democrats held their State Convention at Clarksburg on June 10th, and selected delegates to the National Democratic Convention, which was to assemble at Cincinnati on the 22d of that month. Delegate from the State at large, Robert McEldowney; alternate, D. D. Johnson.

The Committee on Resolutions submitted a report "recommending the repeal of the two-thirds rule at the National Convention." A motion "to amend" in favor of the two-thirds rule was lost, and the report of the committee adopted.

In preparation for the general elections in October for State officers and Congressmen, and in November for Presidential electors, the Republicans convened at Grafton, on June 30th, and nominated for Governor, George C. Sturgis; for State Treasurer, Richard Burke; for State Auditor, John S. Cunningham; for Attorney-General, George B. Caldwell; for State Superintendent of Free Schools, A. L. Purvinton; for Judge of the Court of Appeals, Edwin Maxwell; for Presidential electors: State at large, A. W. Campbell and James L. McLean.

The following platform was adopted by the Convention:

The Republicans of West Virginia, in convention assembled, declare that the Democratic party of West Virginia has proved false to its many pledges of re-

form, reduction of taxes, and the inauguration of a policy for the development of the State.

It has forced upon the State a cumbersome, expensive, and abstruse Constitution of difficult and uncertain interpretation and more difficult execution.

It has created a system of county courts that has made the enforcement of law and the redress of private wrongs difficult, costly, and uncertain, and that has brought the administration of justice into contempt.

It has impaired the efficiency of the public schools of the State by hostile legislation and an indifferent administration of the offices connected therewith.

It has enforced a burdensome, unequal, and inefficient system of road laws.

It has increased offices, salaries, and governmental expenses, without any adequate return to the tax-payer.

It has made no earnest effort to promote immigration and encourage capital to develop the resources and wealth of the State.

It has not restrained and limited railway and other monopolies to the legitimate sphere of their corporate powers, and has not held them to a rigid accountability for the exercise of their rights for the good of the citizen and the State.

It has bid for the keeping of criminals of other States, and by the contract system of convict-labor depreciated the wages of honest workers.

It has shown itself indifferent to the interest of the tax-payer, laborer, and producer, and shipper of the State, and that it is controlled by a reactionary and old time policy, and incapable of conceiving or executing a wise, liberal, or progressive policy in the government of the State.

The Republican party pledges itself to reform in State affairs, the reduction of taxation, salaries, fees, and the number of offices to the fullest extent consistent with the proper administration of the laws; to the legal control of all monopolies, while protecting the vested rights of those whose capital is asked to aid in developing the great natural resources of the State.

It declares itself in favor of the abolition of county courts as now constituted and administered, and will endeavor to secure a non-partisan and able judiciary.

It declares that the best interests of the State require that every encouragement by way of liberal laws relative to homesteads, exemptions, industrial associations, and mechanics' liens, should be held out to induce thrift, economy, and investment in homes by every citizen.

It pledges itself to secure more perfect regulations for the protection of miners and workers in all the dangerous occupations.

It will guard and improve the system of free schools, as the most efficient means for the education of all classes, and the security of good government and good morals.

It will endeavor to simplify legislation and the administration of State and county affairs, and at the same time secure their best results.

The Democratic party, pretending to great political wisdom, forced the Constitution of 1872 on the people by fraud and chicanery, thereby reviving that antiquated legal monstrosity called the County Court, which, for eight years, has cursed the tax-ridden people to such an extent that the same party has been compelled, by popular groans, to submit a loose, insufficient, and muddy constitutional amendment to rid us of the present court system, which amendment, without assuming any responsibility for it, our people should support for the time being, and until the Republican party is enabled, by proper legislation, to provide a simpler and less burdensome system.

The Republican party pledges itself, if placed in power, to legislate for the best interests of labor-reform, that honest toil may have the same careful protection and privileges that may be afforded to capital.

We denounce the extortion of monopolies, and any system devised by which the laboring-man is deprived of his just earnings, by prepayments, in any other medium than the legal currency of the country.

Finally, the Republican party pledges itself to labor for the overthrow of Bourbonism, and the inauguration of a wise, liberal, and progressive policy in State affairs, that shall bring West Virginia into harmony with her sister States, and cause her to share in the prosperity, wealth, and growing power of the great States of the North and West.

In conclusion, we heartily approve and endorse the platform of principles adopted by the late National Republican Convention at Chicago, and hereby pledge our best efforts to secure the election of the nominees of that Convention, James A. Garfield, of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York.

The Democratic party assembled in State Convention at Martinsburg, on July 28th, to nominate their respective candidates for office, with the following results: For Governor, Jacob B. Jackson; for State Treasurer, Thomas O'Brien; for State Auditor Joseph S. Miller; for Attorney-General, C. C. Watts; for State Superintendent of Free Schools, Bernard L. Butcher; for Judge of the Court of Appeals, Thomas C. Green; for Presidential electors, State at large, Elbridge G. Cracraft and William L. Wilson.

The platform adopted was as follows:

1. The Democratic party, in convention assembled, heartily endorses and approves the platform and principles adopted by the National Democratic Convention, and reaffirms its allegiance to the time-honored principles of the party.

2. We recognize with pleasure the fidelity of the various officials of the State in the administration of the duties and trust imposed on them by the law, and with pride point to the peace, quiet, and general prosperity of the State. The promptness with which the public revenues have been collected and paid into the Treasury, the economy and efficiency with which our public institutions have been managed, are some of the reasons why Democratic rule should be continued in West Virginia.

3. Mindful of the traditions of the party and the danger to be apprehended from the growing power and influence of monopolies, we declare that the Democratic party is now, as it has ever been, the friend of the people and the foe of all monopolies; that we are opposed to any system of legislation that tends to foster the power of such monopolies, and particularly to that species of legislation that discriminates in favor of railroad corporations and against the people.

4. We recognize the proposed amendments to the Constitution as presenting questions above and outside of party politics, and therefore remit them to the unbiased judgment of the people.

The following additional resolutions were also reported by the committee, and adopted by the Convention:

Resolved, That we regard the practice of accrediting any Democrats who may be present at conventions as delegates, as heretofore, as opening the door to fraud and unfairness, and a method which is corrupt and corrupting, and recommend the State Executive Committee to take steps to prevent the same in the future.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention, the practice so common in the State whereby county delegates to State and district conventions are instructed to cast the votes of the county for particular candidates, is open to many serious objections, in that it gives rise to fraud and unfair dealing; to conventions packed in the interest of particular parties; de-

prives opposing candidates of the representatives to which they would be otherwise entitled; produces complaint and dissatisfaction; disorganizes the party, and tends to the defeat of its candidates; that we condemn this practice as being at war with the usages, principles, and best interests of the Democratic party, and should be discontinued by all who have its success at heart.

The Greenback-Labor party, which has a comparatively large number of adherents in West Virginia, nominated their candidates as follows: For Governor, Napoleon B. French; for State Treasurer, Spencer W. Sturm; for State Auditor, George W. Hayes; for Attorney-General, Cyrus Hall; for Superintendent of Free Schools, W. J. Kinney; for Judge of the Court of Appeals, James A. Thompson; for Presidential electors at large, Robert Marshall and S. H. Davidson. Two amendments to the State Constitution, proposed in two joint resolutions passed by the Legislature, were submitted to the people for ratification or rejection at the State election. The first amendment proposed to strike out the eighth article of the Constitution and insert in its stead another, remodeling the whole judiciary system of the State. The second amendment proposed to insert in the third article of the Constitution a substitute for the original thirteenth section, relating to the hearing of "suits at common law where the value in controversy exceeds twenty dollars, exclusive of interest and costs." At the October election, and at that held in November, the Democratic nominees were generally elected. For the office of Governor, Mr. Jackson had a majority of about 15,000 over Mr. Sturgis, the vote having stood 58,000 and 43,000 respectively. The Greenback candidate received some 14,000 votes. The Democrats elected also their electoral ticket, and all of their nominees for Congressmen. They claimed their majority over the Republicans to have been increased by more than 3,000 votes since 1876. The House of Representatives in the Legislature at the next session will consist of 44 Democrats, 17 Republicans, 1 Greenbacker, and 1 Independent.

The two constitutional amendments were ratified by the people. The vote stood: yeas, 57,941, nays, 34,270, on the substitute for Article VIII of the Constitution, and yeas, 56,482, nays, 34,073, on the substitute for section 13 of Article III. Both amendments went into effect from the time of their ratification.

The thirteen Judges of the thirteen new circuits, into which the amendment divided the State, were also chosen at the October election.

The aggregate number of votes cast for President, in 1880, in West Virginia, was 112,714, or 12,775 more than in 1876, when it was 99,939.

The annual receipts, from all sources, and the expenditures, for all purposes, in the two fiscal years ended September 30, 1879 and 1880, were as follows:

Receipts in 1879, including \$318,802.92 cash in the Treasury October 1, 1879..... \$391,712 43
Expenditures..... 771,359 23

Surplus in the Treasury October 1, 1879.... \$220,353 15

Receipts in 1880, including \$220,353.15 cash in the Treasury October 1, 1879..... \$389,140 63
Expenditures..... 615,341 76

Surplus in the Treasury October 1, 1880.... \$253,798 92

The public education of youth in West Virginia appears to be in a most satisfactory condition. A comparison of the public schools, as they are at present, with what they were ten years ago, presents the following results:

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.	1870.	1880.
Number of children between six and twenty-one years old.....	162,432	210,113
Number of children attending school.....	81,330	142,850
General average attendance.....	55,033	91,704
Number of teachers granted certificates.....	2,303	3,679
Number of months taught.....	9,915	13,531
Salaries paid to teachers.....	\$220,753 84	\$522,483 24
General average monthly salary of teachers.....	31 79	23 19
For tuition, cash per pupil, based on enrollment.....	3 01	3 65
Based on enumeration.....	1 62	2 49
Total receipts from State, district levies, and other sources.....	565,207 99	867,693 73
Number of school districts.....	2,567	3,529
Number of common schools.....	2,440	3,680
Number of graded schools.....	74	103
Number of high-schools.....	1	8
Number of schoolhouses:		
Log.....	904	1,319
Frame.....	1,124	2,142
Brick.....	63	93
Stone.....	17	6
Whole number of schoolhouses.....	2,113	3,560
Total value of school property, in grounds, houses, furniture, and apparatus.....	\$1,057,473 94	\$1,670,584 91

In the Hospital for the Insane the number of patients under treatment during the year ended September 30, 1879, was 470; up to the same date in 1880 it was 539. The cost of their support, *per capita*, was \$2.09 per week in the former year, and \$2.18 in the latter.

In the Institution for the Deaf-Mutes and the Blind the average number of pupils, during the two years ended September 30, 1879 and 1880, was eighty-one; the annual cost for the support of each pupil, to the State, having been \$267.18, and \$255.51, respectively.

The fish-culture seems to prosper in West Virginia, and the Commissioners' labors during the last two years have been attended with satisfactory results. The New and Greenbrier Rivers, besides numerous smaller streams, have been abundantly stocked with black bass. Many thousands of salmon, carp, trout, and other esteemed varieties of fish, have also been placed in streams and ponds throughout the State. The hatching-house at Romney is in successful operation.

The United States census of 1880 returns the population of West Virginia at 618,197, showing an increase of 176,183 within the last

ten years, as in the census of 1870 the population was stated at 442,014.

Foreign immigration into West Virginia, for permanent settlement, has well commenced. Several prosperous colonies have been already established in it from abroad, and there is a fair prospect that many more will successively follow. The topography of the State, its climate, soil, and productions, are considered as especially inviting to the Swiss, and to the inhabitants of the mountainous regions of Germany. During the year 1880, three Swiss scientists visited West Virginia in the interest of "The Swiss Commerce and Colonization Society"; their object being to examine and report about the resources of that portion of the State in which the Society proposes to locate colonies.

The three Railroad Commissioners, whom the Board of Public Works appointed in April, 1880, to ascertain the taxable valuation of the various railroads in the different counties of the State, presented their united report, as follows:

Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad:	
Cabell County.....	\$255,985 00
Putnam County.....	116,657 50
Kanawha County.....	356,490 00
Fayette County.....	465,975 00
Summers County.....	301,247 50
Monroe County.....	17,690 00
Greenbrier County.....	243,005 00
Total.....	\$1,759,000 00
Shenandoah Valley Railroad:	
Jefferson County.....	112,264 50
Martinsburg and Potomac Railroad:	
Berkeley County.....	57,000 00
Pennsboro and Harrisville Railroad:	
Ritchie County.....	8,500 00
Laurel Fork and Sand Hill Railroad:	
Wood County.....	22,000 00
Ritchie County.....	11,000 00

WILLIAMS, JAMES D., Governor of Indiana, was born in Pickaway County, Ohio, January 16, 1808. His parents were emigrants from the Old World, seeking to better their fortunes in the New. They had six children, of whom James was the eldest, and they were unable to provide them with advantages for education, such as the humblest can now secure. That part of Ohio was already too thickly settled for them, and in 1818 the Williams family removed to Knox County, Indiana. Not many years after, the father died, and their support devolved upon the eldest son. The responsibilities thus early assumed developed his industry, thrift, and self-reliance, the traits of character which shaped the career of the future Governor. In 1831 he married Nancy Huffman, a country girl of the neighborhood, and they began life on a few acres of uncleared land which he had recently purchased. This stout-hearted couple added field to field, until four thousand acres formed their fertile farm, but during those fifty years their house and home were on the spot where their first roof-tree had been set up. In the county records tract after tract is registered as passing into Governor Williams's possession, but he never parted

with anything that he had once acquired. His first public office was that of justice of the peace for Harrison Township, Knox County, in the year 1838. In 1843 he was elected to represent Knox County in the House of Representatives of the General Assembly. Though a Democrat in a Whig county, he received a majority of votes. This hold upon the popular favor he kept through life. He represented his county in the House during seven sessions, and in the Senate during twelve. He held office almost continuously, and never lost but one election, and then his opponent was judged to have deserved so well of his party that he was rewarded with the speakership. The developing of the agricultural interest of Indiana was his foremost object. Three societies were formed in his county for promoting these interests, and he was elected president of each of them. He was one of the incorporators and President of the State Board of Agriculture. He was also deeply interested in education, and originated many of the laws which have perfected school and college facilities in Indiana. In 1874 he was returned from his district to Congress and served in that body until 1876, when he resigned on his nomination to the office of Governor, though his term as representative had not yet expired, nor was his election sure. During his gubernatorial term, friends and foes alike concede that the conduct of public affairs was honest. He applied to affairs of state the same economy, prudence, and stability, which had built up his private fortunes. He continued unpolished in manner and uncouth in appearance, as when he earned the *sobriquet* of "Blue-Jeans Williams," by which he is widely known through the country, but he kept his integrity and commanded the respect of the people. He mourned over the corruption and venality which have obtruded themselves into elections and the conduct of the Government. One of his last speeches was that, if he had his life to live over again, he would give it to stir up wholesome public opinion, rather than to the development of the material prosperity of the country. He died in Indianapolis, suddenly, on November 20th, while fulfilling his duties as Governor of Indiana, and he was mourned by that people as one wholly identified with the growth and history of the State.

WISCONSIN. The Legislature met January 14th, and adjourned March 29th, having been in session sixty-four days, and enacted 323 bills out of 669 presented. Alexander A. Arnold was elected Speaker of the Assembly. The Senate was presided over by Thomas B. Scott, President *pro tempore*. The tax levy was increased from \$248,000 in 1879 to \$453,000 for 1880, after a reduction from \$405,000 in 1878. The direct appropriations made amount to \$418,753. An official inspection of illuminating oils was ordained, and the test fixed at 120° Fahr. State lands at the head of the Chippewa, Wisconsin, and St. Croix Rivers were reserved to

be used for navigation reservoirs. A grant of swamp lands was given to the projected St. Paul and Eastern Railway, and counties in the northern part of the State were authorized to part with similar lands to promote railroads. Slight changes were made in the game and fish laws. Authority to appeal from the equalizations of county boards of assessors was conferred upon cities and villages. An investigation of charges of mismanagement on the part of the authorities of the State Hospital for the Insane was ordered. The clause in the Revised Statutes which makes railroad companies liable for damages to employees, for accidents due to the negligence of other employees, was repealed. The dog-license tax was abolished. A militia law provides for a force of thirty companies, and for annual encampments. The insurance laws were changed in such way that the Insurance Commissioner is vested with full authority to examine into the condition of any company, and to revoke licenses in case the provisions of the law are not fulfilled. An act was passed empowering United States Commissioners to administer oaths, and take acknowledgments to deeds, which latter power was also extended to registers of deeds. Certain police powers were conferred upon the conductors and other employees on railroad trains. The definition of larceny was so altered as to make it a State-prison offense to steal property of the value of twenty dollars or over, instead of one hundred dollars, which has been the limit heretofore. The "good time" regulations were modified so as to allow long-term convicts to earn more of the time premium by good behavior, but short-term prisoners less; and the penalties for misconduct in the Penitentiary were increased. Agents of the Wisconsin Humane Society were authorized to arrest in certain cases of cruelty to persons or to animals. It was provided in one of the acts that judgments of the Supreme Court may be docketed in the Circuit Courts. Personal property, as provided in another enactment, must be assessed in the town in which the tax-payer resides. A law was passed permissive of the use of barbed-wire fences. Graduates of colleges and universities of the State were given the right to obtain teachers' certificates. The liability of bank stockholders was established. A law against the adulteration of foods and drugs was passed, and the Governor was authorized to appoint a State analyst. A law was enacted which provides that persons alleged to be insane may, at the request of their friends, be tried before a jury, to have their insanity established, before committal to an asylum. The claims of counties against the State for the care of insane persons or paupers were directed to be presented to the State Board of Charities and Reform, to be audited, and reported to the Legislature. A woman-suffrage amendment to the Constitution, to permit female citizens to vote at elections, was adopted by a joint resolution. It must be rati-

fied by the succeeding Legislature before being decided by the people's vote, as must be the amendment providing for biennial sessions of the Legislature, which also passed for the first time. An act was passed relating to writs of *mandamus* and *prohibition*, providing that such writs may be granted in the case of disputed elections, and the rights of persons to certificates of election tested in the courts in the cases of Presidential electors, Congressmen, and members of the Legislature. A change was made in the registry law, so that electors who are not registered may vote upon furnishing proof that they are legal voters. A law was made directing that no disbursements of money by directors or trustees of State charitable or penal institutions can be made except upon specified appropriations, and that no indebtedness can be incurred by such officers in excess of the appropriations of the Legislature.

The direct appropriations voted make the sum of \$418,753, as against \$299,177 appropriated in 1879, and \$339,000 in 1878. The principal items were \$152,411 for the State Hospital for the Insane; \$114,000 for the Deaf and Dumb Institute, of which \$14,000 was to repair losses by fire, and \$70,000 for rebuilding; \$74,218 for the Northern Hospital for the Insane, including \$19,000 for improvements; \$15,000 for improvements in the Industrial School for Girls; and \$19,967 for the maintenance of the Industrial School for Boys.

The receipts of the Treasury, from all sources, for the year ending September 30, 1880, were \$1,744,719; the balance on hand September 30, 1879, \$588,824; together, \$2,333,543. The disbursements for the year, for all purposes, were \$1,872,144. Of the balance remaining September 30, 1880, amounting to \$461,398, \$142,872 was credited to the general fund, \$124,299 to the various educational funds, and \$174,285 to the St. Croix and Lake Superior Railroad trespass fund. The receipts on account of the general fund were as follows:

Direct State tax.....	\$455,881 89
Railroad companies, license taxes.....	418,148 76
Insurance companies, license taxes.....	41,845 15
Counties, for the support of inmates of the several charitable institutions.....	101,181 81
Miscellaneous sources.....	82,899 62
Total.....	\$1,049,406 73
Balance from previous year.....	273,281 49
Total.....	\$1,322,688 22

The expenditures from the general fund—from which are paid, besides the current expenses of the State, the interest on the war debt, and appropriations for the schools and charitable institutions—were as follows:

Salaries and permanent appropriations.....	\$185,759 51
Legislative expenses.....	91,517 75
Miscellaneous purposes.....	224,948 20
Interest on the public debt.....	157,560 00
School fund income.....	7,088 86
Free High Schools.....	25,000 00
State University.....	48,897 18
Benevolent Institutions.....	419,014 52
Milwaukee Insane Asylum.....	75,000 00
Total.....	\$1,179,815 52

Of the excess of \$123,704 over the disbursements of the previous fiscal year, only \$6,917 is chargeable to current State expenses proper, the excess in the appropriations for benevolent and educational institutions having been \$42,785, besides the amount paid to Milwaukee County on account of the construction of its insane asylum.

The condition of the several educational trust funds at the close of the year, showing a gain of \$54,828 over the total amount at the same date in the preceding year, was as follows:

TRUST FUND.	At interest.	On hand.
School.....	\$2,716,226 91	\$31,581 70
University.....	207,375 40	19,085 88
Agricultural College.....	244,519 52	22,511 84
Normal School.....	1,039,542 60	81,181 51
Total.....	\$4,207,699 44	\$104,609 93

The State debt amounted to \$2,252,057, the same as in 1879, but its form has been changed by the substitution of certificates of indebtedness to the Agricultural College fund for most of the original bonds.

The indebtedness of the several counties, cities, towns, villages, and school districts in the State was reported to the Secretary of State as follows:

Railroad aid.....	\$4,500,970 62
Interest unpaid.....	1,276,012 42
School districts.....	276,566 58
All other purposes.....	3,545,518 13
Total.....	\$9,599,067 75

The values of all property in the State subject to taxation, as returned by the assessors for the past two years, are as follows:

PROPERTY.	1879.	1880.
Personal property.....	\$88,127,940 00	\$89,747,571 00
City and village lots.....	85,545,746 50	104,490,711 00
Other real estate.....	282,629,498 50	281,441,861 00
Total.....	\$406,303,185 00	\$425,680,143 00

The gross value of taxable property as estimated by the Board of Assessment was \$445,582,720, which is probably 40 per cent. below the actual aggregate taxable wealth. The value of private property which pays no revenue to the State either by way of direct tax or otherwise is returned by the assessors at \$6,353,014, as follows:

Religious associations.....	\$5,696,090 00
Scientific and literary associations.....	378,455 00
Benevolent associations.....	214,779 00
Agricultural societies.....	63,600 00

The total amount of taxes levied in the State for the year 1879, for all purposes, amounted to \$7,577,767.27, a decrease of \$392,091.73 from the amount levied the previous year, and was at the rate of \$1.72 and 6¼ mills on \$100 of the assessment for that year. The purpose for which these taxes were levied and their respective amounts and rates are as follows:

TAXES.	Amounts.	Rates.
State tax.....	\$457,452 61	\$0.10 4
County tax.....	1,722,033 25	.39 2
Town, city, and village tax.....	2,314,909 56	.52 7
School tax.....	1,924,239 55	.43 9
Road tax.....	1,150,132 30	.26 4
Total.....	\$7,577,767 27	\$1.72 6

These figures represent only the direct taxes levied upon property. The total taxes paid by the people, directly and indirectly, into the State Treasury, were, for the last fiscal year, nearly \$600,000 in excess of the amount here stated. Nothing like this proportion obtains in county, town, and other taxes, but the sums collected by way of licenses and fees are by no means inconsiderable.

The State tax levied in 1880 amounts to \$662,058.63, a large increase over the tax of the preceding year, rendered necessary by extraordinary appropriations. The estimated expenditures for the calendar year 1882 are given as \$988,008, and the estimated receipts under existing laws as \$704,758.

The amount expended for the support of common schools during the fiscal year was \$2,166,368.43, an increase of nearly \$14,000 over the preceding year. Of this sum \$1,567,870.32 were paid for teachers' wages. The whole number of children within the State of school age was reported at 483,198, a slight decrease. The attendance at school increased nearly 6,000, and was reported at 299,258. The number of teachers employed was 10,110. By the terms of the compulsory education law, which went into effect September 1, 1879, all children between the ages of seven and fifteen years not excused for good reason are required to attend a public or private school at least twelve weeks in each year. The number of children between these ages was found to be 229,076; and 170,402, or nearly three fourths of them, attended the public schools during the year. The whole number of pupils in attendance at the four normal schools was 1,880, at an expense averaging \$40.81 per pupil. The number attending Teachers' Institutes was 4,965, a gain of 542 over the attendance for the previous year; and the expense of conducting the institutes averaged less than \$1.50 for each person instructed. The number of students enrolled at the State University in the different departments, October 1, 1880, was 436. The total expenses for fiscal year were \$97,060.04, of which sum \$49,502.40 were paid to instructors, and \$13,192.46 for completion of Assembly Hall. The number of children received in the Industrial School for Girls at Milwaukee during the year was 59; the number attending at the close of the year 109, of whom 23 were infant boys. The current expenses for the year were \$8,300. Since the opening of the institution in 1875, 241 children have been received, and 125 have been returned and are doing well. The number of boys in attendance at the Industrial School at

Waukesha averaged 427 for the year. The whole number received since the establishment of the school in 1860 has been 1,801. The ordinary expenses for the year were \$48,310. A large proportion of the boys sent to this reformatory are not criminals, and for such the Governor recommends that a separate institution be founded.

There were 309 convicts in the Penitentiary on October 1, 1879, and 277 on the same date in 1880, 121 having been received, and 153 released or lost by death during the year. Of those confined during the year, 11 were on the second conviction and one on the third; 32 were strictly temperate, 55 intemperate, and 34 occasional drinkers; 5 were on life sentences, 15 for five years, 25 for two years, and 33 for one year. The receipts of the prison during the year, including \$11,090 balance, were \$49,688; the expenditures, \$44,082. The prison, though smaller than those of other States of equal population, is not half full. The earnings of the convicts were \$27,873.

In the Northern Hospital for the Insane 719 patients were treated during the year, the daily average being 529; and in the State Hospital an average of 550, and 753 altogether. The current expenses of the former were \$129,056; of the latter, \$124,816, and \$48,963 on account of previous liabilities. The committee appointed to investigate the affairs of the latter institution found much to censure in the methods of conducting the business affairs of the hospital, owing in a large measure, they thought, to the system provided by law for the government of State charitable institutions. They recommend that a General Board of Control should be created for the government of all of them instead of several local boards as at present. The Commission of Inquiry found much to commend in the care and treatment of the patients, and only extravagance, not corruption, in the financial management. The Milwaukee County Insane Asylum, just completed, is one of the best-appointed asylums in the country. It has received, since its opening in March, 245 patients, the daily average having been 185. The average cost *per capita* was \$2.90 per week, a lower rate than, it is thought, can be maintained. There is accommodation for 300 inmates. In the Deaf and Dumb Institution there were 156 pupils at the end of the year. The buildings, which were destroyed by fire in 1879, have been reerected. In the Institution for the Education of the Blind there were 77 pupils at the end of the year.

The effect of the inspection of illuminating oils has been that the number of accidents has greatly decreased. Of the oil inspected nine per cent. was found below the standard. The Commissioner of Insurance reports \$150,731,034 fire risks written during the year, \$1,589,472 paid in premiums, and \$1,087,193 losses paid. The mileage of the railroads in the State at the close of the calendar year aggregated

3,183 miles, including 112 miles of narrow-gauge track, but not including 325 miles of sidings. There were 233 miles of track laid during the year. There were carried 2,717,500 passengers, an increase of 284,654; and 4,347,379 tons of freight, an increase of 170,168. The earnings amounted to \$13,655,578, an increase of over \$2,000,000; and the expenses \$7,583,493, an increase of \$550,000, the net increase in earnings being \$1,620,493. The net earnings amounted to nearly five per cent. of the total stock and indebtedness. The Board of Immigration reports about 21,000 foreign settlers in 1880.

The Sturgeon Bay Canal is not yet completed, though it has been opened to commerce. In 1880, 553 vessels passed through it. On the improvements in the Fox and Wisconsin enough has been done to prove that a navigable channel can be established between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi River.

The sales of public lands have been largely increased during the year; 82,000 acres were disposed of by sale, and 64,000 patented to counties. The lands now held by the State, inclusive of about 82,000 acres reserved from sale, amount to 1,455,202 acres, and embrace many thousands of acres of excellent farming lands. Considerable progress has been made in prosecuting the State's claims for additional swamp lands.

The returns of the principal farm products raised in the State in 1879, and growing in 1880, as reported to the Secretary of State by the town assessors, show the following aggregates:

Wheat.—Product of 1879, 21,040,233 bushels; growing in 1880, 1,787,921 acres.
Corn.—Product of 1879, 27,530,121 bushels; growing in 1880, 949,785 acres.
Oats.—Product of 1879, 27,197,579 bushels growing in 1880, 988,898 acres.
Barley.—Product of 1879, 4,246,452 bushels; growing in 1880, 212,626 acres.
Rye.—Product of 1879, 1,369,250 bushels; growing in 1880, 138,181 acres.
Potatoes.—Product of 1879, 5,994,923 bushels; growing in 1880, 88,734 acres.
Cranberries.—Product of 1879, 67,339 bushels; growing in 1880, 17,804 acres.
Clover-seed.—Product of 1879, 263,311 bushels.
Timothy-seed.—Product of 1879, 43,989 bushels.
Flax.—Product in 1879, 17,597,859 pounds; growing in 1880, 44,451 acres.
Hops.—Product of 1879, 1,667,612 pounds; growing in 1880, 5,173 acres.
Tobacco.—Product of 1879, 9,050,954 pounds; growing in 1880, 18,359 acres.
Butter.—Product of 1879, 22,703,349 pounds.
Cheese.—Product of 1879, 16,407,145 pounds.
 (Number of cows, 1880, 399,454.)

These statistics are said to be far from complete. The culture of flax appears to be quite successful, and may lead to the establishment of mills. Tobacco-growing, which was formerly confined to a small portion of the State, has been greatly extended, and is already an important commercial interest. The value of the crop of 1880 is nearly \$1,500,000.

In a case involving the right of a qualified voter who had not registered to vote, the Su-

preme Court delivered an opinion to the effect that an elector possessing the qualifications specified in the Constitution can not be deprived of his right to exercise the franchise by an act of the Legislature.

In the opinion of the Supreme Court, in *Barnard vs. Backhaus*, known as the "wheat-gambling case," the principles governing the case are stated as follows:

Contracts in writing for the sale and delivery of grain at a future day, for a price certain, made with a *bona fide* intention to deliver the grain and pay the price, are valid in law. But when such contracts are made as a cover for gambling, without intention to deliver and receive the grain, but merely to pay and receive the difference between the price agreed upon and the market price at such future day, they come within the statute of gaming and are void in law. To uphold such a contract, it must affirmatively and satisfactorily appear that it was made with an actual view to the delivery and receipt of the grain, and not as an evasion of the statute of gaming, or as a cover for a gambling transaction.

The returns of the enumerators to the Census Bureau make the population of Wisconsin 1,315,480: divided into 680,106 males, and 635,374 females; 910,063 natives, and 405,417 foreign-born, 1,309,622 white, and 5,858 colored—the latter including 16 Chinese, and 3,118 Indians and half-breeds.

The Republican State Convention met at Madison, on May 5th, to select delegates to the National Convention. The Convention was divided, in its choice of a Presidential nominee, between Blaine, Washburne, and the other prominent candidates. The resolutions read as follows:

The Republicans of Wisconsin, in State Convention assembled, reassert their adherence to those principles of liberty and nationality by which the Republican party of the United States has given a higher direction and a sustained progress to the civilization of the Western world.

They declare it to be the duty of the nation to protect every citizen whomsoever, and wherever he may be within its borders, in a free and honest ballot for national officers; and that the peace of the United States should abide with each of its citizens, however humble, and wherever he may go or dwell within the limits of this proud Union.

They rejoice that the resumption of specie payments, making our paper dollars the absolute equivalent of the coin of the precious metals, and accomplished by the Republican party, has brought our country to a new era of prosperity; and are resolved that the principle of convertibility shall be unflinchingly maintained.

They accord to President Hayes the profound admiration and respect which he merits, for the honesty and purity of his Administration; and heartily approve and endorse his course in presenting a determined front against attempts of the dominant party in Congress to curtail the just powers of the national Government.

And recognizing the eminent character and fitness of the gentlemen whose names are prominently mentioned in connection with the Republican nomination for President, and believing the National Republican Convention will decide wisely and for the highest interests of the country, they do not regard it as proper to instruct their delegates to that Convention; but, having full confidence in the wisdom and judgment

of the delegates, there to be assembled, they hereby pledge to the Republican candidate nominated by that Convention their hearty support, and the ten electoral votes of Wisconsin toward his election.

The official canvass of the election returns show that the vote of the State on Presidential

candidates was as follows: Garfield, Republican, 144,399; Hancock, Democrat, 114,656; Weaver, Greenback, 7,982; Dow, Prohibition candidate, 67; Phelps, Antimasonic candidate, 91. Plurality of Garfield over Hancock, 29,743; Garfield's majority, 21,603.

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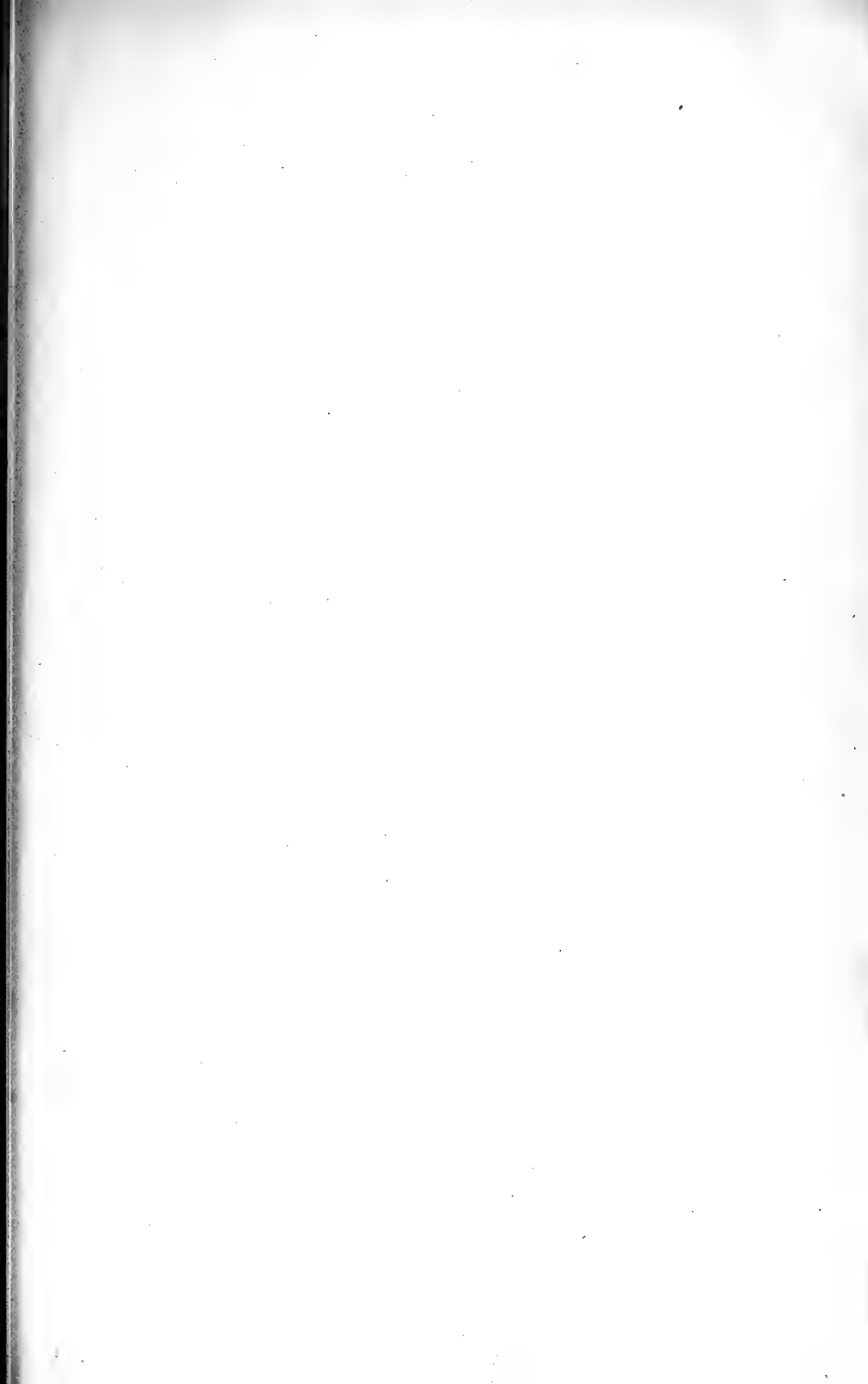
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